INTERNATIONALIZATION OF TURKISH ENTREPRENEURS

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BY

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PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Mahad Bashir Samatar

20,06,2022

ABSTRACT

This study contributes to our knowledge of how exporting entrepreneurs internationalize. Specifically, this research aims to determine factors that influence Turkish entrepreneurs' exporting activity using GEM data. In this study, the data of 5547 Turkish entrepreneurs, aged between 18-64 years old were analyzed using logistic regression since the dependent variable and most variables have binary values. The research model of this study combines four classes of factors which are: entrepreneurs' intellectual and social capital, motivation, perception, and the newness of the technology. The results of the study show that entrepreneurs' intellectual and social capital, motivation, and newness of technology are the significant factors that influence Turkish entrepreneurs' exporting activity. This study fills a gap in the empirical literature on Turkish exporting entrepreneurs.

Keywords: internationalization, entrepreneurs, export activity

ÖZET

Bu çalışma, girişimcilerin ihracatçı olmasını etkileyen faktörleri araştırmaktadır. Bu araştırma, GEM verilerini kullanarak Türk girişimcilerin ihracatçı olmalarını etkileyen faktörleri belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmada, yaşları 18-64 arasında değişen 5547 Türk girişimcinin verileri kullanılmıştır. Bağımlı değişken ve diğer bazı değişkenlerin iki kategorili olduğu için lojistik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Modelimizde girişimcilerin entelektüel sermayesi, sosyal sermayesi, girişimci olma motivasyonu ve kullanılan teknolojinin yeniliği olmak üzere dört temel faktör analiz edilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, girişimcilerin entelektüel ve sosyal sermayesi, girişimci olma motivasyonu ve girişimcinin kullandığı teknolojinin yeniliği Türk girişimcilerinin ihracat faaliyetlerini etkileyen önemli faktörler olduğunu göstermektedir. Bu çalışma, Türk ihracatçı girişimcilere ilişkin ampirik literatürdeki bir boşluğu doldurmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: uluslararasılaşma, girişimciler, ihracat faaliyeti

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1. INTRODUCTION

The concept of entrepreneurship has emerged as a critical component or a key factor in today's business environment. Because it has been linked to increased growth of nations and employment creation. Entrepreneurs have increasingly expanded into international markets over the last 20 years and utilized resources from international sources (Fliess & Busqets, 2006; Lu & Beamish, 2001, Esra E. Karadeniz, 2007 & Özlem, 20015). International growth allows entrepreneurs to develop their firms and obtain information in international markets, but it also comes with high expenses and uncertainty (Contractor, Kumar, & Kundu, 2007).

There are three approaches to international entrepreneurship. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) describe entrepreneurship from an opportunity-based approach as an individual effort to recognize new opportunities to develop future products and services. Baker et al. (2005) presented yet another approach to international entrepreneurship, explaining it as a process of achievements and seeking new opportunities. With these two approaches, Zhang et al. (2009) define international entrepreneurship as a "firm-level capability to influence resources through integrating innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking activities to evaluate and exploit new opportunities across foreign markets, and to achieve better performance by the firms.

Johanson and Vahlne (1977) described internationalization as how the companies steadily grow their international participation. They argued that internationalization resulted from several gradual choices. Scholars described the internationalization process using a stage model that follows a process model in which the company begins without international activities, continues to engage in international activities, and then ends with subsidiaries abroad.

According to some studies by (Johanson & Vahlne 2009), the most curial success determinant in internationalization is an entrepreneur's ability to interact with international partners, consumers, and distributors. Entrepreneurship is related to newness, the encouragement of change, and the growth of new markets. Entrepreneurial business seeks to expand by introducing new products, acquiring new consumers, or mixing the two. To this point, the firm's activities connected to the product and foreign expansion may be viewed as entrepreneurial activities based on its desire to capitalize on new possibilities and maximize its resources (Chetty & Stangl, 2010).

