

---

Entrepreneurs' Optimism and New Venture Performance: A Social Cognitive Perspective

Author(s): Keith M. Hmieleski and Robert A. Baron

Source: *The Academy of Management Journal*, Jun., 2009, Vol. 52, No. 3 (Jun., 2009), pp. 473-488

Stable URL: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/40390299>

---

JSTOR is a not-for-profit service that helps scholars, researchers, and students discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content in a trusted digital archive. We use information technology and tools to increase productivity and facilitate new forms of scholarship. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org

Your use of the JSTOR archive indicates your acceptance of the Terms & Conditions of Use, available at <https://about.jstor.org/terms>



JSTOR is working to digitize, preserve and extend access to *The Academy of Management Journal*

JSTOR

## ENTREPRENEURS' OPTIMISM AND NEW VENTURE PERFORMANCE: A SOCIAL COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

KEITH M. HMIELESKI  
Texas Christian University

ROBERT A. BARON  
Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute

Previous research indicates that entrepreneurs are generally high in dispositional optimism—the tendency to expect positive outcomes even when such expectations are not rationally justified. Findings of the current study demonstrate a negative relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance (revenue and employment growth) of their new ventures. Past experience creating ventures and industry dynamism moderated these effects, strengthening the negative relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and venture performance. These findings illustrate the benefits of applying a social cognitive perspective toward efforts to understand key aspects of the new venture creation and development process.

Considering the substantial impact that new ventures have on economic growth within most industrialized nations (Sternberg & Wennekers, 2005), it is fortunate that entrepreneurs pursue their dreams of developing successful new ventures despite the great odds against them (Dosi & Lovallo, 1997). The fact that entrepreneurs decide to forge ahead in the face of daunting obstacles suggests that they are high in dispositional optimism and indeed, research findings indicate that entrepreneurs score particularly high on measures of this personal characteristic (e.g., Abdelsamad & Kindling, 1978; Fraser & Greene, 2006; Lowe & Ziedonis, 2006). For example, Cooper, Woo, and Dunkelberg (1988) found that entrepreneurs express high levels of optimism, regardless how prepared they are to lead their firms. In addition, research by Busenitz and Barney (1997) demonstrated that entrepreneurs tend to overestimate the probability of being right and overgeneralize from a few characteristics or observations significantly more so than managers of large, established organizations. Further supporting the claim that entrepreneurs tend to view the world through "rose-colored glasses," Simon, Houghton, and Aquino (2000) found that entrepreneurs commonly overemphasize the extent to which their skills can increase performance in situations where chance plays a large role and skill is not necessarily a deciding factor; further, they tend

to use a small number of information inputs as the basis for drawing conclusions.

De Meza and Southey (1996) accounted for the phenomenon of entrepreneurs being high in optimism by arguing that, because individuals starting new businesses have little evidence upon which to base beliefs about likely success, those with unrealistic expectations are disproportionately attracted into entrepreneurship. This line of reasoning is consistent with research demonstrating that highly optimistic individuals are confident of achieving successful outcomes independently of being able to visualize the path that will get them there—simply believing that everything will work out favorably in the end (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 2001).

A key question arising from the finding that entrepreneurs are generally high in optimism is this: How does optimism relate to the performance of their new ventures? Although it has been argued that excessive optimism is a primary reason for the high incidence of failure among start-ups (Gartner, 2005), few studies have investigated the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the actual performance of their new ventures. Further, existing evidence suggests that high levels of optimism can negatively affect judgment and decision making (Aspinwall, Sechrist, & Jones, 2005; Åstebro, Jeffrey, & Adomdza, 2007). Thus, optimism seems likely to have important negative effects on the strategic decisions made by lead entrepreneurs and the performance of their new ventures.

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) provides a useful theoretical framework for understanding such effects. Specifically, social cognitive theory suggests that the effects of personal dispositions

---

We would like to express our thanks to R. Duane Ireland and three anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments. In addition, we would like to thank Michael S. Cole for his methodological suggestions.

(including optimism) are often determined by their interaction with important behavioral and environmental factors (Wood & Bandura, 1989). As such, the theory blends dispositional, behavioral, and environmental perspectives, thus providing a more comprehensive framework for examining human action and its outcomes than could be gained by focusing on any of these levels and classes of variables independently. In this regard, social cognitive theory provides a useful framework for undertaking the task of identifying the mechanisms through which individual dispositions ultimately influence firm-level performance—a task that has been identified as crucial in recent years by many researchers (e.g., Baron, 2007; Wright, Hmieleski, Siegel, & Ensley, 2007).

The basic proposals of social cognitive theory are also consistent with the multilevel perspective highlighted by Hitt, Beamish, Jackson, and Mathieu (2007). This perspective suggests that in order to fully understand complex organizational processes (including new venture development), it is essential to examine variables operating at different levels of analysis (e.g., individual, group, subunit, organizational, interorganizational, and environmental). In the current study we adopt this perspective by examining the joint effects of two individual variables—entrepreneurs' optimism and their previous experience in starting new ventures—and a key environmental variable: dynamism. Resting firmly both on social cognitive theory and a multilevel perspective, the current research was designed to make several contributions. First, most empirical research examining the effects of optimism is based on the results of investigations conducted with various types of samples (e.g., college students, factory workers). Although such samples offer important advantages, they do not provide information pertaining to effects that may occur at extreme levels of this dimension. Thus, they do not relate directly to entrepreneurs, who have been found to score very high on measures of optimism (e.g., Fraser & Greene, 2006; Lowe & Ziedonis, 2006). As we describe in more detail in the following section, very high levels of optimism are likely to produce different effects than moderate levels and—more importantly—there are strong theoretical grounds for predicting that these effects will vary considerably in different environments (for example, environments that are low or high in dynamism). Thus, the present research provides new evidence concerning the role of optimism in new venture development and growth, processes that occur in a very wide range of environments.

Second, in examining the effects of optimism, we adopt a perspective suggested both by social cogni-

tive theory and the emerging multilevel perspective in management research (Barden & Mitchell, 2007; Hitt et al., 2007). Specifically, we recognize that the effects of individual-level variables occur primarily through interactions with key environmental factors. Prior research in both the fields of entrepreneurship (Shaver & Scott, 1991) and organizational behavior (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996) has long been criticized for failing to adopt such an approach. In response to such critiques, in the current study we employed social cognitive theory, which emphasizes the reciprocal relationships between dispositional, behavioral, and environmental variables, as the basis for deriving predictions concerning the mechanisms through which dispositional optimism influences the performance of key organizational decision makers (in this case, lead founders of new ventures).

Third, following the spirit of Hambrick's (2007) assertion that organizational researchers must balance theoretical with practical implications, this study also addresses an issue we consider to be of great importance: How best to coach or train entrepreneurs so that they both recognize their own tendencies to have high levels of optimism, and are maximally able to convert these tendencies into personal strengths that help them to found, lead, and grow their new businesses. Such findings are likely to contribute to the literature linking the characteristics of top management to firm performance. For example, much has been written within this literature about the negative effects of hubris (Hayward & Hambrick, 1997; Hayward, Shepherd, & Griffin, 2006; Hiller & Hambrick, 2005), which is a form of overconfidence and a potential manifestation of extreme optimism. However, to date, little empirical research has been conducted to examine theoretical arguments on this topic. Our results contribute to this body of work by evaluating when such negative effects are most likely to occur (that is, at varying levels of experience and dynamism).

## THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

We begin this section by examining the potential benefits and costs of entrepreneurial optimism. Then, following suggestions derived from the social cognitive theory framework, we explore the potentially moderating effects of key behavioral (i.e., entrepreneurial experience) and environmental (i.e., environmental dynamism) variables with respect to dispositional optimism.

### Entrepreneurs' Optimism

Given the pervasiveness of optimism among entrepreneurs, we focus on dispositional optimism, defined as generalized expectancies for experiencing positive outcomes (Scheier et al., 2001). Research has demonstrated that optimism tends to remain relatively stable for individuals over time, situation, and context (Schulman, Keith, & Seligman, 1993). Individuals high in optimism exhibit confidence in a way that is both broad and diffuse, and it encourages them to approach challenges with enthusiasm and persistence (Carver & Scheier, 2003). Research findings indicate that as a result, individuals high in optimism tend to experience better physical and psychological well-being than individuals low in optimism (Peterson & Bossio, 2001).

