

A Theoretical Investigation on Innovative Work Behaviours and Fear of Failure

Abstract

Organizations that operate in the present quick changing competitive world face an expanding interest to engage in innovative behaviors to create and deliver new products and to gain sustainable competitive advantage. In order to accomplish this task successfully organizations nowadays rely increasingly on their employees to innovate. Innovations are quickly arising and changing the marketplace and even radical innovations are causing creative destructions. Management is for the most part in charge of success or failure, so they should discover approaches to increase innovation within the organization. One significant method of doing this is to reduce the FF which is caused by negative management responses to both innovation and failures from endeavors at risky new ideas. FF makes the entrepreneur, who even takes his own decisions and believes in the necessity of innovation, end many initiatives without the beginning because of the negativity that might arise as a result of innovation. For this reason, innovative behaviors and the related concept of FF, should be examined in detail and thus lead to work in the field. The study aims to investigate the relationship between innovative behaviors and FF and to reveal the effects of the concepts in organizational psychology and entrepreneurship.

Keywords:

Innovation, Innovative Work Behaviours, Fear of Failure.

Özet

Günümüzün hızla değişen rekabet dünyasında faaliyet gösteren kuruluşlar, yeni ürünler yaratmak ve sunmak ve ayrıca sürdürülebilir rekabet avantajı kazanmak için yenilikçi davranışlar geliştirme yönünde artan bir taleple karşı karşıyadır. Bu görevi başarıyla yerine getirebilmek için günümüzde işletmeler giderek çalışanlarını yenilik yapmaya teşvik etmektedirler. Yenilikler hızla ortaya çıkıyor ve pazarı değiştiriyor ve hatta radikal yenilikler yaratıcı yıkımlara neden olabiliyor. Yönetim çoğunlukla başarı ya da başarısızlıktan sorumludur, bu nedenle kuruluştaki yeniliği artırmanın yollarını bulmalıdır. Bunu yapmanın önemli bir yolu, riskli yeni fikir denemelerinden kaynaklanan yenilik ve başarısızlıklara yönetimin olumsuz tepkisi sebebiyle oluşan başarısızlık korkusunu azaltmaktır. Başarısızlık korkusu kendi kararlarını alan ve başarının gerekliliğine inanan girişimcilerin dahi yenilik sonucunda oluşabilecek kötü sonuçlar nedeniyle pek çok girişimlerini başlamadan

bitirmelerine neden olmaktadır. Bu sebeple, örgütler ve girişimciler için bir gereklilikten ziyade zorunluluk olan yenilikçi davranışların ve bu davranışlarla ilişkisi olduğu düşünülen başarısızlık korkusu kavramlarının detaylı incelenmesi ve böylece alandaki çalışmalara yol göstermesi gerekmektedir. Bu amaçla bu çalışmada yenilikçi davranışlar ile başarısızlık korkusu kavramının ilişkisi incelenerek kavramın örgüt psikolojisi ve girişimcilik alanındaki etkileri ortaya konmaya çalışılmıştır.

Introduction

As a result of social and economic developments, technological developments and transformation of organizational structures and tasks, innovations emerge as an important feature of today's business world. Innovations are new and potentially useful products or processes that are applied to solve problems and challenges in a particular work context and to protect or improve the current state of that context (West and Farr, 1990). Innovations for organizations are important to improve the quality of the effectiveness of internal processes and results, to gain and maintain competitive advantage and to ensure long-term survival of the organization (Scott and Bruce, 1994).

In light of these advantages of innovation and because of more adaptable work structures, organizations progressively expect and require their employees to add to change and improvement at work. Genuine innovation includes risking failure and confronting a scope of conceivable outcomes, such as financial loss, or losing title, credibility or some other privileges accruing to work position. These results may lead to the development of FF. That hinders innovation by concealing failures, suppressing new ideas, and maintaining a strategic distance from risky concepts. A key role and skill of management and/or an entrepreneur is to manage, mitigate and minimise the fear.

1. INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOURS

In the 1980s, the first psychological studies on innovative work behaviour began (West and Farr 1990). *Innovative work behavior* (IWB) is here defined as “*all employee behavior directed at the generation, introduction and/or application of ideas, processes, products or procedures (within a role, group or organization), new to the relevant unit of adoption that supposedly significant benefit the relevant unit of adoption*”. Another definition defines it as the intentional generation, promotion and realization of new ideas within a work role, workgroup or organization in order to benefit role performance, the group or the organization (West and Farr 1990). IWB along these lines includes behavior of employees that directly and

indirectly empowers the improvement and introduction of innovations on the work environment.

