Feeling your pain, pursuing my gain:
Assessing status-striving, empathy, and social entrepreneurship intent

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1. Introduction

Prosocial intentions—intentions to engage in any act that benefits others by producing and maintaining their well-being (Aronson et al., 2005; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986)—is a strong predictor of positive, other-oriented action. Prosocial intent has been shown to predict benevolent behavior, such as volunteering and organizational citizenship behaviors (Kamdar et al., 2006; Veludo-de-Oliveira et al., 2015), as well as social entrepreneurship, engaging in commerce and innovation to solve social problems (see Bacq & Janssen, 2011; Saebi et al., 2019, for reviews). In particular, research on social entrepreneurship has examined social entrepreneurship intent—"the intent to pursue a social mission by starting a business or launching a social venture" (Bacq & Alt, 2018: 334)—as a dependent variable of major importance in the field. This research has mostly attempted to explain it from the perspective of prosocial, other-oriented motives, rarely examining self-oriented motives (Bacq et al., 2016; Ruskin et al., 2016). However, recent scholarship has noted that the prosocial, altruistic motivations of social entrepreneurs should not be taken-for-granted (Kimmitt & Muñoz, 2018), as it carries the risk of depicting social entrepreneurs as ethical heroes with good intentions, driven by decency and morality (Bacq et al., 2016; Seelos & Mair, 2005).

Some social entrepreneurs might instead, recent research suggests, be motivated by benefits that can accrue to them personally, such as personal enjoyment (Dey & Lehner, 2017), personal freedom (Dey & Steyaert, 2016), as well as fame and recognition. In a qualitative study examining the motivations of nascent social entrepreneurs, researchers found that personal enjoyment and achievement orientation were among the major motivators for social entrepreneurs (Germak & Robinson, 2014). The authors note that almost all of the nascent social entrepreneurs they interviewed expressed a desire to achieve some significant impact, often by

outperforming their peers. As such, while helping society and achieving outcomes other than profits are important motivators, social entrepreneurs may also be motivated by self-oriented motives (Germak & Robinson, 2014). We contend that one important such motivation is status.

Status represents an individual's place in her or his social circle (Blader & Yu, 2017), and status-striving is the attempt to garner respect and admiration from others by showing worth, utility, competence, or commitment (Raskin et al., 1991). Prior research has revealed that higher status in one's social circle offers benefits such as prominent affiliations and better opportunities (Marr & Thau, 2014), both of which can lead to an enhanced self-image. When individuals attain high status, they may receive an assortment of benefits such as being able to "call the shots," better health, access to social and financial resources, and autonomy (e.g., Anderson et al., 2012; Marmot, 2004; Merton, 1968). Building on extant research that goes "beyond the moral portrayal" of social entrepreneurs (Bacq et al., 2016), we aim to address two research questions in this study. First, does status-striving have any effect on social entrepreneurship intent? And if so, how does status-striving, a self-oriented motive, interrelate with other-oriented motives, frequently associated with social entrepreneurship intent? Specifically, we examine the moderating effect of status-striving on the well-established relationship between of empathy (seeing someone's side and feeling their pain, Davis, 1980) and social entrepreneurship intent. We address these questions by conducting a quantitative study of social entrepreneurship motivations on a sample of adults. Our results show that status-striving has a direct and positive association with social entrepreneurship intent while, when interacting with empathy, it negatively moderates social entrepreneurship intent.

Our study contributes to the social entrepreneurship literature in two main ways. First, we extend our understanding of the motivations underlying social entrepreneurship intent (Miller et

al., 2012; Nga & Shamuganathan, 2010) by examining a self-oriented motive and its interaction effect with a well-known other-oriented driver of social entrepreneurship, empathy. Second, by considering the potential other-oriented outcomes that might be harnessed from self-oriented motives (Smith et al., 2018), we expand current understandings regarding the critical perspectives of social entrepreneurship (Dacin, Dacin, & Tracey, 2011; Dey & Lehner, 2017; Dey & Steyaert, 2016; Kimmitt & Muñoz, 2018).