Additional findings, however, have underscored the fact that high levels of optimism can be linked to negative outcomes. Highly optimistic individuals often hold unrealistic expectations, discount negative information, and mentally reconstruct experiences so as to avoid contradictions (Geers & Lassiter, 2002). In contrast, individuals who are moderate in optimism tend to possess a more balanced view (Spencer & Norem, 1996). They are more sensitive to negative information and less likely to gloss over discrepancies (Spirrison & Gordy, 1993), less easily persuaded by positive information (Geers, Handley, & McLarney, 2003), and less likely to have an attentional bias in favor of positive stimuli (Segerstrom, 2001), and they hold more realistic expectations when engaging in high-risk situations than those higher in optimism (Gibson & Sanbonmatsu, 2004). For these reasons, research findings have suggested, overall, that high levels of optimism often have significant detrimental effects on the judgment and decision making of individuals. Considering the consistency of such findings in the extant literature, it seems likely that highly optimistic entrepreneurs may be prone to make less than optimal strategic decisions.

Also of particular relevance to entrepreneurs, positive expectations often lead to goal conflict, in that optimists tend to see new opportunities everywhere they look (Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2006). This tendency can generate significant problems for individuals who cannot easily decide which goals to pursue and therefore may become seriously overextended as they seek to exploit more opportunities than is realistically feasible. In contrast, moderate optimists tend to be more realistic in their choice and pursuit of opportunities. This moderation is important because entrepreneurs must be able to decide which goals they can realistically accomplish early in the development of

their new ventures in order to maximize the potential for survival and long-term success (McMullen & Shepherd, 2006).

In general, research findings indicate that on a wide range of activities and tasks, optimism has a curvilinear relationship with performance (Brown & Marshall, 2001). Individuals who are very low in optimism tend to lack motivation because they assume that no matter how hard they try, failure is likely to result. In addition, they have a propensity to focus on negative information, which reinforces their view that disaster awaits them. For these reasons, they often attain relatively low levels of performance. Moderate optimists tend to set moderately high, yet realistic, goals and put forth the necessary effort to reach their goals. These individuals recognize a balance of positive and negative cues within their environment, noting both the potential benefits and risks associated with each decision alternative. This more balanced approach tends to make them above-average performers. Extremely optimistic individuals, in contrast, tend to set unrealistically high goals and are overconfident that their goals will be attained. Further, they focus primarily on positive information, which supports their belief that success is likely. These tendencies often interfere with effective performance. As a result, they tend to attain only average levels of performance in many contexts (Judge & Ilies, 2004).

Taken together, existing evidence suggests that across many different tasks, performance increases with task performers' optimism, but only up to a point; beyond this point, further increments in optimism actually generate reductions in performance (Brown & Marshall, 2001). When this curvilinear relationship between optimism and performance observed in the general population is extended to entrepreneurs, an intriguing—and counterintuitive—prediction emerges. Although performance is positively related to optimism in the general population, this relationship might well tend to be negative for entrepreneurs, since they range from moderately high to extremely high on the optimism dimension (Abdelsamad & Kindling, 1978; Busenitz & Barney, 1997; Cooper et al., 1988; Dosi & Lovallo, 1997; Fraser & Greene, 2006; Lovallo & Kahneman, 2003; Lowe & Ziedonis, 2006; Simon et al., 2000). Thus, they fall into the portion of the optimism-performance function beyond the inflection point (i.e., the downward-trending portion). Following this logic and also reflecting previously discussed research regarding the negative effects of optimism on judgment and decision making (e.g., Geers et al., 2003; Gibson & Sanbonmatsu, 2004; Judge & Ilies, 2004; Segerstrom, 2001; Seger-

strom & Solberg Nes, 2006; Spirrison & Gordy, 1993), we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 1. Entrepreneurs' level of dispositional optimism is negatively related to the performance of their new ventures.*

### Moderating Effects of Entrepreneurial Experience

The form of experience the entrepreneurship literature most commonly refers to is experience acquired through having started multiple new ventures (Wright, Westhead, & Sohl, 1998). Individuals possessing such experience are often described as habitual or repeat entrepreneurs. This type of experience typically offers benefits in terms of developing contacts (Danson, 1999), gaining knowledge about obtaining the most appropriate sources of financing (Starr & Bygrave, 1991), learning the managerial and technical skills necessary for leading new ventures (Wright et al., 1998), and identifying how to serve new and emerging market segments (Wright, Robbie, & Ennew, 1997). Entrepreneurial experience is also a primary mode for increasing one's entrepreneurial self-efficacy, because it provides opportunities for "enactive mastery" and role modeling (Zhao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005).

At first glance, one might assume that experience would help to temper or counterbalance entrepreneurs' high levels of optimism (Hayward, Shepherd, & Griffin, 2006). However, the fact that entrepreneurs are, on average, relatively high in optimism calls attention to two relevant points. First, highly optimistic individuals tend to suffer from a "confirmation bias" (Klayman & Ha, 1987), focusing on information that supports or validates their current beliefs while largely ignoring information that is not consistent with these beliefs (Gibson & Sanbonmatsu, 2004). Thus, even though experienced entrepreneurs have more highly developed frameworks for processing a wide range of information than less experienced entrepreneurs (e.g., Baron & Ensley, 2006), those who are high in optimism are likely to focus most on confirming information. This, in turn, may result in overconfidence on the part of experienced, highly optimistic entrepreneurs—a tendency that, as Hayward and colleagues (2006) noted, may negatively affect the performance and survival of new ventures. Second, experienced entrepreneurs tend to have more opportunities available to them via their more extensive entrepreneurial networks and also possess richer cognitive frameworks for processing such opportunities than do novices (Ozgen & Baron, 2007). One result of such an abundance of opportunities, especially for highly optimistic entrepreneurs, may be competing

demands on their information-processing capacity—a kind of "opportunity overload." Since highly optimistic entrepreneurs tend to expect positive outcomes in many situations, such opportunity overload may encourage experienced, highly optimistic entrepreneurs to pursue more opportunities than they can realistically manage. This tendency, in turn, has been shown in previous research to be a major problem for entrepreneurs, one that interferes with their ability to build sustainable growth for their new ventures (Baker & Nelson, 2005). On the basis of these considerations and in the context of social cognitive theory, we propose the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2. Entrepreneurial experience in starting new ventures moderates the relationship between the level of entrepreneurs' dispositional optimism and the performance of their new ventures: the relationship is more negative for those with high, as opposed to low, entrepreneurial experience.*

### Moderating Effects of Environmental Dynamism

Dynamic environments are characterized by unpredictable and rapid change, which increases uncertainty for individuals and firms operating within them (Dess & Beard, 1984). It has been suggested that environmental dynamism forms a fertile context in which entrepreneurial opportunities arise (Hayek, 1945; Kirzner, 1997; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Such environments, however, also present major challenges. Because of high levels of uncertainty and the large amount of financial capital (and associated risk) needed to compete (Aldrich, 2000), entrepreneurs leading their firms in dynamic environments often face unusually heavy information processing burdens (Chandler, Honig, & Wiklund, 2005). As a result, they may also experience high levels of distress and anxiety (Markman, Baron, & Balkin, 2005). Optimism can help to reduce such effects (Luthans & Youssef, 2004) but can also lead to overconfidence or other cognitive errors (Hayward et al., 2006) and hence, can negatively affect judgment and decision making (McKenzie, 1997), especially within dynamic environments (Klayman, Soll, Gonzalez-Vallejo, & Barlas, 1999). Therefore, we suggest that highly optimistic entrepreneurs will be particularly poor at leading their new ventures in dynamic, as opposed to stable, industry environments, because their attention will lack the focus needed to respond quickly and effectively to emerging opportunities. Further, their discounting of negative information could be particularly damaging if it prevents them from making the strategic changes necessary to respond effec-

tively to competitors. For example, according to *uncertainty reduction theory*, highly optimistic individuals will attune to the aspects of the environment that align most closely with their past experience to make sense of the uncertainty present in dynamic environments (Berger & Gudykunst, 1991). Considering that optimistic individuals tend to view both their past and future through rose-colored glasses, they are likely to selectively map an unbalanced mix of mostly positive information from their past into a present situation and thus make less than optimal decisions. In further support of this line of reasoning, optimism has been found to be negatively related to situational awareness, in such a way that highly optimistic persons tend to be fairly ineffective at perceiving elements of their environment, comprehending their meaning, and projecting their status into the near-term future (Eid, Matthews, Meland, & Johnsen, 2005). Considering the importance of rapidly identifying and integrating key information when making strategic decisions in fast-changing environments (Eisenhardt, 1989), highly optimistic entrepreneurs would appear to be at a particular disadvantage in leading new ventures in dynamic, as opposed to stable, industry environments. On the basis of this reasoning and again, in keeping with a general social cognitive perspective, we offer the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 3. Environmental dynamism moderates the relationship between the level of entrepreneurs' dispositional optimism and the performance of their new ventures: the relationship is more negative for those leading their firms within dynamic, as opposed to stable, industry environments.*