Research and practitioners alike, often talk about “creativity” and “innovation” reciprocally (Scott and Bruce, 1994). Despite the fact that related, these builds offer some particular accentuations. *Creativity* is defined as the production of new and useful ideas concerning products, services, processes and procedures (e.g. Oldham and Cummings, 1996; Amabile, 1988). Amabile (1985), Mumford and Gustafson (1988), for example, allude to creativity as the generation of novel and useful ideas. In addition, when using the term “creativity”, researchers often mean something that has been done for the first time (Woodman et al., 1993). Innovation theory has over and over focused on innovation is extensive than just creativity and furthermore includes the execution of ideas (e.g. King and Anderson, 2002). Therefore innovation emphasizes a more complex process (see Janssen et al., 2004). It refers to an activity whose aim is to develop, carry, react to, and modify ideas (Van de Ven, 1986). Similarly, others have emphasized that innovation has to do not only with the intentional act of generating new ideas, but also with the introduction and application of new ideas, all went for enhancing organizational performance (Janssen et al., 2004; Kanter, 1988; West and Farr, 1989; Scott and Bruce, 1994). Creativity can be viewed as an essential component of IWB, most apparent in the beginning of the innovation process, when problems or performance gaps are perceived and ideas are created in light of an apparent requirement for innovation (West, 2002). Nonetheless, the implementation of ideas in IWB is also available in the process. In fact, Miron, Erez, and Naveh (2004) have discovered that creative individuals are not generally very innovative. IWB is intended to generate some sort of benefit and has a clearer applied component (West and Farr, 1990; Scott and Bruce, 1994). Consequently, researchers have concurred that IWB encompasses employee creativity, i.e., the generation of new and useful ideas concerning products, services, processes and procedures (Amabile, 1988), and the implementation of the created ideas (Axtell et al., 2000). All the more particularly, IWB comprises of an arrangement of some behaviors (Scott and Bruce 1994; Janssen 2000): *opportunity exploration* and *idea generation* include searching for and recognizing opportunities to innovate and producing ideas and solutions for the opportunities. Next, *championing* alludes to promoting the generated idea for the purpose of finding support and coalition building. Finally, *application* makes the supported idea really happen. It encompasses developing, testing, modifying, and commercializing the idea.

Another construct that differs from innovative behavior is *proactive behavior* – taking self-initiative and future-oriented actions to improve the situation or oneself – because it focuses mainly on individuals realizing change after a problem is identified. Also proactive behaviors can be part of the innovation process, in particular in the last phase. However, these behaviors do not necessarily have to be innovative (Parker et al., 2006).

A third similar concept to individual innovation is *role innovation* which can be defined as the introduction of significant new behaviors into a pre-existing role (West, 1987). Unlike with IWB, with role innovation only the procedures or processes within an employee's work role are changed, not in the department, unit or organization.

The last employee-related construct is *continuous improvement* that differs from individual innovation in the way that the concept focuses solely on continuous improvement with existing resources to enhance the innovativeness of the organization, whereas individual innovation also aims at encouraging radical innovation (Bessant and Caffyn, 1997).

IWB can range from *incremental improvements* to developing *radically novel ideas* that affect processes or products across the whole organization (Axtell et al., 2000). The latter are rather rare and mostly only employees working in the research and development domain are able to contribute in such a manner. The former smaller-scale suggestions and improvements are much more common and concern employees from all areas. IWB include thinking in alternative ways, searching for improvements, figuring out new ways to accomplish tasks, looking for new technologies, applying new work methods, and investigating and securing resources to make new ideas happen. For instance, Getz and Robinson (2003) demonstrate that eighty percent of the ideas in an organization are initiated by employees. However, employees are rarely formally prescribed to innovate. So, usually, IWB is not part of the typical job of most employees. Therefore, employees are rarely directly or explicitly rewarded for innovative behaviors (George and Brief, 1992; Katz, 1964). For this reason individual innovation can be identified as a purely discretionary behavior which is in scientific literature regarded as extra role behavior (Katz, and Kahn, 1978). Nevertheless, stimulating individual innovation can benefit an employee. An employee may gain intrinsic rewards for his or her behavior, like recognition or the possibility to expand their skills. This may result in feelings of enhanced personal control and morale and therefore a greater commitment to self and ones job (Schuler and Jackson, 1987). On the other hand nevertheless attempts to benefit the organization (Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie, 2006). Employees' IWB is crucial in many

contemporary management principles, such as continuous improvement (Fuller, Marler, and Hester, 2006), kaizen (Imai, 1986), corporate entrepreneurship (Sharma and Chrisman 1999), and suggestion programs (Unsworth, 2001).