2. Self-oriented motivation

2.1 Status-striving

While status-striving tends to motivate self-oriented behavior, recent conceptual scholarship bears unintuitive implications: under some conditions, status-seekers are likely to engage in behaviors that are other-oriented (Blader & Yu, 2017). Part of the reason status-seekers must engage in other-oriented behavior is because status is not achieved independently—it is socially ascribed by others. Thus, individuals pursuing status must demonstrate their value or dedicated energy to the group, spurring them to demonstrate competence, commitment or energy toward group goals, performance, success, or advancement (Flynn, 2009; Willer, 2009). Blader and Yu (2017) note that because people care about the way others view them—that is, they care about their standing and reputation, particularly in the context of their work—they may engage in prosocial behavior with the goal to appear more important in the eyes of others. Those who help others may receive increased attention, praise, and admiration for doing so (Flynn et al., 2006). Thus, although the goals, concerns, and motivations that underlie status-striving are eminently individualistic and self-centered, the behaviors that follow these motivations can sometimes be other-oriented (Willer, 2009). Additionally, self- and other-oriented motives can coexist in the same person (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). That is, some other-oriented behaviors can

signal an intrinsic motivation to help the group but also serve one's individualistic status-related motives (Blader & Yu, 2017).

Considering the rewards associated with high status (e.g., access to social and financial resources), it is logical that people strive for status (e.g., DesJardins et al., 2015). Since we predictably esteem those who have successfully ascended to higher status and often consciously compensate them for doing so (Pettit et al., 2013), one might suppose that the quest for status would generally be perceived positively. This is not the case, however, because society does not always regard those chasing status in a positive light (Marr & Thau, 2014). Research finds that pursuing status is stigmatized, even though status is understood to be a fundamental desire (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and status-striving is a common phenomenon (Anderson et al., 2015). Individuals who appear to be concerned about the group's interest and whose conduct benefits the group are regularly rewarded with high status (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006), while individuals who give the impression they are self-oriented and request loftier status than is acceptable are penalized (Anderson et al., 2012). Some of these penalties include societal and economic repercussions for engaging in unconcealed status-striving (Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010). Thus, we conclude that status-striving is generally viewed more negatively than status itself.

Therefore, actively and obviously pursuing status might lead observers to perceive that an individual is self-oriented rather than other-oriented and, consequently, inhibit completion of the very objective she or he is striving toward (i.e., higher status); open status-striving may foment negative reactions from others, thereby reducing positive regard and ultimately diminishing one's status. To mitigate the negative consequences of openly striving for status while simultaneously reaping the benefits of higher status, we explain next why status-strivers might

express intent to engage in other-oriented behaviors, such as social entrepreneurship, that allow them to achieve self-oriented goals.

2.2 Status-striving and social entrepreneurship intent

Individuals who venture for communities experiencing hunger (e.g., famine), harm (e.g., natural disasters), or horror (e.g., genocide) are recognized as individuals who are worthy of respect, honor, deference, praise, admiration, and accolades from others in society—the defining elements of status (Anderson et al., 2015; Sauder et al., 2012). Status is something to be desired, and social entrepreneurship intent is a means through which it can be achieved. When some people express social entrepreneurship intent, they may be looking for higher status while giving the appearance that they are both concerned about the social problem and are able to solve it. This differs from the overbearing and self-focused strategies that usually define the pursuit of authority and other forms of social hierarchal differentiation. In contrast with status, these other hierarchal sources do not depend on voluntary bestowal from others. Since one can attain status only when it is given voluntarily, the pursuit of status inspires other-orientation and prosocial intent because status-seekers must engage in behaviors that make others aware of their commitment to toward communal and social goals. For these reasons, heroic depictions of social entrepreneurs, and idealistic assumptions of their motives warrant critical examination (Dey & Lehner, 2017; Dey & Steyaert, 2016; McMullen & Bergman, 2017, 2018; Zahra et al., 2009).