Export activities are essential contributors to a nation's economic success. Also, entrepreneurship can boost growth by providing new ideas, bringing about change, fostering competitiveness, and increasing rivalry (Stel, Carree, & Thurik, 2005). According to Wright and Ricks (1994), exporting entrepreneurs begin international activities to provide value to their new firms and aspire to grow internationally. They strive to work beyond foreign countries and concentrate on the mutually beneficial relationships among firms and countries they are exporting (McDougall & Oviatt 2000). In addition, these entrepreneurs operating within foreign countries are trying to reach competitive advantages to overcome their disadvantages of foreignness and liabilities (Zaheer 1995, Mudambi and Zahra 2007).

With increased international interest in the field of entrepreneurship, it is critical to investigate entrepreneur behaviours like their networking and work ethic and qualities of entrepreneurs such as their background and culture that are important for their international operations such as exporting. Some scholars believe that entrepreneurs do not make decisions alone but always do it together with their business partners and that their actions take place inside their networks.

As suggested by (Acs & Audretsch, 2000, Klyver, 2011), using these business networks, entrepreneurs share knowledge, information, creative concepts, capital and skills accessibility, emotional capabilities as well as social lawfulness that brings about opportunities for their new business ventures. These possibilities, which are integrated into their relationships, impact their firm's success, for example, exporting (Terjesen and Hessels, 2009). Entrepreneurs require some form of competitive edges like unique resources and creative talents to export since they must adapt their goods or services to other international markets (Hessels and Stel, 2011).

Entrepreneurs' backgrounds, such as their years of schooling, are represented by a significant amount of information capital and hence are more likely to be positively associated with the mindset of entrepreneurs to generate goods and services that can be exported to foreign countries. Individually, education is a crucial component of an entrepreneur's human capital. Therefore, entrepreneurs with greater levels of education are likely to perceive and take advantage of the possibilities (Davidsson & Honig, 2003) and less desire to build their enterprises (Autio, 2007; Terjesen and Hessels, 2009).

Entrepreneurs who run small firms are essential contributors to a nation's economy. They account for over 60 percent of a nation's gross domestic product (GDP) and over 90 percent of its employment (World Bank, 2011). Entrepreneurs and small firms also play a significant part in creating economic prosperity in the Turkish economy. In reality, SMEs account for a more substantial percentage which is almost above 99% of the total number of Turkish companies and contributes more than 76%

to the employment and provides 10% of Turkey's export, and makeup 26% of investment and more than 36% of value-added in Turkey (KOSGEB, 2005).

With increased rivalry from domestic and foreign competitors over the last two decades, many Turkish manufacturing firms have been compelled to go internationally to survive. Therefore, small companies may become more engaged in global activities due to increased international market conditions, innovations in transport and communication, advanced technologies, and an increasing number of individuals with foreign experiences (Svante, 2004, p. 23). It is consequently critical for entrepreneurs to seek success in global markets, mainly when local market opportunities are restricted (Coviello & Munro, 1995; Hill, Cronk, & Wickramasekera, 2014). Particularly, internationalization extends markets, raises production scales, develops management processes, and adds diversification and adaptation (Hill et al., 2014).

Due to a global focus on entrepreneurship, it is significant for entrepreneurs to examine activities such as their connections and their overall performance. Alternatively, their culture is essential for international activities, such as entrepreneurs' background characteristics and exports. Researchers believe that entrepreneurs' networking is critical because they share facts, knowledge, innovative ideas, financial access, skills, emotional support, and social legitimacy that offer them business opportunities (Acs and Audretsch, 2000; Klyver, 2011). Those opportunities incorporated into their active network influence their company's overall performance, like exporting (Terjesen and Hessels, 2009).