Dimensions of Innovative Work Behaviours:

Innovative behaviors can emerge at the individual and organizational level within the organization. In any case it may advantage the organization. By taking part in innovative behaviors employees create, convey, respond to and change ideas that would otherwise not be developed. This makes employees crucial for the innovation of products, processes and methods within their organization (Ramamoorthy et al., 2005). The positive relationship between individual innovation and organizational innovativeness is also supported in literature. For instance, Campbell et al. (1996) showed a positive correlation between organizational performance and innovations-specific behaviors.

Different authors distinguish different dimensions in the concept of innovative work behavior. Kanter (1988) outlines three stages relevant to IWB, namely idea generation, coalition building and implementation. Already Scott and Bruce (1994), expanding the work crafted by Kanter (1988), suggested three distinct dimensions: idea generation, championing and implementation of the innovation. Subsequent research took over this three dimensional view on IWB (Janssen, 2000; Messmann and Mulder, 2010). Other authors nevertheless introduced more dimensions in the IWB concept (e.g. de Jong and Den Hartog, 2010). However, studies hardly show empirical distinction between the dimensions so use a single scale for IWB in their analysis (Janssen, 2000; Scott and Bruce, 1998).

So that the resulting process can be summarized as follows: **1.** Opportunity exploration, **2.** Idea generation, **3.** Championing, **4.** Application.

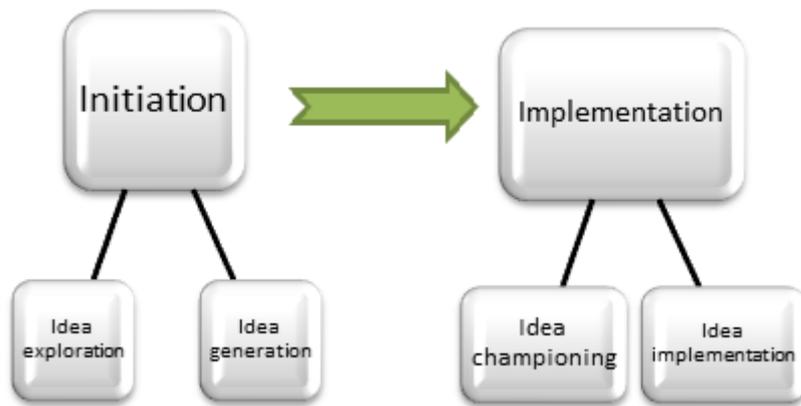


Figure 1. Stages of individual innovation linked to stages of innovation process

The innovation process mainly involves two stages of behavior. Initiation and implementation processes. Innovation by individuals usually begins with the discovery of an idea, such as searching for improvements in existing products, services and workprocesses, or trying to think of them in new ways. Then the idea is produced. This means creating concepts for new products, services, work processes, introduction to new markets, improvement in willingness. These two behaviors are related to the initiation phase of the innovation process. Idea championing is the next process. This step involves finding support and building a coalition the new concept. For example, by mobilizing resources and pushing, influencing, interacting and negotiating with colleagues. After that, the idea is applied. New products, services, work processes and the like are developed, tested and modified at this stage (e.g. De Jong, 2007). The latter two processes are related to the second stage of the innovation process. If we take these processes in detail:

- **Opportunity Exploration:** The realization of something new begins with a person identifying new opportunities (e.g. Parnes et al., 1977; Basadur, 2004; Amabile, 1988). The start of an innovation process is often determined by chance: the discovery of an opportunity, a problem arising or a confusion that needs to be solved. The discovery of opportunities can be a long-term follow-up as well as instant luck. The process can be either for the current work

processes, for the product or for the markets, but also by introducing a new method into use (e.g. Farr and Ford, 1990; Kanter, 1988).