Just as people who overvalue or overemphasize status are penalized by others, those who openly strive for status may be viewed negatively as well (Blader & Yu, 2017; Carroll et al., 1996). Expressing social entrepreneurship intent may thus be one way to strive for status while avoiding the negative perceptions related to openly pursuing status. Thus, we anticipate that people who strive for status will express intent toward prosocial behaviors characterized by

communal concern and that is favorably looked upon, such as social entrepreneurship. We formally hypothesize the following:

> Hypothesis 1. *Status-striving has a positive relationship with social entrepreneurship intent.*

Given that humans are complex species characterized by a variety of motives, empathy and status-striving can coexist in the same person (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). At a fundamental level, empathy is other-oriented and is positively associated with social entrepreneurship intent (Bacq & Alt, 2018; Hockerts, 2017; Mair & Noboa, 2006; Ruskin et al., 2016) while status-striving is self-oriented and has not been examined in the social entrepreneurship context. Building on research on the relationship between motivations and rewards, we expect empathy and status-striving to interact and influence social entrepreneurship intent in such a way that high levels of status-striving weaken the positive association between empathy and social entrepreneurship intent.

Deci and Ryan's cognitive evaluation theory proposed that rewards can be given in one of two ways. The first way, which enhances and reinforces intrinsic motivation, is primarily perceived as positive information about one's competence and value (such as praise or recognition a social entrepreneur might receive *because of what they have done)*. The second way, which undermines and diminishes intrinsic motivation, is perceived as a way for external forces to control or influence an individual's behavior (such as a social entrepreneur engaging in prosocial behavior *because of the rewards they expect to receive*) (Deci, 1971, Deci & Ryan, 1980). Along these lines, prior research suggests that external incentives result in a shift to extrinsic motivation, consequently undermining intrinsic motivations (Gagné & Deci, 2005). Some researchers even find that for some activities, once extrinsic rewards have been provided, they must continue to be offered to sustain interest in the activity (Deci, 1971), suggesting once

again that these motivations can compete with each other—and that intrinsic motivations, such as empathy, tend to lose these competitions. The presence of undermining effects underscores the tension between intrinsic motivations such as empathy and extrinsic rewards such as status (Anderson et al., 2015; Blader & Yu, 2017): rather than additional motivations resulting exclusively in additive motivational effects, the presence of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations can compete with each other in such a way that intrinsic motivations are reduced. In our study, this suggests that externally-focused status-striving motivations can have a diminishing effect on intrinsically-focused empathy motivations in such a way that the overall level of motivation decreases.

Such motivational "crowding out," where extrinsic rewards undermine intrinsic motivation such that there can be a decrease in intention and total performance of the behavior (Niza et al., 2013; Titmuss, 1970), can be applied to social entrepreneurial motives. Specifically, we expect that, for individuals who are strongly motivated by status-striving motivations for social entrepreneurship, the positive effects of empathy, an intrinsic motive, are reduced. While empathy is consistent with venturing for others (Bacq & Alt, 2018), individuals motivated by status will focus on social entrepreneurship as an opportunity for reward (i.e., the reward is heightened status), which will crowd out their empathic motivations.

> Hypothesis 2. *Status-striving negatively moderates the relationship between empathy and social entrepreneurship intent.*

Figure 1 illustrates our research model and hypotheses.

Insert Figure 1 About Here

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3. Method

3.1 Data collection

We utilized Amazon's online data collection service, Mechanical Turk (MTurk), to collect data for our study. In MTurk, survey respondents are an online pool of individuals who fill out a questionnaire, called Human Intelligence Tasks (HITs), in return for a small contribution. The prevalence of management and entrepreneurship studies using MTurk has influenced scholars to investigate the psychometric characteristics of data collected in this manner (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012; Duffy et al., 2017). Research finds that MTurk samples are more diverse, more generalizable, and more attentive (e.g., reading survey instructions) than student samples, frequently used in entrepreneurship intent studies (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012; Buhrmester et al., 2011). Overall, research finds that MTurk respondents have satisfactory psychometric properties that are comparable to those of published studies using other means of data collection (Cheung et al., 2017). Consequently, MTurk has steadily gained approval as a legitimate data collection tool for entrepreneurship research (Aguinis & Lawal, 2012). By extension, as our questions did not require any prior knowledge about social entrepreneurship, MTurk should be appropriate for social entrepreneurship research purposes. Additionally, we examine social entrepreneurship intent and not social entrepreneurship behavior. Intent is characterized by a conviction to engage in a behavior or action in the future (Thompson, 2009). That point in the future might be imminent or indeterminate, or may never be reached because a myriad of personal circumstances and environmental factors may discourage individuals from doing so. In contrast, behavior implies activity or action (Bird & Schjoedt, 2009). On average, anyone can have intent in a variety of context (Ajzen, 1991) such as social entrepreneurship (Hockerts, 2017) suggesting that our MTurk sample is appropriate for this study.