## METHODS

### Sample and Procedure

A national random sample of 1,000 new ventures was drawn from Dun & Bradstreet for use in the current study. Dun & Bradstreet compiles what is considered to be the most exhaustive database of young firms founded in the United States (Kalleberg, Marsden, Aldrich, & Cassell, 1990). The vast majority of new ventures within the United States must file for a DUNS number with Dun and Bradstreet to create a business credit record, which is a primary way that companies evaluate whether to do business with each other (for instance, whether to sell, lend money, partner, or lease equipment). Dun & Bradstreet provided the names and address of the firms and their top management team leaders (i.e., chief executive officers), who in each case was also a firm founder.

A packet containing our survey, along with a cover letter and prepaid business reply envelope, was sent to the participants. In total, 185 of the mailings were returned as nondeliverable, and 207 completed surveys were returned. The number of nondeliverable survey mailings was not surprising considering that Dun & Bradstreet reports that 20 percents of the firms that they track change their address each year. Removal of six cases because of incomplete performance data resulted in a total usable response rate of 24.8 percent, which is in alignment with those produced by other studies using similar samples of top management (e.g., Hmielecki & Ensley, 2007; Waldman, Ramirez, House, & Puranam, 2001). We examined nonresponse bias using *t*-tests on top management team leader's gender and firm age, revenue, number of employees, and growth. In each case the results were nonsignificant.

Demographic questions at the end of the administered survey confirmed that each respondent was a founder and the top management team leader of his/her firm. These participants included 163 males and 38 females, with an average age of 52 years. The highest educational degrees earned by participants included high school ( $n = 37$ ), associate's ( $n = 18$ ), bachelor's ( $n = 80$ ), master's ( $n = 47$ ), and doctoral ( $n = 19$ ). The mean age of the firms studied was 5.74 years, which is in alignment with research arguing that start-ups are in a critical developmental stage during their first 6 years of existence and may be considered new ventures during this period (Shrader, Oviatt, & McDougall, 2000). Further, the first 6 years is a particularly relevant time period in the development of a firm within which to consider objective performance outcomes such as revenue and employment growth, whereas earlier on in the firm's development such factors may be less relevant.

Finally, the sample was broad in scope; participants' current businesses were located in 40 different states and had primary operations in 114 different industries (as classified by four-digit Standard Industrial Classification codes). Further, no more than four firms were from the same state, and no more than three firms were from the same industry. Thus, our *national* sample is not biased by industry or geographic location.

### Measures

**Optimism.** Optimism was measured using Scheier et al.'s (1994) six-item Life Orientation Test-Revised (LOT-R). Example items include, "In uncertain times, I usually expect the best" and "Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad" (1, "strongly disagree," to 7, "strongly

agree"). We summed responses into an overall score; high scores indicated a generalized feeling of optimism about the future, and low scores indicated a more pessimistic outlook. To investigate the test-retest reliability of the LOT-R, Scheier and colleagues (1994) examined scores for four different groups of individuals who completed the scale at various time intervals. The test-retest intervals were 4, 12, 24, and 28 months. The test-retest correlations were .68, .60, .56, and .79, respectively. Therefore, as expected for a dispositional measure, the LOT-R appears to be fairly stable over time. Finally, the measure produced a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .80 in the current study.

**Entrepreneurial experience.** Following prior research, we measured entrepreneurial experience as the number of previous ventures founded (Stuart & Abetti, 1990). Specifically, a single survey item asked respondents to report "the number of new ventures started prior to the founding of your current business." Responses ranged from 0 to 6, with nearly half of the respondents ( $n = 91$ ) having previously founded a business. Whereas other studies have dummy-coded the previous founding of new ventures dichotomously as 0 or 1 (e.g., Cooper, Folta, & Woo, 1995; Forbes, 2005), we used the actual number of new ventures started as our study variable. This approach was taken because some additional learning should take place each time an entrepreneur starts another new venture (Zhao et al., 2005). In other words, knowledge of the entrepreneurial process should increase each time that an individual proceeds through founding an additional new venture (Wright et al., 1998).

**Environmental dynamism.** We measured industry-level rate of unpredicted change as the standard errors of four regression slopes, following the work of Dess and Beard (1984), Keats and Hitt (1988), Sharfman and Dean (1991), and Castrogiovanni (2002). In each case the independent variable was time. The dependent variables were industry revenues, number of industry establishments, number of industry employees, and research and development intensity. Industry revenue has been used as a measure of uncertainty in prior studies (e.g., Keats & Hitt, 1988; Sharfman & Dean, 1991), and number of employees is a common measure of change for use in research involving new businesses. The number of establishments has been used by Aldrich (1979) as the basis for understanding industry size and the extent of industry change. Finally, industrywide research and development intensity is a variable that captures the speed of the technological evolution of an industry (Castrogiovanni, 2002; Dess & Beard, 1984).

Data on industry revenues, industry establish-

ment, and industry employment totals were acquired through the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Research and development intensity data were acquired from the U.S. Patent Office. Following Sharfman and Dean (1991), we regressed time against these variables for the most recent ten-year period. An index of the standard errors of the regression slopes divided by their respective means was used the indicator of unpredicted change for each of the four variables. These figures were then standardized and summed into an overall index of environmental dynamism. To evaluate the extent to which the four variables loaded onto a single dimension, we conducted a single-factor confirmatory analysis using AMOS 6.0. The chi-square for the model was nonsignificant ( $\chi^2 = 2.35, p = .13$ ) and results from absolute fit ( $GFI = .99$ ;  $SRMR = .04$ ) and relative fit ( $CFI = .98$ ) indexes each demonstrated good fit. The standardized factor loadings ranged from .68 to .86. Further supporting the reliability of the measure, the overall index produced a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .69.

**New venture performance.** Growth is often cited as the most important performance indicator of new venture success (Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992; Danson, 1999). In keeping with this literature, we used two different objective measures of growth: revenue growth and employment growth. The performance data were obtained from Dun & Bradstreet. Recent studies have validated the accuracy of Dun & Bradstreet revenue and employment data for new ventures (e.g., Baum & Locke, 2004; Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001). The performance measures were calculated as the average annual revenue and employment growth over the two years immediately following the collection of the survey data. We used lagged performance data in order to enhance our ability to draw causal inferences from our results.

**Control variables.** Firm-level control variables included the age of a firm, its revenue and employment totals for the year in which the survey data were collected, and the average revenue and employment growth rates for the three years prior to collection of survey data. Data for each of these variables were acquired from Dun & Bradstreet. To reduce the threat of multicollinearity, we standardized and summed revenue and employment totals for the year in which the survey data were collected to create a variable labeled "firm size." For the same reason, the average revenue and employment growth rates for the three years before collection of our survey data were standardized and summed to create a variable labeled "prior firm growth." Individual control variables included the sex ("male" = 0, "female" = 1), age (in years), and educational

attainment (1 = "high school," 2 = "associate's degree," 3 = "bachelor's degree," 4 = "master's degree," 5 = "doctoral degree") of respondents. These data were collected as demographic items at the end of the administered survey.