- **Idea Generation:** Once the current opportunities are visible, the actual process is the ideas that will provide the desired use of opportunities (Kanter, 1988). That is, opportunities must be transformed into a usable situation. So the solutions to the problems will be produced (e.g. Kanter, 1988; Amabile, 1988).
- **Championing:** Generated ideas should improve performance outputs but not exceed the benefits of their costs. On the other hand it is necessary to take into account the resistance to change (Kanter, 1988). Coalition building at this stage is the most important way of securing the idea so that the obstacle in front of the use of the idea will be removed. So the main theme of this process is to find support and to build a coalition to persuade, influence, push and negotiate with other employees or management (e.g. Howell and Higgins, 1990; King and Anderson, 2002). The innovative individual who takes prime responsibility for the introduction of innovations is often not formally appointed, but rather someone who feels a strong personal commitment to a particular idea and is able to 'sell' it to others (Kanter, 1988).
- **Implementation:** At this stage, an idea champion is first assigned (Howell et al., 2005; Lukes, 2012) and begins to implement the plans. What is important here is to anticipate problems and proactively improve their contingency plans (Crant, 2000). The realization of all these plans will primarily require a budget (eg, Scott and Bruce, 1994) and the inclusion of others. The next step is to share the idea with others and show the will for the realization of this idea (Howell et al., 2005). The key challenge in the implementation stage is to overcome obstacles, barriers and resistance (Howell et al., 2005). These ideas or plans are implemented and used in the organization until a product, service or process is improved, so that innovation output is achieved.

Antecedents and Work Outcomes

Organizations with the ability to innovate, as they are known, have more advantages in achieving sustainable competitive advantage than their competitors. Individual innovation is a great way to increase the organization's innovation and gain competitive advantage. For this

reason, it is essential to develop and promote the innovative potential of employees (eg, Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Amabile, 1988).

An organization that aims at the continuous flow of individual innovation should ensure that its employees are both willing and able to innovate (De Jong & Den Hartog, 2010). For this purpose, various academicians have investigated the determinants of innovative behavior. However, research in this area is still limited. So, most literature on factors that increase individual innovation is generally focused on creativity of employees or creativity alone rather than the application of ideas (De Jong, 2007).

a. Determinants of Innovative Work Behavior

The idea that the IWB provides desired work outcomes has directed the interest of many researchers on the subject. Most of the current research has focused on determining the potential premise of the concept. Then, various organizational and individual factors have been examined as important determinants of IWB (eg, Janssen, van de Vliert and West, 2004; Mumford et al., 2002; Mumford and Licuanan, 2004).

- **Individual Factors:** Many academicians who have searched the causes of innovative behaviors have focused on individual innovation as a personality trait. For example, it has been found out that employees with intrapreneurship features exhibit a higher level of innovative behavior than employees who do not have such feature (Amo and Kolvereid, 2005) and innovative behavior can be positively affected by the proactive behavior of the person (Seibert et al., 2001). Proactive people are argued to be more likely to engage in extra-role behavior. As innovation by individuals can be considered as extra-role behavior, it is expected that employees that display more proactive behavior also perform more innovative behaviors (Seibert et al., 2001). Furthermore, researchers have explored the impact of cognitive features of employees on innovative behavior. Hartjes (2010) and Janssen (2000) for instance studied the impact of educational level on the innovative behavior of individuals. It appeared that higher educated employees display more innovative behavior. Also the problem-solving style (Scott and Bruce, 1998) and problem ownership (Dorenbosch, van Engen, and Verhagen, 2005) are considered as a cognitive ability that affects the innovative behaviors of employees. Other individual characteristics that positively influence the performance of innovative behavior are learning goal orientation (Bouwhuis, 2008) and employability (Stoffers and Heijden, 2009). However, according to Yuan and

Woodman (2010) the characteristics of individuals do not solely influence individual innovation. The expectations of employees regarding the outcomes, risks and gains of the performance also affect IWB.

Besides this, it includes personal characteristics, such as propensity to innovate (Bunce and West 1995), intrinsic interest (Yuan and Woodman 2010) and mastery orientation (Janssen and van Yperen, 2004). Further, scholars have suggested that self-efficacy plays an important role in innovative work behavior.

- **Job Factors:** According to various researchers, job characteristics can have a significant impact on employees' innovative behavior, especially in matters related to job challenge, diversity and autonomy. For example, Ramamoorthy et al. (2005) and Axtell et al. (2000) argue that job autonomy is a positive influence on individual innovative behavior, and autonomy recognized by employees encourages them to experiment with new ideas. Even failures makes employees to feel a sense of re-starting. For this reason, work autonomy allows employees to 'trial and error' and to make their work more efficient and productive. Another work attribute positively associated with IWB is a multi-functional work design that leads to innovative behavior by increasing levels of motivation (Janssen, 2000; Martin et al., 2007). On the other side, there are studies to show that innovative behaviors are exhibited as part of high job demands (Janssen, 2000) or as a coping strategy to reduce the negative effects of job dissatisfaction (Zhou & George, 2001).