3.2 Sample

We designed and posted our questionnaire (HIT) on MTurk for individuals aged 18 and above residing in the United States in order to get a sample representative of the United States population, all of whom can have intentions toward social entrepreneurship. We asked respondents to complete the online survey after reading assurances of confidentiality and anonymity. We requested consent and informed them about the voluntary nature of our study. We compensated respondents $0.75 upon completion of the survey, exceeding the reported $0.20 to $0.50 range for surveys that take around 30 minutes to complete (Duffy & Autin, 2013).

A total of 406 respondents completed our survey. We inserted a validity check (e.g., "Please select *strongly agree* if you are paying attention") and removed 23 cases who failed to respond correctly. After excluding 83 questionnaires for missing data, our sample consisted of 300 responses, all of which had complete data. Respondents had a mean age of 35.2 years (SD = 11.62 years) and 12.51 years of work experience (SD = 10.49 years). Respondents were predominantly White (n = 208, 69.3%), identified as female (n = 111, 37%) or male (n = 186, 62%) with one respondent not identifying as male or female (0.3%) and two respondents preferring not to say (0.7%). Additional descriptive statistics of the sample are provided in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 About Here

3.3 Measures

The instruments used in this study were developed and validated in prior studies. Empathy ($\alpha = .90$) was measured with a four-item empathic concern scale developed and validated by Davis (1980). For social entrepreneurship intent, respondents were asked the extent to which they agreed with six items (Bacq & Alt, 2018) on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging

from 1 (“Strongly disagree”) to 7 (“Strongly agree”). In order to capture status-striving, we relied on a 15-item measure developed and validated by Barrick et al. (2002) and used in other status-striving studies (Chiaburu and Carpenter, 2013; Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Ng & Lucianetti, 2016). We also offer a full list of items in Appendix 1. We also offer a full list of items in Appendix 1.

We controlled for age, gender (0 = “male,” 1 = “female”), and work experience (“How many total years have you worked full-time?”) as prior studies have found strong relationships between age (Berndt, 1981), gender (Datta & Gailey, 2012), work experience (Shaw & Carter, 2007) and prosocial intent and behaviors. Research also finds a positive relationship between social entrepreneurship self-efficacy and social entrepreneurship intent (Bacq & Alt, 2018), suggesting the need to include it as a control variable as well. We measured social entrepreneurship self-efficacy with a ten-item measure employed in previous social entrepreneurship studies (Bacq & Alt, 2018).

4. Analyses and results

4.1 Assessment of common method bias

Because we measured all of our variables at the same time, it was important to evaluate the possibility of common method bias (Krishnan et al., 2006). We implemented Podsakoff et al.’s (2003) suggestions by ensuring respondents that their answers would remain confidential to minimize response anxiety, and we also counter-balanced the order of questions in the questionnaire (Krishnan et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, we used the marker variable approach (Lindell & Whitney, 2001) to determine the extent to which common method bias may be an issue in our data. A marker variable (“race”) was included in the survey that was considered to be theoretically unrelated to the research question. The item showed no significant

correlations with predictor or dependent variables. To test whether common method variance accounts for the results, the marker item was included in the regression analysis as a control variable. All beta coefficients that were significant in the original analysis remained significant. None of the tests applied points toward common method variance.

Despite evidence that MTurk is appropriate for our study, we address any remaining concerns with MTurk by performing recommended procedures (Cheung et al., 2017). For example, to remedy concerns about respondent inattentiveness, we included a screen to detect inattentive or careless responding. Our analyses reveal no evidence of inattentive or careless responding.

We used Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression to test the hypotheses related to empathy, status-striving, and social entrepreneurship intent. Investigating multicollinearity diagnostics by examining variance inflation factor (VIF) values indicated no evidence of multicollinearity as all VIFs (mean = 2.33) were well below 10, which the acceptable range in the literature (O'Brien, 2007). Models were estimated in software jtools (Long, 2019) of R Cran (R Core Team, 2018) with the robust standard errors to overcome potential threats of heteroscedasticity (Dvouletý, 2018).