The research about internationalization in Turkey has mainly been done at the firms' level (Karadeniz, 2007), and there has not been much research done at the entrepreneurial level in Turkey. However, some research on the issue of entrepreneurship about internationalization has been conducted in different countries using GEM data. Özlem Kunday and Ece Piskinsüt Sengüler (2015) analyzed the factors affecting the internationalization process using GEM data at the entrepreneur level, including data from 81 countries. Hence, our research contributes to understanding essential variables that influence Turkish entrepreneurs at the individual level using GEM data.

This research aims to gain better knowledge of the essential variables that influence Turkish export entrepreneurs using the main theories of the internationalization process: stage approach, network approach, internationalization, entrepreneurship approach, and last but not least, the born global approach. In addition, to better understand the field of internationalization by examining, describing, and analyzing how entrepreneurs decide to go internationally.

This thesis consists of five main parts: the introduction, literature review, research methodology, data analysis and findings, the conclusion as well as limitations, and future research. The introduction includes a general description of the internationalization process, the aim of the study, and the structure. In the literature review section, four main approaches will be discussed: the stage approach consisting of Uppsala and innovation-related models, network theory, the born global theory, and the international entrepreneurship theory.

In the research methodology section, the research model and hypothesis will be explained with the data collection method and measures of the variables. After that, we will present the research analysis and the findings, followed by an interpretation of the results, and lastly, our conclusion and limitations for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Definition of internationalization

Over the last three decades, there has been a lot of research about the internationalization process, and markets are currently more global in nature as they are increasingly globalizing fast (Levitt,1983). Competition is stronger and more international, whereas for several companies, it is economically impossible to stay within their local markets (Ohmae,1990), and this shows that the concepts of internationalization knowledge have increased significantly.

Internationalization is defined as the process by which companies gradually increase their international participation, whereby Internationalization was the product of gradual decisions by Johanson and Vahlne (1977). In addition, Internationalization is a mechanism that involves several gradual decisions and strategies which require different goods, facilities, or capital passing through foreign countries.

Welch and Luostarinen (1988) defined Internationalization to be a dynamic concept that is also the process of increasing engagement in foreign market activities. Beamish (1990) offers an informative explanation that Internationalization is a way in which companies recognize their awareness, directly and indirectly, affecting international transactions in the future while setting up and conducting transactions with other nations. However, Welch & Loustarinen 1988, and Beamish's (1990) definitions of ways of Internationalization differ from each other. Also, Beamish has expanded his definition to include the important part of awareness preceding the state where actual transactions or trade takes place.

2.2. Theories of internationalization

Internationalization research-level began in the late 1970s when academicians believed that companies could develop optimal models when they go into international markets by assessing the risks and analyzing their costs (Buckley and Casson,1976). The internationalization process can be defined as the spread of corporate operations outside of each country's border (Erkutlu and Yiğit, 2001: 149) while significantly contributing to the nation's economic growth.

Some factors, for example, knowledge about foreign languages, understanding of cultures of international markets, as well as adaptations to the legal system, encourage a firm's export interaction in the internationalization process. In addition, having good communication skills with international consumers and international market knowledge play a significant part in the globalization process, as suggested by Diamantopoulos et al. (1990) and Sullivan and Bauerschmidt (1988).

Moreover, another significant factor that increases the performance of firms is the intelligence of foreign markets in terms of having better knowledge about international market participants (Hsu and Pereira, 2008). Also, having enough knowledge about economic, legal, and international market infrastructure, as well as culture in foreign markets, are critical factors in the firm's process of internationalizing (Leonidou and Theodoslou,2004). In accordance with (Morgan & Katsikeas,1998), not having knowledge about the target country's exports will cause instability and challenges when entering international markets.

The efficiency and orientation of firms in international markets, their level of globalization, and their foreign market experience increase the export performance of companies (Dean et al., 2000). Likewise, the strategic aspect, process of exporting, and the current level of globalization have an influence on the success of these firms, as suggested by Kurt and Bilge (2016). Therefore, International expansion is expected to increase companies ' performance in foreign markets (Bolaji & Chris, 2014).