Innovative work behaviors have a dual motivation in this respect (Martin et al., 2007). Employees either are involved in innovative behavior with positive affect and high motivation or they develop innovative ideas as a solution strategy when faced with low motivation, high pressure and strain.

Besides job autonomy, variety and challenge, role orientation also affects employees' innovative behaviors (Hartjes, 2010; Axtell et al., 2000; Dorenbosch et al., 2005). Other factors that are argued to have an impact on innovative behavior of employees are job control (Axtell et al., 2006), obligation to innovate (Ramamoorthy et al., 2005), perceived influence of an employee in the work place (Janssen, 2005) and job tenure (Dorenbosch et al., 2005).

- **Team Characteristics:** The third stage of activities requires participation of others affected by the activities (Scott & Bruce, 1994). people who intend to innovate must trust their friends and be sure to get their support. Therefore, the innovative behavior

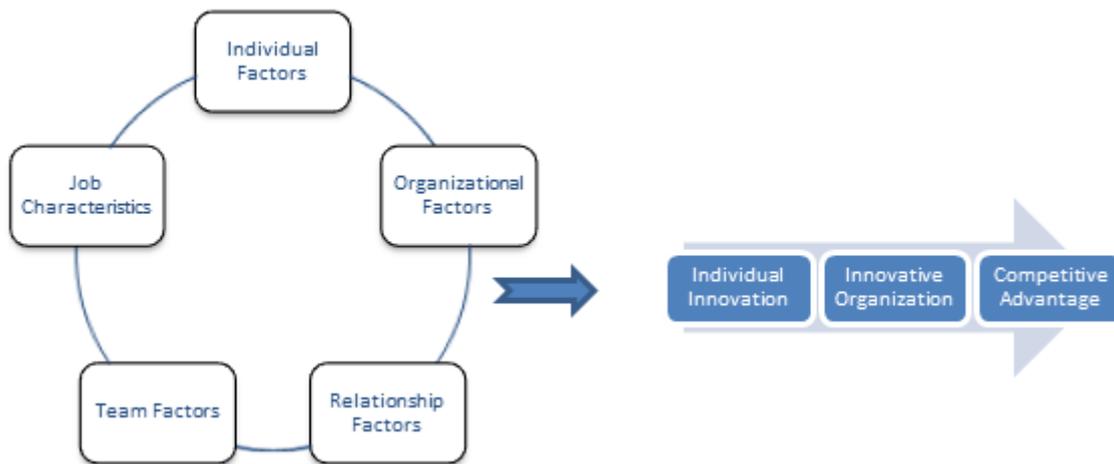
of employees is at least partly determined by interaction with their colleagues and mostly work group (De Jong, 2007). Axtell et al. (2006) studies support this idea. In their studies they found positive effects of team climate, team method control, team role breadth, team support and team leader support on the innovative behaviors of individuals.

- ***Relationship Factors:*** Leadership is considered as the most important factor to motivate employees' innovative behavior in this group. Participative, supportive, transformational, transactional and influence-based leadership are argued to have a positive influence on individual innovation (Axtell et al., 2000; Janssen, 2005; Scott and Bruce, 1994; 1998). Participative leadership style provides both autonomy to participate in decisions and autonomy (Axtell et al., 2000). The transformational leadership style is more open to innovative views by questioning the status quo (Pieterse et al., 2010). The leader-member exchange theory emphasizes that when the supervisor and member relations are high, it will be easier to share ideas with each other (Stoffers and Heijden, 2009, Scott and Bruce, 1994).
- ***Organizational Factors:*** Organizational factors generally include issues related to the extent to which innovative behaviors of employees within the organization are supported. The most notable topics are organizational climate and strategy. Isaken et al. (1999) indicate that the perception of employees influences the organizational climate in their studies. The authors describe the climate of the organization, the common patterns of behaviors, attitudes and emotions displayed in the organization's daily environment, and the individuals' (within the organization) way to experience and understand it. Various researchers claim that both factors are a positive impact on individual innovation. For example, Hartjes (2010) and Scott and Bruce (1994) argue that employees who perceive their organization's innovation support will exhibit higher levels of innovative behavior. Likewise, employees of an organization with an innovative or corporate entrepreneurship strategy are increasingly likely to innovate individually (Amo & Kolvereid, 2005). Other organizational factors that support innovative behaviors are; corporate-wide awards (Ramamoorthy et al., 2005), the knowledge structure (Ong et al., 2003), the desire of senior management for employee innovations (Amo, 2005) and supervisory behavior (Scott and Bruce 1994).