Insert Tables 2 & 3 About Here

Hypothesis 1 predicted that status-striving would be positively related to social entrepreneurship intent, which we found support for (Table 3, Model 3, (β = .224, p < .001)). Finally, Hypothesis 2 proposed that the interaction between empathy and status-striving would be negatively related to social entrepreneurship intent. We found support for this hypothesis as well (Table 3, Model 3 (β = -.096, p < .05)). A plot of the interaction is shown in Figure 2.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

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5. Discussion

Our study builds on and advances recent arguments that warn against taken-for-granted assumptions about social entrepreneurs' motivations (Kimmitt & Muñoz, 2018) and moral portrayal (Bacq et al., 2016). Prosocial behavior may not always be a consequence of prosocial motivation (Bolino & Grant, 2016). Our study of how status-striving relates to social entrepreneurship intent provides two primary contributions that diverge from existing perspectives.

First, we set forth a novel approach to examining social entrepreneurship intent as a self-enhancing function (Katz, 1960). Other-oriented intent typically follows from empathy (Batson, 1998; Davis, 1980); yet, results from our study show that status-striving is associated with social entrepreneurship intent, often characterized by other-oriented perspectives and communal concern (Bacq & Alt, 2018). While social entrepreneurship studies have been dominated by compassionate perspectives that describe social entrepreneurs in a positive light and often evoke other-oriented motivators (Branzei et al., 2018; Saebi et al., 2019), our findings suggest that social entrepreneurship intent may not necessarily—nor solely—arise from other-oriented motivators.

Second, one might ask if it matters whether social entrepreneurship is motivated by prosocial versus proself factors. Our study shows that other-oriented social entrepreneurship motivations can compete with self-oriented social entrepreneurship motivations in such a way that one can have a crowding-out effect on the other. Results from our study suggest that status-striving, a self-oriented motive, overrides the positive effect of empathy, an other-oriented

motive, thereby weakening the effect of the latter on social entrepreneurship intentions. It follows that social entrepreneurs who are primarily driven by status might find themselves making different decisions that not only influence outcomes of their social entrepreneurial endeavor, but might create suboptimal outcomes. More research needs to be conducted that assesses the unintended consequences social entrepreneurship (Kimmitt & Muñoz, 2018; Mair et al., 2015) and adopts a more critical perspective of social entrepreneurship (Dey & Lehner, 2017).

5.1 Implications for practice

Our findings offer important practical implications for individuals with status-striving tendencies and those who work with them. First, our findings affirm the importance of status-striving as a motivator that can influence other-oriented outcomes such as prosocial intent. Put simply, we can see that both self- and other-oriented motivators matter in prosocial contexts. Additionally, we find evidence that a self-oriented motivation can crowd out an other-oriented motivation. Educators who are interested in motivating people to start social enterprises should be thoughtful about how to examine and judge nascent social entrepreneur motivations: the presence of self-oriented motivations does not mean the absence of other-oriented motivations, and vice versa.

5.2 Limitations and future research

This paper has limitations, indicative of meaningful directions for future research. First, while this sample was justified by the fact that social entrepreneurship intent may be a way of expressing the desire for more meaningful work, or may represent a desire for social intrapreneurship (entrepreneurial activity within an organization directed toward alleviating to social problems; Alt & Craig, 2016), it would have been valuable to conduct a longitudinal?

study to see which of these people actually became social entrepreneurs. Future research could attend to this shortcoming. Relatedly, we tested the effect of the number of years of work experience on social entrepreneurship intent, and not the type of work performed, or prior knowledge with social enterprises. This is a limitation considering that types of prior work or prior knowledge may influence social entrepreneur motives and subsequent intent. However, we are in concert with extant scholarship that has examined social entrepreneurship by using prior work experience (Bacq & Alt, 2018; Hockerts, 2017). Future research might examine how types of prior work experience (e.g., work experience in the social sector) and prior knowledge of social enterprises influence social entrepreneurial motives.