A company will grow in the home markets when the expenses in the market exceed the expanses in foreign markets Buckley (1990); this generally occurs if the home markets are saturated. Companies would like to expand locally if it is possible. Nonetheless, when home transaction expenses are high because of inadequate domestic demand, the companies will be able to expand globally (Buckley, 1993). When markets are sufficiently big, the companies will prefer to grow in home markets unless the cost of a further increase in the local market outweighs the expansion in the global market.

There are numerous theories available to explain the internationalization process of companies. But, in our literature review, four major approaches have been discussed, namely: the stage approach, the network approach, the internationalization entrepreneurship approach, and the born-global theory (see figure:1). In the stage approach, two prominent schools that support the stage approaches are the Uppsala model and Innovation-related models. Therefore, we will focus mainly on each theory one by one as we go by;

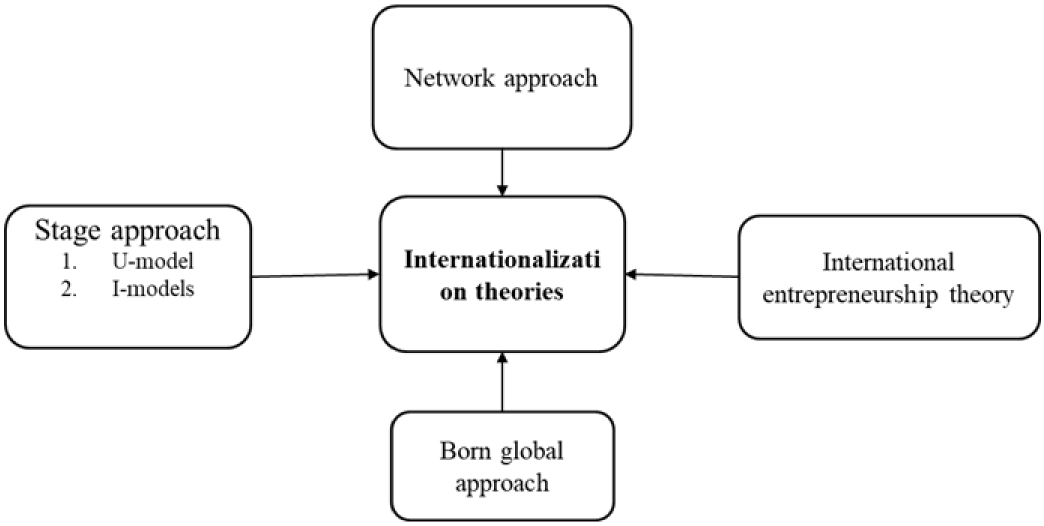


Figure 1 Theories of internationalization

2.3. Stage model

According to Coviello and McAuley (1999), this model regards internationalization as a straightforward and sequential process comprising a series of distinctive stages. Two prominent schools that support stage approaches are mainly the Uppsala model and Innovation-related models. These mentioned models view internationalization as a gradual engagement decision based on perceptions, expectations, experiences, managerial capabilities, and other factors.

2.3.1. Uppsala internationalization process model (U-model)

The most frequently used model within the internationalization literature is the Uppsala model. It originated from work conducted by a group of scholars at Uppsala University in Sweden, namely; Johanson and Vahlne in 1977 and 1990, respectively, and also with Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul in 1975. It is broader than other internationalization models, as it might apply to a large range of business sizes and international activity; in other words, it does not specifically concentrate on exporting by SMEs, and maybe the prospect of such wider applicability has contributed to its popularity. On the other hand, the Uppsala model is based on the slow growth, incorporation & exploitation of international knowledge of the market. In contrast, the lack of information in international markets represents a significant obstacle to international operations.

The model was based on findings of small Nordic producing companies. Johanson and Vahlne (1977) have observed that companies are progressively increasing their effort to obtain market knowledge in foreign countries in order to minimize risk. The decision to increase involvement in a foreign market is affected by the experience in the previous market and the current market activity (Johanson & Vahlne, 1977). While initially referred to as the Uppsala model, there are different names to express the model, namely: the internationalization model, Nordic model, internationalization process model, or the establishment chain model.