b. Outcomes

When studies on the potential consequences of IWB are examined, it seems that research on this subject is limited. The negative consequences of innovative behaviors are gaining importance in this area of studies. First, Janssen (2003) argues that employees who are on the path of innovative behavior are in conflict with their counterparts who try to prevent innovation, assuming that innovation is always a risky effort. In another study, Janssen (2004) found that IWB was associated with stress responses of employees.

On the other hand, for employees contributing to the development of an innovation, this engagement can provide a better fit between working conditions and requirements and personal needs, competences, good cooperation, communication with colleagues, high level of job satisfaction and well-being (Janssen, 2000). The expected outcome here is to reach the desired organizational output of innovation by making improvements on the conditions. This can be simply summarized as follows:



2. FEAR of FAILURE

Fear of failure (FF) has long been viewed as an important influence on achievement behaviour. Classic achievement motivation theorists posited the motive to avoid failure construct, to describe dispositional tendencies, to behave in ways that reduce the likelihood of experiencing failure (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell, 1953). For example, Atkinson described the concept of FF as the capacity and tendency to experience shame as a consequence of failure. Although the motivation for avoidance from failure ultimately refers

to experience shame motivation research which is related to performance in the literature identified it as an energizing agent for human behaviour (Murray, 1938). Subsequent motivation researchers have emphasized FF as determinant of achievement processes and outcomes (Elliot (1997). It is not clear, however, that the causal order of FF is the predecessor or the consequence of success goals. This is likened to Conroy's relationship to eggs and chicken.

In fact FF seems as an affective-motivational structure oriented toward avoiding the existential threat posed by evaluations or demonstrations of incompetence (Bedell and Marlowe, 1995; Elliot, 1997). It also refers to being motivated to avoid a negative possibility and to avoid from a failure (Elliot and Shledon, 1997; Elliot, 1999).

Elliot and McGregor concluded that FF and trait test anxiety are conceptually equivalent constructs that “serve the same function in the hierarchical model” (1999; 629). In Conroy's work, he displayed an emotional view of shame and anxiety at the base of the sense of failure (Conroy, 2001). He indicates that FF is a motive for success, which makes individuals anxious to live worry and anxiety. Similarly, Lazarus (1991) has developed the cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. According to this theory, the individual conceives the ruthless consequences of failure and creates beliefs and cognitive schemes in the mind for possible consequences. If this negative possibility is realized, it causes the feeling of failure fear to occur. These negative possibilities in the individual's brain are a threat to the individual and cause the individual to live anxiety.

Another issue related to the FF from the other side is postponement behavior. Individuals who have cognitive judgments about the negative consequences of FF tend to postpone certain behaviors with this fear, thus creating a defense mechanism. And, the stress that can occur is prevented (Covington, 2007, Berry, 1975).

Another negative result of FF is that even though high performance and success is achieved, some scientists believe that people can not show their full potential in this regard (Conroy, 2001; Conroy, Willow, & Metzler, 2002). This situation negatively affects the cognitive strategies used by the individual (Elliot & Thrash, 2004). That is, those who are afraid of failure can avoid the struggle or exhibit a highly zealous work ethic to prevent failure (Elliot and Church, 1997). In a similar study, it was found that there was a high positive correlation between the FF at the moment of failure and hostile and maladaptive expressions,

self-blame, self-attack and self-neglect and a low positive correlation with self-affirmation and self-love levels (Conroy and Metzler, 2003).

Dimensions of Fear of Failure:

In the past, researchers have had little knowledge of people's sources of fear and success that's why, FF is considered as a uni-dimensional construct (Conroy, 2001). In the aftermath of this perspective, Birney, Burdick, and Teevan (1969) proposed a three dimensional FF model. The model includes; **a)** fear of devaluing one's self esteem, **b)** fear of non-ego punishment, and **c)** fear of reduced social value (Conroy, 2001).