### Statistical Procedures

Moderated hierarchical regression analysis was utilized as the main statistical procedure for examining the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and new venture performance, as well as the proposed moderating effects of entrepreneurial experience and environmental dynamism. We mean-centered the variables before creating the interaction terms and graphed each interaction following procedures set forth by Dawson and Richter (2006).

### RESULTS

Table 1 provides the means, standard deviations, and bivariate correlations for study variables. Table 2 provides the results of the hierarchical regression models for revenue and employment growth. The interactions are graphed in Figures 1–3. We describe results in relation to the individual hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that entrepreneurs' level of dispositional optimism is negatively related to the performance of their new ventures. As shown in models 2 and 6 of Table 2, the relationships between entrepreneurs' optimism and the revenue growth ( $\beta = -.17, p < .05$ ) and employment growth ( $\beta = -.20, p < .01$ ) of their new ventures are both significant and negative. Therefore, the findings offer support for Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that entrepreneurial experience in starting new ventures moderates the relationship between the level of entrepreneurs'

dispositional optimism and the performance of their new ventures, such that the relationship will be stronger (i.e., more negative) for those with high, as opposed to low, entrepreneurial experience. As shown in models 3 and 7 of Table 2, the interaction of entrepreneurial experience with optimism is significant and negative for both revenue growth ( $\beta = -.15, p < .05$ ) and employment growth ( $\beta = -.22, p < .01$ ). The graph of this interaction (Figure 1) shows that the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance of their new ventures is more negative for those with high, as opposed to low, entrepreneurial experience. In fact, there appears to be no relationship between optimism and new venture performance for those with low entrepreneurial experience. Therefore, results support Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 stated that environmental dynamism moderates the relationship between the level of entrepreneurs' dispositional optimism and the performance of their new ventures, with the relationship being stronger (i.e., more negative) for those leading their firms in dynamic rather than in stable industry environments. As shown in models 3 and 7 of Table 2, the interaction of environmental dynamism with optimism is significant and negative for both revenue growth ( $\beta = -.33, p < .01$ ) and employment growth ( $\beta = -.34, p < .01$ ). The graph of this interaction (Figure 2) shows that the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance of their new ventures is more negative for those leading their firms in dynamic, as opposed to stable, industry environments. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 too, receives support.

In addition to influencing the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and new venture performance individually, the social cognitive perspective suggests that environmental dynamism

**TABLE 1**  
**Descriptive Statistics and Correlations<sup>a</sup>**

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Firm age	5.74	2.43										
2. Firm size	0.00	1.81	-.08									
3. Prior growth	0.00	1.93	-.09	.35**								
4. Age of entrepreneur	51.83	9.12	.07	.14*	-.08							
5. Sex	0.19	0.40	.00	-.12	-.17*	-.20**						
6. Education	2.97	1.17	.03	.11	-.08	.10	.11					
7. Optimism	5.87	0.90	-.09	-.10	-.03	.16*	.12	-.03				
8. Entrepreneurial experience	0.95	1.34	-.08	.00	.05	.22**	-.12	-.07	.21**			
9. Dynamism	16.56	11.19	-.04	.10	-.04	.12	-.04	.13	.02	.05		
10. Revenue growth	1.79	1.65	-.02	.09	.18**	-.05	-.02	.09	-.15*	.06	.09	
11. Employment growth	1.50	1.12	.02	.09	.11	-.02	-.04	.04	-.19**	.02	.10	.53**

<sup>a</sup> n = 201. For sex, male = 0, female = 1.

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

**TABLE 2**  
**Results of Hierarchical Regression Models of Revenue and Employment Growth<sup>a</sup>**

Variables	Revenue Growth				Employment Growth			
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8
<i>Firm control variables</i>								
Firm age	.00	-.01	.02	.01	.04	.03	.05	.04
Firm size	.03	.00	-.01	.01	.06	.03	.01	.04
Prior growth	.17*	.18*	.19*	.19*	.09	.10	.10	.10
<i>Individual control variables</i>								
Age	-.05	-.04	-.06	-.07	-.03	-.01	-.03	-.05
Sex	-.01	.03	.07	.06	-.03	.01	.05	.04
Education	.10	.09	.08	.06	.04	.03	.01	.02
<i>Main effects</i>								
Optimism		-.17*	-.20**	-.20**		-.20**	-.25**	-.25**
Entrepreneurial experience		.10	.17*	.23**		.06	.16*	.24**
Dynamism		.09	.14	.22**		.10	.16*	.28**
<i>Two-way interactions</i>								
Optimism × experience			-.15*	-.16*			-.22**	-.24**
Optimism × dynamism			-.33**	-.40**			-.34**	-.45**
Experience × dynamism			.10	.33**			.12	.46**
<i>Three-way interaction</i>								
Optimism × experience × dynamism					-.32**			-.47**
<i>F</i>	1.54	1.86	3.66**	4.25**	0.64	1.48	3.90**	5.66**
<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.05	.08	.19	.23	.02	.07	.20	.28
Adjusted <i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	.02	.04	.14	.17	.00	.02	.15	.23

<sup>a</sup> Standardized coefficients are shown. *n* = 201.

\* *p* < .05

\*\* *p* < .01

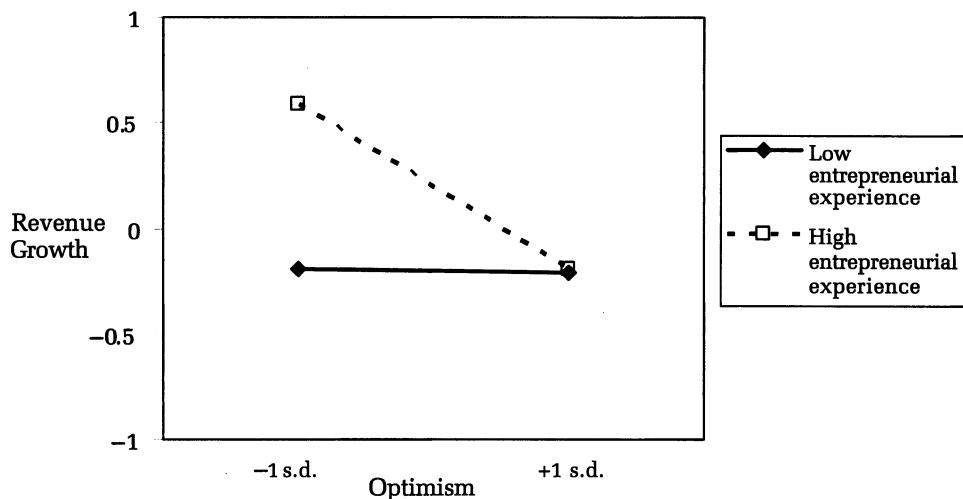
and entrepreneurs' past experience in creating new ventures may also exert joint effects on this relationship. In other words, these key behavioral and environmental factors should act as moderators concurrently—reciprocally enhancing the effects of entrepreneurs' optimism on the performance of their new ventures. Therefore, in a post hoc analysis, we examined the three-way interaction of optimism, entrepreneurial experience, and dynamism on new venture performance. As shown in models 4 and 8 of Table 2, the three-way interaction is found to be significant and negative for both revenue growth ( $\beta = -.32$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and employment growth ( $\beta = -.47$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The graph of this interaction (Figure 3) indicates that the relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance of their new ventures is most negative when entrepreneurial experience and environmental dynamism are both high. Thus, as a social cognitive perspective suggests, these moderating variables appear to operate jointly in influencing new venture performance.

## DISCUSSION

The results of the current study suggest that entrepreneurs' level of optimism has, on average, a negative relationship with the performance of their new ventures and that, moreover, both entrepreneurial experience and environmental dynamism moderate this relationship. Specifically, the negative relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance of their new ventures is stronger for experienced than for inexperienced entrepreneurs, and stronger in dynamic than in stable environments. In addition, there is some indication (from our post hoc analysis) that the negative relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and the performance of their new ventures is strongest when entrepreneurs are high in previous business-founding experience and lead their firms in dynamic environments.