As suggested by Johanson and Vahlne (1977), two measures of international expansion have been recognized in the frequently used model, i.e., the Uppsala model, namely the psychic distance and establishment chain. Uppsala's model assumes that the wider the distance between home and host markets, the most challenging it is for companies to collect information correctly. The physic distance can simply be explained as follows "the sum of factors preventing the flow of information from and to the market. These include differences in language, education, business practices, culture, and industrial development."

Many studies have affirmed that companies are internationalizing in accordance with the Uppsala model with the idea of internationalization happens in an arranged, orderly and predictable way (Pillania, 2008; Anderson & Buvik, 2002; Bjorkman & Forsgren, 2000; Bilkey & Tesar, 1977). In particular, when analyzing SMEs, researchers recommend that the internationalization of firms happens in gradual steps, where with each step, firms increase their willingness to enter newly established markets. Likewise, suggest internationalization to be methodical in that companies choose respective markets according to the degree of entrepreneurial commitment they have.

A study backed the Uppsala model in analyzing the selection of international markets by companies based on their geographical, cultural distances, and economic between domestic markets. Research scholars observed companies be internationalizing near geographical market places, as suggested by Johanson and Vahlne (1977). The concept of geographical distance between countries is the main factor that affects firms when they are preparing to enter a foreign country (Ojala & Tyrvainen, 2007). In addition, geographical distance affects market entry selection of the firms, and for these firms, the most attractive markets to enter were the close geographic markets, particularly if those geographically close markets also shared close cultures between them (Alexander et al., 2007).

In the Uppsala model, companies are conservative in nature and risk-aversive, and their aim first is to internationalize to close markets, geographically and culturally, and use simple entry methods, such as exporting. As the company experience learn and acquire further knowledge over time about international markets and internationalization, companies tend to enhance their existence in the markets, which has already been with new operation methods. The internationalization of companies following the Uppsala model has increased slowly but steadily over time. Usually, companies in traditional industries prefer to follow the Uppsala model direction.

Furthermore, economic distance is another factor affecting companies' market selection. (Johnson & Tellis, 2008) argue that if there are economic distances among countries, they can also translate to companies' financial success. When companies go into nations that are economically near to the homeland, they recognize their market better, and for that reason, they have no problem adapting to the local markets.

In addition to the geographical and economic distances, some research back the idea that cultural distances affect market access decisions (Moon & Park, 2011, Ojala & Tyrvainen, 2007, Kogut & Singh, 1988). In particular, it was introduced that the closeness of culture to the domestic market was more advantageous for exporting companies; goods that are exported from the domestic market to the foreign host markets are most welcomed by those customers who have the required, same taste (Sherriff et al., 2010). Moreover, cultural factors affect the selection of entry mode of firms, whereas when the gap in culture is too high, companies are most likely to use market entry techniques that are lower, for example; a joint venture over a higher control technique like an acquisition (Kogut & Singh, 1988).

The Uppsala model demonstrates internationalization as a progressive process that relies on an experiential understanding of international markets by the company. Based on the model's implications, the observed high uncertainty of internationalization leads companies to start a business with the nearest country to them physically and only with little resource commitments. With rising international trade experience and a better understanding of the international markets, companies enter into foreign countries that are highly different from their countries and are expecting to start a business with international countries. Companies from Sweden, for instance, are more willing to export to Norway and Germany before they start making direct investments in countries like Japan and USA.

Defining "near market knowledge" as a company's way of creating information by functioning in business markets that are physically close to them in that, companies are more likely to enter into foreign markets where they share common cultural and economic background than their domestic market, suggesting that economic background and cultural distance of the home nation might not impact decision making on internationalization (Mitra & Golder,2002).