Moreover, Conroy, Poczwardowski, and Henschen (2001) enriched this model, and they defined five aversive consequences of failure:

- a)** Experiencing shame and embarrassment,
- b)** Devaluing one's self-estimate,
- c)** Having an uncertain future,
- d)** Important others losing interest,
- e)** Upsetting important others (Conroy, 2001; Conroy, Metzler ve Hofer, 2003; Conroy, Willow ve Metzler, 2002).

In the first dimension of FF, it is argued that the source of fear is embarrassment. Possible outcomes of shame and embarrassment causes them to develop this fear. That is, people start to make negative self-assessment about themselves. In the second dimension, it is a loss of self-confidence caused by people accusing their own talents, intelligence, etc for failure. so they can condemn themselves to failure. The other consequence to be mentioned about failure is the change in future plans that appear to be a defense mechanism for the individual experiencing failure. The individual begins to apply new plans with the future after failure, which in turn causes the future to appear uncertain. Some individuals appreciate the value that other people give to them and they believe that this value can be achieved through success. Since failure will cause this value to disappear, they are both afraid of failure and lose their interest in themselves. And finally, people don't want to be unsuccessful because they believe that they will upset other people who are important for them (Conroy, 2001; Conroy, Willow, and Metzler, 2002).

By measuring the strength of an individual's beliefs in each of these aversive consequences of failing, one can infer the individual's tendency to associate failure with existential threats, and to subsequently experience FF (Conroy, 2001; Conroy et al., 2002).

Fear of Failure in Entrepreneurship

Despite the fact that the experience of the FF is not only harmful to the individual's cognition and behavior, but also it can be useful, in the entrepreneurship researches, the FF is heavily treated as an obstacle to preventing and blocking entrepreneurial behavior.

Within the psychological research, the term 'FF' has been used to refer to a stable disposition (McClelland et al., 1953) and a psychological state (Conroy, 2001). When framed as disposition, FF is a stable individuals' tendency to become anxious about failure. This affects both approach and avoidance behavior independently of success (Atkinson and Litwin 1973). Thus, there are situational characteristics that lead to different responses of the individuals in terms of its results.

Birney, Burdick, and Teevan (1969) have similarly emphasized the idea that FF may not only be associated with negative outcomes but also have positive consequences. If fear stimulates greater striving then perhaps sometimes it can be a friend as much as a foe (Martin and Marsh, 2003). Nonetheless, motivation through fear instead of hope may lead to significant negative consequences on entrepreneur's reactions, decisions, health and well-being.

When the literature on FF and entrepreneurship is focused, studies can be subdivided into two groups based upon the definition of FF. The first group represents studies that define FF in terms of risk aversion (e.g. Ray 1994; Helms 2003; Wagner and Stenberg 2004). The second, much smaller group of studies defines FF as negative emotion resulting from the perception of environmental threats (e.g. Patzelt and Shepherd 2011). There is an obvious difference between these two groups. In the first group, fear is defined in terms of individual characteristics, while in the second group, it is defined in terms of motivation orientation. In the first group, the personal differences of the fear-experience are emphasized, while in the second group, the fear experienced as a result of environmental conditions.

On the other hand, three theoretical perspectives have been used to explain the influence of FF in the context of entrepreneurship: economic, psychological and social psychological.

a. The Economic View: In this point of view, the FF and the sense of avoidance of risk are described perceptually. FF refers to the risk for the new entrances for a venture. As fear decreases, the risk decreases and the likelihood of initiative increases (Weber and Milliman, 1997). Several studies suggest that FF exerts a negative impact on entrepreneurship (Arenius and Minniti, 2005; Wagner, 2007). These studies show that FF distinguishes nascent

entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs (Arenius and Minniti, 2005) and that there is systematic variation in the degree of FF between males and females (Wagner, 2007).

b. Psychological View: This view describes fear as a negative emotion that affects entrepreneurial action (Li, 2011; Welpe et al., 2011). Welpe et al. (2011) argue that emotions, including fear, slow down the decision process for attracting entrepreneurial opportunities. Li (2011) notes that the sense of failure affects people's judgments about the importance of establishing a new venture. Research that focuses on FF as an emotion reports similar conclusions to the economics literature: FF serves to inhibit entrepreneurial behavior.

c. Socio-psychological View: It defines FF as a socio-cultural trait that influences orientation towards the rewards in the social environment (e.g., Vaillant and Lafuente, 2007). This view suggests that the FF is significantly influenced by internalized cultural norms and behavioral responses have the lowest risk of social punishment. This has led to the simplifying assumption that FF is equivalent to risk aversion. Some empirical findings show that there is a negative correlation between fear of failure and entrepreneurial activity (Vaillant and Lafuente, 2007; Helms, 2003), entrepreneurial processes (Hessels et al., 2011), international entrepreneurship (Alon and Learner, 2008; Helms, 2003) and entrepreneurial intention (Shinnar et al., 2012). Nevertheless, FF is still assumed to exert only a negative impact on entrepreneurial behavior.