Second, future scholarship might employ a longitudinal design to examine how other- and self-oriented motivations influence social entrepreneurship intent, behavior, and even social enterprise performance over time. While individuals who are both high and low in status-striving may be attracted to social entrepreneurship, future research should examine what effects, if any, the source of individuals' motivations to engage in social entrepreneurship have on social enterprise performance and the positive social change that is actually delivered, if any. To the extent that status-striving drives social entrepreneurs' decisions, it is possible that status-strivers engage less in actions that benefit the enterprise if they do not increase (or even diminish) one's status.

6. Conclusion

In this study, we sought to examine whether self-oriented motives, such as status-striving, would influence individuals' intentions to engage in entrepreneurial action that benefits others by producing and maintaining their well-being. Our results support this notion, central to our study's contributions, and suggest caution when assuming social entrepreneurs' motives. We

also found that when individuals have high levels of self-oriented and other-oriented motivation concomitantly, their intent to engage in social entrepreneurship is diminished, suggesting a downside. Put differently, some individuals may express social entrepreneurship intent visibly, only to garner status. Taken together, our conclusions suggest that more scholarly work remains toward understanding social entrepreneurial motivations, particularly beyond the prosocial, compassionate perspective.

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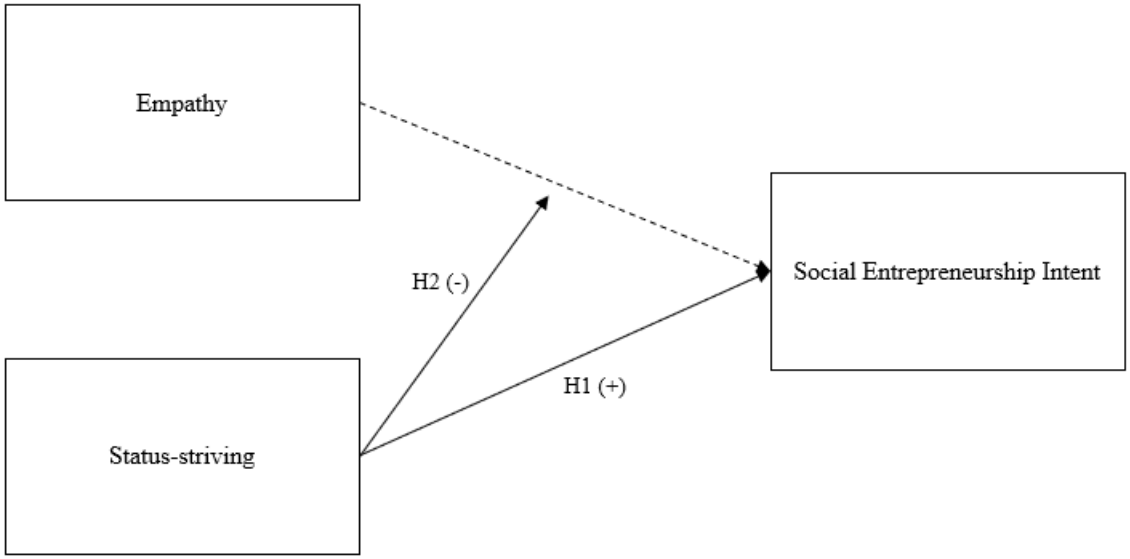

Fig. 1. Research model[1]
The dashed line represents a relationship that is not included in the hypotheses development

[1] In addition to the above hypothesized relationships, our model displayed in Fig. 1 also includes a positive relationship between empathy and social entrepreneurship intent. Indeed, as it is established in the social entrepreneurship literature, empathy is associated with social entrepreneurship intent (Foster & Grichnik, 2013; Hockerts, 2017; Mair & Noboa, 2006). This positive relationship was confirmed in our study (see Table 3, $\beta = .250$, $p < .001$). However, as this link is well established and is not new to the literature, we do not hypothesize it nor do we directly relate it to the contributions of our study.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of the sample.

N	300
Age, mean	35.24
Age, median	32
% Female	37%
Ethnicity: Asian	7.3%
Ethnicity: Black/African	9%
Ethnicity: Hispanic/Latino	6%
Ethnicity: White/Caucasian	69.3%
Religion: Christianity	50%
Religion: Agnostic	19.3%
Religion: Atheist	15.7%

Table 2

Means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence intervals.