From a theoretical perspective, these findings support the basic predictions of social cognitive theory, which suggests that full understanding of the impact of dispositional variables can only be

**FIGURE 1**  
**Interaction Effect of Dispositional Optimism with Entrepreneurial Experience on Revenue Growth<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The interaction graph for employment growth follows the same pattern as the above.

gained through careful consideration of the interaction between such variables and key behavioral and environmental factors (Bandura, 1986). In addition, results are consistent with the view that a multilevel perspective is essential in all branches of management science for continued refinement of researchers' knowledge base and theoretical models and for fuller understanding of complex organizational processes (Hitt et al., 2007).

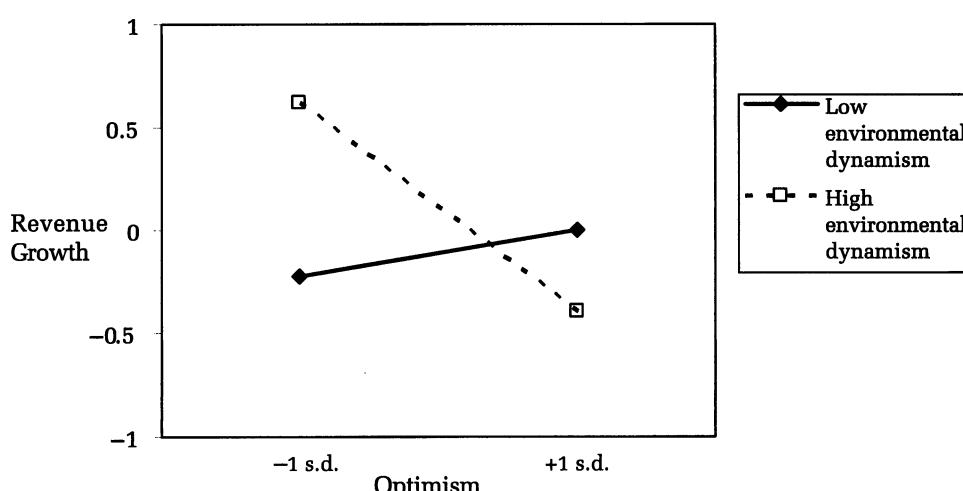
#### Entrepreneurs' Optimism and Firm Performance: Is the Relationship Always Negative?

Overall, the findings of the present research suggest that entrepreneurs' dispositional optimism is

negatively related to firm performance. As noted earlier, there are strong grounds for predicting such a relationship. Highly optimistic individuals often hold unrealistic expectations, suffer from overconfidence, and discount negative information—tendencies that can seriously interfere with their decision making and judgment (Geers & Lassiter, 2002; Segerstrom & Solberg Nes, 2006). The present results indicate that such effects may indeed operate among entrepreneurs and combine to exert a negative influence on new venture performance.

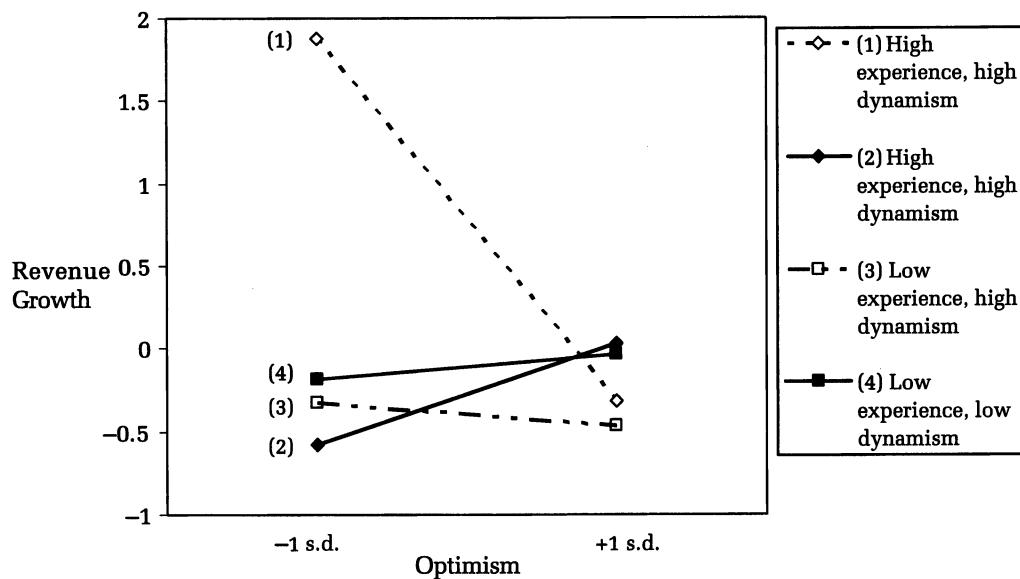
It is important to note, however, that other evidence suggests that high levels of optimism sometimes yield important benefits. These include enhanced ability to form coalitions and lasting

**FIGURE 2**  
**Interaction Effect of Dispositional Optimism with Environmental Dynamism on Revenue Growth<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The interaction graph for employment growth follows the same pattern as the above.

**FIGURE 3**  
**Interaction Effect of Dispositional Optimism with Entrepreneurial Experience and Environmental Dynamism on Revenue Growth<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> The interaction graph for employment growth follows the same pattern as the above.

friendships (Fredrickson, 2001), increased resistance to prolonged, intense stress (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004), greater persistence in the face of adversity (Markman et al., 2005), and enhanced ability to develop extensive social networks (Greve & Salaff, 2003). Several of these skills or capacities—especially the ability to develop extensive social networks—have been shown to be important predictors of entrepreneurial performance (e.g., Ozgen & Baron, 2007). Thus, although the present findings clearly indicate a negative relationship between entrepreneurs' optimism and new venture performance, it seems premature to conclude that the relationship between these variables is always, or uniformly, negative. In fact, two points suggest that the relationship between these variables may be complex and possibly, curvilinear.

First, entrepreneurs in general, and certainly the entrepreneurs who participated in the present study, tend to be very high in optimism (e.g., Abdelsamad & Kindling, 1978; Busenitz & Barney, 1997; Cooper et al., 1988; Dosi & Lovallo, 1997; Fraser & Greene, 2006; Lovallo & Kahneman, 2003; Lowe & Ziedonis, 2006; Simon et al., 2000). In fact, the entrepreneurs in the current sample scored very high on the measure of optimism we employed (mean = 5.87)—higher, in fact, than participants drawn from a wide range of different populations in previous research who completed the same measure (e.g., Armstrong-Stassen, 2006; Aspinwall et al., 2005). Second, the findings of many previous studies indicate that the relationship between op-

timism and individual performance is curvilinear in a wide variety of tasks and populations (e.g., Brown & Marshall, 2001). Performance initially rises as optimism increases, but beyond some point, further increments in optimism are associated with actual decrements in performance. Taking these two facts into account, we suggest that the same principle may operate with respect to entrepreneurs. The relationship between optimism and new venture performance may be positive up to moderate levels of optimism, but beyond this point, may become negative. This reversal may occur because when optimism reaches very high levels, entrepreneurs may fail to assess potential opportunities carefully, show a strong preference for heuristic decision making (a procedure that is often ineffective in dynamic environments [Sarmáy, 1992]), and come to experience high levels of overconfidence. As Hayward et al. (2006) noted, this latter factor, in particular, may adversely affect new venture performance. Although it is always difficult (and fraught with uncertainty) to move from measures of individual performance to measures of firm performance, we tentatively suggest that very high optimism encourages tendencies among entrepreneurs (e.g., overconfidence) that interfere with their performance of key tasks (e.g., full assessment of potential opportunities) and hence, adversely affects the success of their new ventures.

Only future research can fully examine these and related possibilities. However, the present findings do suggest quite clearly that among entrepreneurs,

the potential costs of high optimism may often outweigh any potential benefits of such a disposition. Put in other terms, very high levels of optimism may indeed constitute too much of a good thing where entrepreneurs are concerned and may adversely influence the performance of their new ventures.