The Uppsala model presumes that a company undergoes a slow internationalization process (Bilkey & Tesar, 1977). The Uppsala theory considers the internationalization of a company as a step-by-step process through which it enters the global market (Johanson & Wiedersheim 1975). However, reports from the traditional export study show that this step-by-step trend of developmental exports is mainly related to the company, which has limited information on foreign markets. Exporters are also affected by the lack of information in foreign markets, which impacts their performance in the international market (Leonidou & Theodosiou, 2004).

According to Bilkey and Tesar (1977) and Reid (1983), the Uppsala model of internationalization is about companies moving through various levels when they start their internationalization, beginning with no export interest, continuing through export, and then through the mode of foreign direct investment like joint ventures and entirely-owned subsidiaries in production and also in sales. This model consists of stages in which a higher level is more experienced/involved than the previous stage, and more international market engagement is required in each subsequent step than the previous one.

Figure 2 Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul,1975 and Johanson & Vahlne,1977

Figure2 shows that Uppsala is a step-by-step model whereby the firm goes ahead to the following stage only after they successfully complete the previous stage. In continuation, firms are recognized for their four different stages of the internationalization process. In the first step, firms go into foreign markets but do not export or sell in foreign markets.

In the second step, firms start export activities into foreign markets via independent agents; they still concentrate on producing and conducting business in their home country. However, they seek opportunities in international markets through agents because they don't know how the market will react due to the lack of trade testing in the overseas market.

In the third step, firms start committing their resources to the international markets by introducing sales subsidiaries; this means in this stage, firms are opening their own offices in foreign markets so as to provide more direct sales, unlike the previous stage where the activities were handled by independent agents. Last but not least, in the final step, firms start manufacturing and producing facilities in the foreign markets but in a more established manner due to the experience learned throughout the stages.

Uppsala model has two main components, namely market knowledge, and market commitment. Market knowledge may be acquired by working in a market environment; as a result, the model concentrates on experimental knowledge (attained through learning the required market).

When it comes to speed, a company's speed of globalization will not be fast and incremental if the host market knowledge is not enough, and as long as the market knowledge in the host country goes up, a company's speed of globalization will increase too. Likewise, host market knowledge can impact a company's market selection. When the host market knowledge of a company is low, firms will be obliged to pick up markets with minimal risks (i.e., near their countries), and after a company acquires knowledge through experience, they hereby increase their dedication to foreign markets. Comparatively, when firms' knowledge of the market is low, companies will select nations that are close to them geographically, economically, and culturally but progressively go to nations that are far away from their country.

Referenced by Johanson and Vahlne (1977), companies will increase their foreign market commitment when they have acquired knowledge from the current business activities worked on individually, and that determines the speed of the firm, their market selection, and their entry mode.

According to the Uppsala model, a company will internationalize by taking gradual steps in the market commitment dimensions, along with the cultural and geographical dimensions, with the following three exceptions: first of all, if the company has huge resources, the assumptions of commitments are not large. As a result, bigger companies or companies with excess resources can take greater foreign measures. Secondly, if market situations are stable and uniform, related market information can be obtained not only through experience but also in different ways from the experience. Thirdly, according to Johanson & Vahlne (1990) and Johanson &

Associates (1994), if the company has significant experience in a market with similar circumstances, it is expected to transfer that experience to a particular market.

Figure 3 shows the four fundamental concepts of the Uppsala model and how these four main concepts are categorized into state and change aspects.