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*VIF*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Age	35.24	11.62	2.694						
2. Gender	.41	0.58	1.148	.119*					
3. Work Experience	12.51	10.49	2.743	.784**	.074				
4. Social Entrepreneurship Self-Efficacy	4.35	1.63	1.438	-.056	-.127*	-.136*			
5. Empathy	3.90	0.93	1.1456	.065	.200**	.096*	.367**		
6. Status-striving	3.62	0.89	1.5132	-.122*	-.139*	-.125*	.476**	.398**	
7. Social Entrepreneurship Intent	4.57	1.55	-	-.106*	.034	-.189**	.761**	.475**	.522**

Note. *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 3

Regression Results for Empathy, Status-striving, and Social Entrepreneurship Intent.

	Model 1	**Model 2**	**Model 3**
Constant	4.575*** (.057)	4.575*** (.054)	4.613*** (.054)
CONTROLS			
Age	-.018 (.077)	.044 (.078)	.028 (.080)
Gender	.217*** (.055)	.166** (.053)	.159** (.052)
Social Entrepreneurship Self-Efficacy	1.194*** (.067)	.963*** (.095)	.971*** (.092)
Work Experience	-.135 (.090)	-.205* (.089)	-.196* (.091)
Empathy		.270** (.091)	.250** (.090)
MODERATOR			
Status-striving (H1 Affirmed)		.250** (.073)	.224** (.074)
INTERACTION			
Empathy × Status-striving (H2 Affirmed)			-.096* (.042)
R^2	.606	.663	.669
ΔR^2		.057	.006
Adjusted R^2	.600	.656	.661
F	113.305***	95.905***	84.126***
ΔF	-	12.805***	4.281*

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Parentheses indicates robust standard errors