### The Effects of Entrepreneurial Experience and Environmental Dynamism

The link between entrepreneurial experience and new venture performance is an intuitive connection and one that has been frequently assumed to be positive (Wright et al., 1998). Empirical evidence concerning this relationship has, however, generally been less than robust (Carter & Ram, 2003). The lack of significant findings regarding this relationship in past research may be due, in part, to the fact that entrepreneurs differ greatly in terms of the degree to which they learn from their experience, and optimism may influence the efficiency of such learning. For example, entrepreneurs who are highly optimistic are likely to learn less from their experience than ones who are moderate in optimism, given the tendency of the first group to focus primarily on positive, belief-confirming information. This line of reasoning is supported by previous research examining the important role that entrepreneurs' cognitive frameworks play in their ability to transform information from their past experience into knowledge that helps them to identify and exploit entrepreneurial opportunities (Corbett, 2005, 2007). Considering that highly optimistic entrepreneurs are cognitively predisposed to undervalue new or dissenting information, they are likely to learn less from their past experience than more moderately optimistic entrepreneurs. This may partly explain why we found entrepreneurial experience to exacerbate the negative relationship between optimism and new venture performance—suggesting that entrepreneurs who are moderate optimists might be more effective at learning from their past experiences than those who are very high in optimism.

Similarly, although some have suggested a positive link between environmental dynamism and new venture performance (Kirzner, 1997), there is relatively little empirical support for such a relationship. Even though the potential for achieving major success may be greater in dynamic industries than in stable ones, the chance of failure is also greater (Markides & Geroski, 2004). Thus, the effects of the few who succeed may be offset by a considerably greater number of relatively poor performers. In contrast, within stable environments there is a better chance of long-term survival, but

less opportunity for impressive gains. As our results show, certain dispositional and behavioral characteristics (for example, moderate optimism coupled with high entrepreneurial experience) may increase the odds of entrepreneurs successfully leading their new ventures within dynamic industry environments.

In sum, we believe that the design of our study, which applies social cognitive theory to entrepreneurship and adopts the contextual perspective recommended by Hitt et al. (2007), helps shed new light on why extant research has not clearly and definitively verified intuitively appealing relationships between entrepreneurial experience and environmental dynamism on the one hand, and new venture performance on the other. We suggest that this lacuna exists primarily because these linkages are more complex than previously believed and are, in fact, contingent on moderating factors (such as the ones examined in the current study).

### Implications for Entrepreneurship Educators and Practitioners

The results of the current study offer support for Lovallo and Kahneman's suggestion that "there needs to be a balance between optimism and realism—between goals and forecasting. Aggressive goals can motivate the troops and improve the chances for success, but outside-view forecasts should be used to decide whether or not to make a commitment in the first place" (2003: 63). A natural conclusion would be to suggest that lead entrepreneurs, who are by nature often highly optimistic, may benefit from adding top management team members who are more moderate in optimism than themselves (Hayward et al., 2006). This is, however, more easily said than done. Decades of research in several fields clearly demonstrate that similarity is a powerful determinant of liking and forming positive personal relationships (e.g., Baron, Branscombe, & Byrne, 2008). Accordingly, optimistic persons prefer to work with individuals similar to themselves on this dimension (Hiller & Hambrick, 2005). Moreover, if the members of top management teams differ considerably in terms of optimism, this situation can generate conflict and dysfunctional management. We suggest, therefore, that a more effective approach may be to train entrepreneurs to self-regulate their optimism in ways that permit them to be realistic as well as positive—to recognize when they need to constrain their enthusiasm and when they can move more energetically. In other words, the development of appropriate metacognitive and self-regulatory mechanisms may be crucial, for it may be those

entrepreneurs who are best able to regulate and direct their own intrinsic optimism who are most likely to achieve the success that they seek. In so doing, entrepreneurs should pay particular attention to how their inherent levels of optimism interact with their experience and environment to influence their ability to achieve successful outcomes.

### Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Several limitations to the current study suggest opportunities for future research. First, although our findings uncovered contextual differences in the relationship between optimism and new venture performance, we did not examine the underlying mechanisms through which such effects occurred. Therefore, future research might address, for example, the use of heuristic versus systematic decision-making processes by entrepreneurs as pathways mediating such effects. Because high levels of optimism tend to be related to heuristic decision making and lower levels of optimism tend to be related to systematic decision making (Scheier et al., 2001), and because repeat entrepreneurs tend to rely more heavily on intuitive modes of thinking than novice entrepreneurs (Brigham, De Castro, & Shepherd, 2007; Buttner & Gryskiewicz, 1993), this may prove to be a particularly fruitful extension to the current study. Further, additional behavioral factors, such as improvisation (Hmieleski & Corbett, 2006), and other environmental factors, such as munificence (e.g., Sharfman & Dean, 1991), may be worth investigating in combination with the effects of optimism.

Second, previous studies of entrepreneurs have failed to identify significant linkages between performance and personal satisfaction (e.g., Brigham et al., 2007; Hmieleski & Corbett, 2008). Identifying such links would be particularly relevant for studies of entrepreneurs' optimism, because optimism has generally been found to be positively related to work satisfaction (Youseff & Luthans, 2007); but as the present results show, it appears to be negatively linked to performance among entrepreneurs. Future studies of entrepreneurs' optimism might embrace efforts to evaluate what configurations of optimism with other behavioral and environmental factors simultaneously maximize both performance and satisfaction.

Third, the specific nature of our sample (entrepreneurs leading new ventures) limits the extent to which our findings can be generalized to other groups of individuals and organizations. As noted earlier, entrepreneurs tend to range from moderate to very high in optimism (Abdelsamad & Kindling, 1978; Busenitz & Barney, 1997; Cooper et al., 1988;

de Meza & Southey, 1996; Fraser & Greene, 2006; Lowe & Ziedonis, 2006; Simon et al., 2000). Therefore, our results are not informative about populations in which optimism is considerably lower. Although we have no strong reason to assume that similar findings would not occur for leaders in other types of firms who are moderately to highly optimistic, research has shown that the optimal characteristics of leaders vary with a firm's evolutionary stage (Smith & Miner, 1983). For example, high optimism might be more beneficial than moderate optimism during the idea generation stage of the new venture creation process. Therefore, it seems important to examine the relationships explored in the current study longitudinally over various stages in the organizational life cycle. Following this approach might necessitate adoption of other performance measures that are more applicable to a given type of firm and a given stage of firm development. Such research should, insofar as possible, track the development of firms from their initial founding so as to avoid survival bias.

Finally, the cross-sectional design of the current study limits our ability to make causal inferences about the observed relationships. The fact that our performance data were lagged from the time period in which the data for the independent variables were collected does support our case for causality. Such arguments would, however, be made stronger in future studies if both the independent and outcome variables were measured on multiple occasions over time. Such multiple measurement would also allow for a more comprehensive test of social cognitive theory by presenting the opportunity to examine the bidirectional relationships between the variables studied.

### Conclusions

Early investigation of the potential role of entrepreneurs' personal dispositions in new venture creation and development failed to provide clear or consistent findings (Gartner, 1989). Many factors contributed to these disappointing results, including inadequate operationalization and measurement of variables, lack of attention to relevant theoretical frameworks, and relatively little focus on the crucial task of linking these microlevel variables to overt actions by entrepreneurs or to firm performance (Low & MacMillan, 1988). In contrast, more recent research focusing on the personal characteristics of entrepreneurs (or, more broadly speaking, individual-level variables such as the skills, motives, experience, attitudes, and other characteristics of individual entrepreneurs) has been based on well-established theoretical frame-

works and employed carefully chosen measures and improved research designs (e.g., Baum et al., 2001; Hmielecki & Baron, 2008; Zhao et al., 2005). The resulting findings provide evidence that several individual-level variables do indeed matter: they are significantly related to new venture performance (e.g., Baron, 2007, 2008). Despite these advances, however, the amount of variance in new venture performance explained by such variables has continued to be small (Davidsson, Low, & Wright, 2001). This seems to be partly due to the fact that many studies still seek to identify global characteristics that differentiate successful from less successful entrepreneurs. We suggest that a more fruitful approach may be to examine the interactions between individual-level variables and both behavioral and environmental moderating variables, thus applying a social cognitive perspective. Such an approach fully reflects the nature of modern research on the role of microlevel variables in several branches of management (e.g., organizational behavior, human resource management). In these fields, it is widely recognized that factors relating to the skills, motives, experience, and characteristics of individuals do indeed influence work-related behavior and, hence, important organizational outcomes. However, it is also recognized that such effects are rarely direct; rather, more frequently other variables relating to the tasks that individuals perform and the environments in which they operate moderate these effects. Adopting this broader perspective in order to more fully understand the role of individual entrepreneurs in new venture performance may greatly facilitate progress toward a central goal of the field of entrepreneurship: accurate comprehension of the complex process, involving many different factors operating at many different levels, through which enterprising entrepreneurs conceive, launch, and operate new ventures. In somewhat broader terms, we hope that the present findings encourage ongoing efforts to incorporate a multilevel approach into entrepreneurship research—an approach aimed at gaining understanding of the complex interplay between individual, organizational, and environmental variables in new venture performance (Hitt et al., 2007). In our view, such research is crucial, for it is this complex, reciprocal interchange that ultimately shapes the survival and fortunes of new ventures.