Other studies offer a different perspective on the relationship between FF and entrepreneurial behavior (Mitchell and Shepherd, 2010; Mitchell and Shepherd, 2011). The difference in these studies is that fear of failure has shaped individuals' attitudes and beliefs about themselves. This situation affects decisions as well as entrepreneurial decisions. Mitchell and Shepherd (2010) provide evidence that individuals maintain their both positive and negative images (self-esteem and FF) and that they have different effects on the assessment of opportunities.

Mitchell and Shepherd (2011) report that FF moderates the relationships between human capital, self-efficacy and the likelihood of entrepreneurial behaviours. Importantly the direction of the effect varies, suggesting that some sources of fear (fear of devaluing one's self-estimate, fear of having an uncertain future) have an inhibitory influence, while the fear of upsetting important others has a positive influence. This study suggests that FF can result in approach as well as avoidance.

In summary, almost all of the current research on FF is focused almost exclusively on its inhibitory effects. The conceptualization of the construct remains simplistic, one-dimensional and unidirectional. Measurement of the construct follows conceptualization in terms of being limited and of unknown validity. A major weakness is a lack of organizing theoretical perspective.

CONCLUSION

Based on the review of the above literature, it can be argued that the ability to acquire sustainable competitive advantages in an organization in today's rapidly changing environment depends in part on the ability of an organization to innovate. To meet this demand, the innovative behavior of employees is crucial, because they are employees who innovate otherwise. For this reason it is interesting to know what factors stimulate the IWB for an organization.

Because innovations are increasing competition management today faces a difficult situation to find ways to increase innovation development within the organization. But when radical changes are needed innovation causes FF, because they can require significant changes and to creatively destroy the existing market or status quo. Therefore, management must find ways to reduce FF that can prevent employees from discovering innovations and sharing those ideas with management. To ensure this, the minimization of the conditions that might lead to fear is the first step to be taken. Likewise, entrepreneurs need to reduce their fears and identify safer coping strategies to prevent their fears from interfering with their chances for initiatives. In this way, both the chances for initiatives will not be reduced, and the possible ways of coping with the possible fears will be improved.

Due to the fact that both the work processes and the initiated initiatives are likely to result in failure, management or entrepreneurs should transform these mistakes from a fear and punishment source into a means of learning extensively to develop innovations. If new ideas are encouraged and can be removed from fear, both entrepreneurs and employees can work through an innovation process to find the most effective innovations. The main role here is to identify the best ways to promote the discovery, adoption and implementation of innovations. And for entrepreneurs, it is important to focus on this idea.

It is clear that innovation is an important part of an organizational strategy. It is imperative that there should be a solid vision so that the management or the entrepreneur can build a structure that facilitates innovative behaviors and have the expertise to manage

innovative behaviors effectively. It is a good tool to encourage the champions to reach out to successful innovations and to help them overcome potential resistance is a good tool. While bringing cost of time and money to an effective organization, developing innovative behaviors is the best way to deliver significantly different products and services that will enhance the competitive edge of the market.

Innovative work behaviors and fear of failure are an indispensable part of the organizational environment and the adventure of entrepreneurship. Those who are passionate about innovation and those who are willing to be involved in it may actually be fearful. Though it is difficult to accept this fact, it is an important fact underlying the failure or the successes of innovative efforts. Fear of failure, in particular, is the least-spoken part of an entrepreneur's life story.

Fear of failure, for both organizations and entrepreneurs, is seen as an obstacle to IWB and entrepreneurial action. In fact, the fear of failure can be many different things from the worst of enemies to the best of friends (Martin and Marsh, 2003). It may hinder the entrepreneurial longing of the individual or may be the source of entrepreneur's determination to win.

Both issues are complex, highly sophisticated and largely untested. With this review, we tried to reveal the details of this interesting phenomenon.

We hope that this review will encourage researchers to have a firmer sense of the focus of the issue in order to be able to define the precarious nature of these concepts when they decide to investigate these concepts related to contexts of organizational life and entrepreneurship.

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