DV = Social Entrepreneurship Intent

N = 300

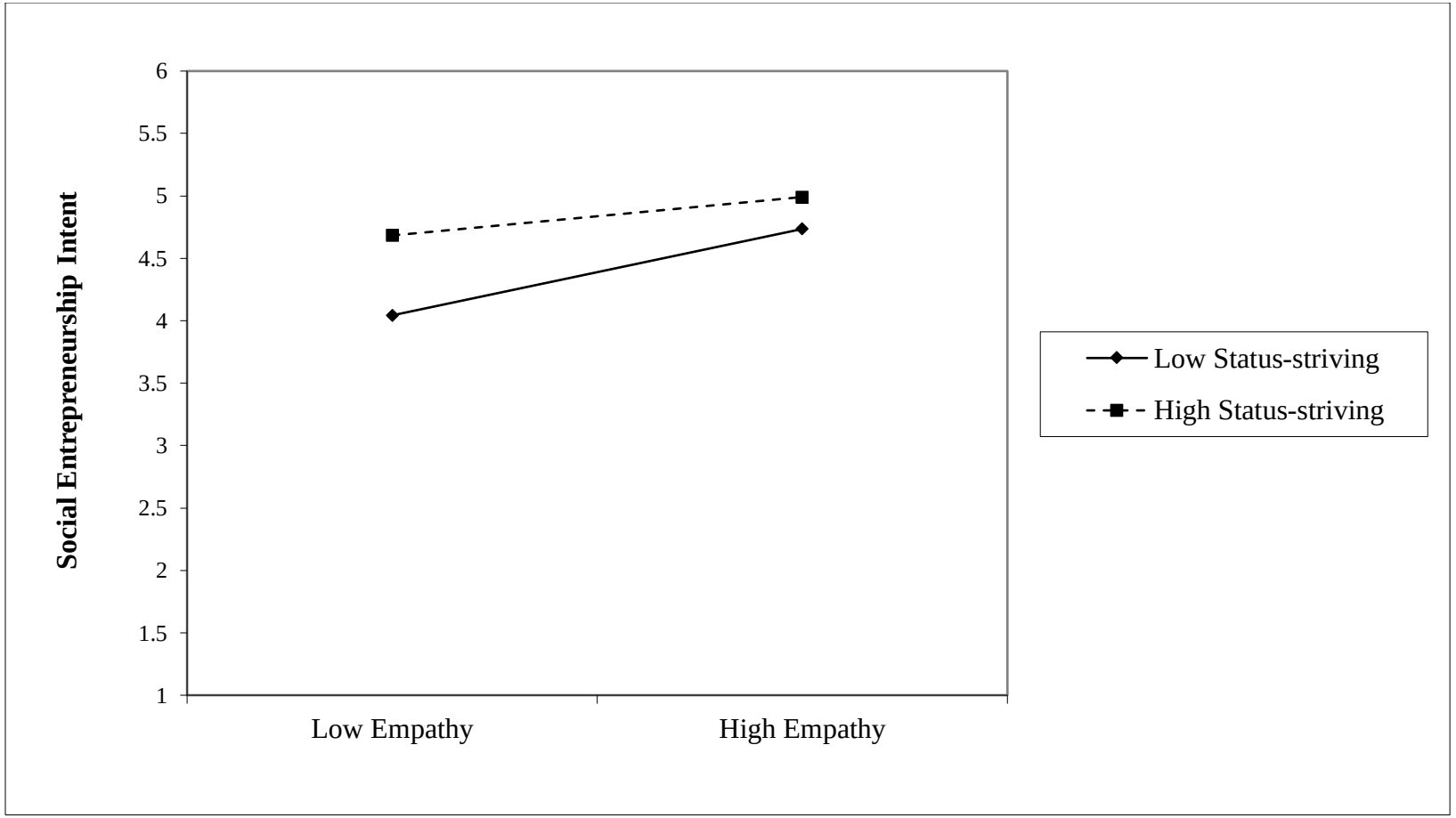

Fig. 2. Interaction effect of empathy and status-striving on social entrepreneurship intent.

Appendix 1. Variables in data collection

Empathy

Bacq, S., & Alt, E. (2018). Feeling capable and valued: A prosocial perspective on the link between empathy and social entrepreneurial intentions. Journal of Business Venturing, 33, 333-350.

How well do the following statements describe you?

1. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective toward them.
2. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
3. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.
4. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.

Social Entrepreneurship Intent

Bacq, S., & Alt, E. (2018). Feeling capable and valued: A prosocial perspective on the link between empathy and social entrepreneurial intentions. Journal of Business Venturing, 33, 333-350.

How strongly do you disagree or agree with the following statements about yourself?

1. I am ready to do anything to apply my business skills to have a significant impact in reducing social inequities.
2. My professional goal is to work in a setting where I can use my business skills to craft solutions to social problems.
3. I will make every effort to use my business acumen to bring about social change.
4. I am determined to have a direct social impact through my work in the future.
5. I have very seriously thought of working in a social enterprise.
6. I have the firm intention to start a social enterprise some day.

Status-striving

Barrick, M.R., Stewart, G.L., & Piotrowski, M. (2002). Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. Journal of Applied Psychology, 87, 43-51.

Please read the following statements and indicate your level of agreement.

Attention and direction

1. I frequently think about ways to advance and obtain better pay or working conditions.
2. I focus my attention on being the best employee in the office.
3. I set personal goals for achieving more than anyone else at my employment.
4. I spend a lot of time contemplating ways to get ahead of my coworkers.
5. I often compare my work accomplishments against coworkers' accomplishments.

Intensity and persistence

1. Everyday, I try to be the most successful employee in the office.
2. I put a lot of effort into moving up and obtaining a better job.
3. I never give up trying to perform at a level higher than others.
4. I expend a lot of effort to develop a reputation as a high achiever.
5. I always try to be the highest performer.

Arousal

1. I get excited about the prospect of being the most successful employee at my work.
2. I feel a thrill when I think about getting a higher status position at work.
3. I care a lot about being the best at my job.
4. I am challenged by a desire to perform my job better than my coworkers.
5. I get worked up thinking about ways to become the highest performing employee at my work.

Social Entrepreneurship Self-Efficacy

Bacq, S., & Alt, E. (2018). Feeling capable and valued: A prosocial perspective on the link between empathy and social entrepreneurial intentions. Journal of Business Venturing, 33, 333-350.

How confident are you in successfully carrying out the following tasks?

1. Identifying new business opportunities for social change.
2. Creating new products/services to solve social problems.
3. Thinking creatively to benefit others.
4. Commercializing an idea for social enterprise.
5. Creating a significant social impact.
6. Building community support.
7. Challenging traditional ways of thinking.
8. Committing to a collective purpose.
9. Committing to helping people.
10. Identifying social problems.