## REFERENCES

- Abdelsamad, M. H., & Kindling, A. T. 1978. Why small businesses fail. *Advanced Management Journal*, 43(2): 24–32.
- Aldrich, H. 1979. *Organizations and environments*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Aldrich, H. 2000. *Organizations evolving*. London: Sage.
- Armstrong-Stassen, M. 2006. Determinants of how managers cope with organisational downsizing. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 55: 1–26.
- Aspinwall, L. G., Sechrist, G. B., & Jones, P. R. 2005. Expect the best and prepare for the worst: Anticipatory coping and preparations for Y2K. *Motivation and Emotions*, 29: 357–388.
- Åstebro, T., Jeffrey, S. A., & Adomdza, G. K. 2007. Inventor perseverance after being told to quit: The role of cognitive biases. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, 20: 253–272.
- Baker, T., & Nelson, R. E. 2005. Creating something from nothing: Resource construction through entrepreneurial bricolage. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 50: 329–366.
- Bandura, A. 1986. *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Barden, J. Q., & Mitchell, W. 2007. Disentangling the influences of leaders' relational embeddedness on interorganizational exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50: 1440–1461.
- Baron, R. A. 2007. Behavioral and cognitive factors in entrepreneurship: Entrepreneurs as the active element in new venture creation. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 1(1–2): 167–182.
- Baron, R. A. 2008. The role of affect in the entrepreneurial process. *Academy of Management Review*, 33: 328–340.
- Baron, R. A., & Ensley, M. D. 2006. Opportunity recognition as the detection of meaningful patterns: Evidence from comparisons of novice and experienced entrepreneurs. *Management Science*, 52: 1331–1344.
- Baron, R. A., Branscombe, N. R., & Byrne, D. 2008. *Social psychology* (12th ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Baum, J. R., & Locke, E. A. 2004. The relationship of entrepreneurial traits, skill, and motivation to subsequent venture growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89: 587–598.
- Baum, J., Locke, E., & Smith, K. 2001. A multidimensional model of venture growth. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 292–303.
- Berger, C. R., & Gudykunst, W. B. 1991. Uncertainty and communication. In B. Dervin & M. Voight (Eds.), *Progress in communication sciences*: 21–66. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Brigham, K. H., De Castro, J. O., & Shepherd, D. A. 2007. A person-organization fit model of owner-managers' cognitive style and organizational demands. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 31(1): 29–51.
- Brown, J. D., & Marshall, M. A. 2001. Great expectations:

- Optimism and pessimism in achievement settings. In E. C. Chang (Ed.), *Optimism & pessimism: Implications for theory, research, and practice*: 239–255. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Brush, C. G., & Vanderwerf, P. A. 1992. A comparison of methods and sources for obtaining estimates of new venture performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 7: 157–170.
- Busenitz, L. W., & Barney, J. B. 1997. Differences between entrepreneurs and managers in large organizations: Biases and heuristics in strategic decision-making. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 12: 9–30.
- Buttner, E. H., & Grysiewicz, N. 1993. Entrepreneurs' problem-solving styles: An empirical study using the Kirton adaptation/innovation theory. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 31(1): 22–31.
- Carter, S., & Ram, M. 2003. Reassessing portfolio entrepreneurship. *Small Business Economics*, 21: 371–380.
- Carver, C. S., & Scheier, M. 2003. Optimism. In S. J. Lopez & C. R. Snyder (Eds.), *Positive psychological assessment: A handbook of models and measures*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Castrogiovanni, G. J. 2002. Organization task environments: Have they changed fundamentally over time. *Journal of Management*, 28(2): 129–150.
- Chandler, G. N., Honig, B., & Wiklund, J. 2005. Antecedents, moderators, and performance consequences of membership change in new venture teams. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 20: 705–725.
- Cooper, A. C., Folta, T. B., & Woo, C. 1995. Entrepreneurial information search. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 10: 107–120.
- Cooper, A. C., Woo, C. Y., & Dunkelberg, W. C. 1988. Entrepreneurs' perceived chances for success. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 3: 97–108.
- Corbett, A. C. 2005. Experiential learning within the process of opportunity identification and exploitation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29: 473–491.
- Corbett, A. C. 2007. Learning asymmetries and the discovery of entrepreneurial opportunities. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22: 97–118.
- Danson, M. W. 1999. Debates and reviews. *Regional Studies*, 33(2): 157–173.
- Davidsson, P., Low, M., & Wright, M. 2001. Editor's introduction—Low and MacMillan ten years on: Achievements and future directions for entrepreneurship research. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 25(4): 5–16.
- Dawson, J. F., & Richter, A. W. 2006. Probing three-way interactions in moderated multiple regression: Development and application of a slope difference test. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91: 917–926.
- de Meza, D., & Southey, C. 1996. The borrower's curse: Optimism, finance and entrepreneurship. *Economic Journal*, 106: 375–386.
- Dess, G. G., & Beard, D. W. 1984. Dimensions of organizational task environments. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29: 52–73.
- Dosi, G., & Lovallo, D. 1997. Rational entrepreneurs or optimistic martyrs? Some considerations on technological regimes, corporate entries, and the evolutionary role of decision biases. In R. Garud & P. R. Nayyar (Eds.), *Technological innovation: Oversights and foresights*: 41–68. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Eid, J., Matthews, M. D., Meland, N. T., & Johnsen, B. H. 2005. Dispositional optimism and self-assessed situation awareness in a Norwegian military training exercise. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 100: 649–658.
- Eisenhardt, K. M. 1989. Making fast strategic decisions in high-velocity environments. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32: 543–576.
- Forbes, D. P. 2005. Managerial determinants of decision speed in new ventures. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26: 355–366.
- Fraser, S., & Greene, F. J. 2006. The effects of experience on entrepreneurial optimism and uncertainty. *Economica*, 73: 169–192.
- Fredrickson, B. L. 2001. The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist*, 56: 218–226.
- Gartner, J. D. 2005. America's manic entrepreneurs. *American Enterprise*, 16(5): 18–21.
- Gartner, W. B. 1989. Some suggestions for research on entrepreneurial traits and characteristics. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 14(1): 27–37.
- Geers, A. L., Handley, I. M., & McLarney, A. R. 2003. Discerning the role of optimism in persuasion: The valence-enhancement hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85: 554–565.
- Geers, A. L., & Lassiter, G. D. 2002. Effects of affective expectations on affective experience: The moderating role of optimism-pessimism. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin*, 28: 1026–1039.
- Gibson, B., & Sanbonmatsu, D. M. 2004. Optimism, pessimism, and gambling: The downside of optimism. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin*, 30: 149–160.
- Greve, A., & Salaff, J. W. 2003. Social networks and entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28(1): 1–22.
- Hambrick, D. C. 2007. The field of management's devotion to theory: Too much of a good thing? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50: 1346–1352.
- Hayek, F. A. 1945. The use of knowledge in society. *American Economic Review*, 35: 519–530.
- Hayward, M. L. A., & Hambrick, D. C. 1997. Explaining the premium paid for large acquisitions: Evidence of

- CEO hubris. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42: 103–127.
- Hayward, M. L. A., Shepherd, D. A., & Griffin, D. 2006. A hubris theory of entrepreneurship. *Management Science*, 52: 160–172.
- Hiller, N. J., & Hambrick, D. C. 2005. Conceptualizing executive hubris: The role of (hyper-)core self-evaluations in strategic decision-making. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26: 297–319.
- Hitt, M. A., Beamish, P. W., Jackson, S. E., & Mathieu, J. E. 2007. Building theoretical and empirical bridges across level: Multilevel research in management. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50: 1385–1399.
- Hmielecki, K. M., & Baron, R. A. 2008. When does entrepreneurial self-efficacy enhance versus reduce firm performance? *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, 2: 57–72.
- Hmielecki, K. M., & Corbett, A. C. 2006. Proclivity for improvisation as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 41(1): 45–63.
- Hmielecki, K. M., & Corbett, A. C. 2008. The contrasting interaction effects of improvisational behavior with entrepreneurial self-efficacy on new venture performance and entrepreneur work satisfaction. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 23: 482–496.
- Hmielecki, K. M., & Ensley, M. D. 2007. A contextual examination of new venture performance: entrepreneur leadership behavior, top management team heterogeneity, and environmental dynamism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28: 865–889.
- House, R. J., Shane, S. A., & Herold, D. M. 1996. Rumors of the death of dispositional research are vastly exaggerated. *Academy of Management Review*, 21: 203–224.
- Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. 2004. Is positiveness in organizations always desirable? *Academy of Management Executive*, 18(4): 151–155.
- Kalleberg, A. L., Marsden, P. V., Aldrich, H. E., Cassell, J. W. 1990. Comparing organizational sampling frames. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 35: 658–688.
- Keats, B. W., & Hitt, M. A. 1988. A causal model of linkages among environmental dimensions, macro organizational characteristics, and performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31: 570–598.
- Kirzner, I. 1997. Entrepreneurial discovery and the competitive market process: An Austrian approach. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 35: 60–85.
- Klayman, J., & Ha, Y. W. 1987. Confirmation, disconfirmation, and information in hypothesis testing. *Psychological Review*, 94: 211–228.
- Klayman, J., Soll, J. B., Gonzalez-Vallejo, C., & Barlas, S. 1999. Overconfidence: It depends on how, what, and whom you ask. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 79: 216–247.
- Lovallo, D., & Kahneman, D. 2003. Delusions of success: How optimism undermines executives' decisions. *Harvard Business Review*, 81(7): 56–63.
- Low, M., & MacMillan, I. 1988. Entrepreneurship: Past research and future challenges. *Journal of Management*, 14(2): 139–161.
- Lowe, R. A., & Ziedonis, A. A. 2006. Overoptimism and the performance of entrepreneurial firms. *Management Science*, 52: 173–186.
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. 2004. Human, social, and now positive psychological capital management: Investing in people for competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(2): 143–160.
- Markides, C. C., & Geroski, P. A. 2004. *Fast second: How smart companies bypass radical innovation to enter and dominate new markets*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Markman, G. D., Baron, R. A., & Balkin, D. B. 2005. Are perseverance and self-efficacy costless? Assessing entrepreneurs' regretful thinking. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26: 1–19.
- McKenzie, C. R. M. 1997. Underweighting alternatives and overconfidence. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 71: 141–160.
- McMullen, J. S., & Shepherd, D. A. 2006. Entrepreneurial action and the role of uncertainty in the theory of the entrepreneur. *Academy of Management Review*, 31: 132–152.
- Ozgen, E., & Baron, R. A. 2007. Social sources of information in opportunity recognition: Effects of mentors, industry networks, and professional forums. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 22: 174–192.
- Peterson, C., & Bossio, L. M. 2001. Optimism and physical well-being. In E. C. Chang (Ed.), *Optimism & pessimism: Implications for theory, research, and practice*: 127–145. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Sarmány, I. 1992. Optimism and cognitive style. *Studia Psychologica*, 34: 261–267.
- Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. 1994. Distinguishing optimism from neuroticism (and trait anxiety, self-mastery, and self-esteem): A re-evaluation of the Life Orientation Test. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67: 1063–1078.
- Scheier, M. F., Carver, C. S., & Bridges, M. W. 2001. Optimism, pessimism, and psychological well-being. In E. C. Chang (Ed.), *Optimism & pessimism: Implications for theory, research, and practice*: 189–216. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Schulman, P., Keith, D., & Seligman, M. 1993. Is optimism heritable? A study of twins. *Behaviour Research & Therapy*, 31: 569–574.
- Segerstrom, S. C. 2001. Optimism, goal conflict, and stressor-related immune change. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 24: 441–467.

- Segerstrom, S. C., & Solberg Nes, L. 2006. When goals conflict but people prosper: The case of dispositional optimism. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 40: 675–693.
- Shane, S., & Venkataraman, S. 2000. The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 217–226.
- Sharfman, M., & Dean, J. 1991. Conceptualizing and measuring the organizational environment: A multi-dimensional approach. *Journal of Management*, 17: 681–700.
- Shaver, K., & Scott, L. 1991. Person, process, choice: The psychology of new venture creation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(2): 23–45.
- Shrader, R. C., Oviatt, B. M., & McDougall, P. P. 2000. How new ventures exploit trade-offs among international risk factors: Lessons of the accelerated internationalization of the 21st century. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43: 1227–1247.
- Simon, M., Houghton, S. M., & Aquino, K. 2000. Cognitive biases, risk perception, and venture formation: How individuals decide to start companies. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15: 113–134.
- Smith, N. R., & Miner, J. B. 1983. Type of entrepreneur, type of firm, and managerial motivation: Implications for organizational life cycle theory. *Strategic Management Journal*, 4: 325–340.
- Spencer, S. M., & Norem, J. K. 1996. Reflection and distraction: Defensive pessimism, strategic optimism, and performance. *Personality and Social Psychological Bulletin*, 22: 354–365.
- Spirrison, C. L., & Gordy, C. C. 1993. The constructive thinking inventory and detecting errors in proofreading. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 76: 631–634.
- Starr, J. A., & Bygrave, W. D. 1991. The assets and liabilities of prior start-up experience: An exploratory study of multiple venture entrepreneurs. In N. C. Churchill et al. (Eds.), *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research*: 213–227. Babson Park, MA: Babson College.
- Sternberg, R., & Wenckers, S. 2005. Determinants and effects of new business creation using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Data. *Small Business Economics*, 24: 193–203.
- Stuart, R. W., & Abetti, P. A. 1990. Impact of entrepreneurial and management experience on early performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 5: 151–162.
- Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. 2004. Resilient individuals use positive emotions to bounce back from negative emotional experiences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86: 320–333.
- Waldman, D. A., Ramirez, G. G., House, R. J., & Puranam, P. 2001. Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 134–143.
- Wood, R., & Bandura, A. 1989. Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *Academy of Management Review*, 14: 361–384.
- Wright, M., Hmielecki, K. M., Siegel, D., & Ensley, M. D. 2007. The role of human capital in technological entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 31: 791–806.
- Wright, M., Robbie, K., & Ennew, C. 1997. Serial entrepreneurs. *British Journal of Management*, 8: 251–268.
- Wright, M., Westhead, P., & Sohl, J. 1998. Editors' introduction: Habitual entrepreneurs and angel investors. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 22(4): 5–21.
- Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. 2007. Positive organizational behavior in the workplace. *Journal of Management*, 33: 774–800.
- Zhao, H., Seibert, S. E., & Hills, G. E. 2005. The mediating role of self-efficacy in the development of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90: 1265–1272.



**Keith M. Hmielecki** (k.hmielecki@tcu.edu) is an assistant professor of management in the M. J. Neeley School of Business at Texas Christian University. He received his Ph.D. from Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. His research focuses on psychological and behavioral aspects of the new venture creation and development process.

**Robert A. Baron** (baronr@rpi.edu) is Bruggeman Professor of Entrepreneurship in the Lally School of Management and Technology at Rensselaer Polytechnic University. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Iowa. His current research focuses on social and cognitive factors in entrepreneurship.