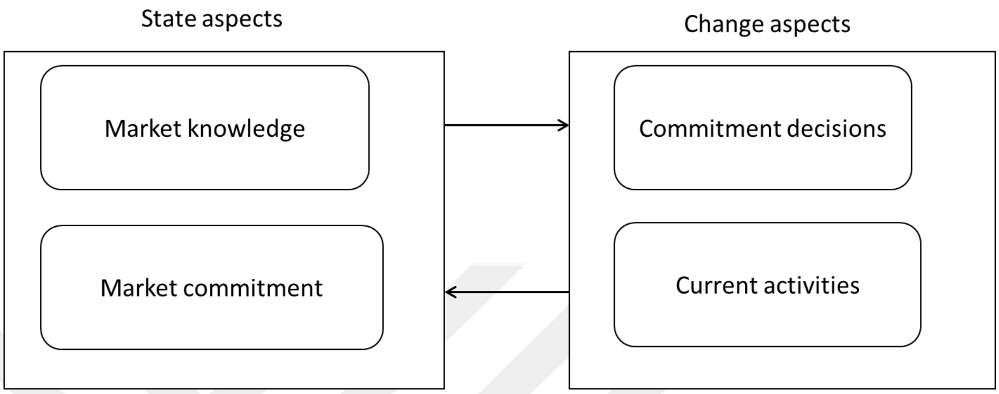


Figure 3 Company's cycle of internationalization, Johan & Vahlne 1990

- **State aspects**

In figure 3, state aspects are categorized into two, namely: market knowledge and market commitment. Market Knowledge: is described as understanding the market environment and also emphasizes the various ways a company obtains knowledge, either by individual experience or other learning techniques, as suggested by Penrose (1995). Knowledge is equated to human capital, and the better knowledge a company has when entering a new market, the more valuable the resource, and as a result, the company will be more committed to the specific market (Johanson & Associates, 1994).

This market knowledge may either be categorized as specific or general. Beginning with general market knowledge, which is about knowing business marketing concepts, tactics, and techniques that also involve common traits of different types of consumers in terms of their perception, taste, and attitude. However, specific market knowledge scopes on special qualities of specified national markets such as cultural trends, market structure, and most crucially, the individual features, firm characteristics, and their employees (Johanson & Associates, 1994).

Additionally, specific and general knowledge is required when committing to foreign markets. Specified market knowledge is attained by learning from particular foreign markets, whereby general knowledge of markets is the act of learning from different markets or transferable.

The number of resources committed by a firm and the level of commitment of a firm are the major elements influencing market commitment. The capital of investment in the market is seen to refer to the number of resources such as advertising, organization, and employees. The level of commitment can be described as the challenges of exploiting other uses of resources compared to the resource the firm already has. When these resources are special and unique to a particular market, the higher the commitment level it brings.

- **Change aspects**

Current activities of a firm and commitment decisions are the subgroups of change aspects, as shown in figure 3. Knowledge and experience can be gained through current business activities that are currently in use, and from this gained experience, the company can acknowledge and perceive opportunities that lead to market commitment. When the current activities are successfully recorded, the market will encourage the company to enter other markets.

When committing to a market, the decisions applied are referred to as commitment decisions. These decisions are applied according to the difficulties and opportunities in the current market at hand. Experience from the activity of the particular market is seen to be dependent on the opportunities and the difficulties of the awareness level.

Since the 1970s, when Uppsala was introduced, there have been questions regarding its usefulness, and many empirical tests have been made to investigate its validity. There are many studies that help the process of internationalization of companies in different ways, such as the speed of internationalization and the selection of market entry, as mentioned by the Uppsala model. However, Forsgen (2002) questions the Uppsala model, claiming that the Upsala model is restricted in its capacity to define specific models of internationalization behavior of companies. *"It has been argued that the model builders apply a narrow interpretation of learning than that allowed by the literature, which limits the ability of the model to explain certain forms of internationalization behavior."*

Andersen (1993) criticized the frequently used Uppsala model for providing no understanding of how the process of internationalization actually starts and for not describing how experiential knowledge of an international market impacts the commitment of resources to that international market. He argued that the innovation models have unperceivable concepts and also for containing insignificant explanations of the internationalization mechanisms.

According (Andersen, 1993) assessed the Uppsala model and innovation-related models by arguing that the Uppsala model was unable to describe the way the internationalization process started and the way empirical knowledge of external markets impacts the engagement of resources, whereas the innovation-related models involved unobservable notions and only contained insignificant explanations relating to the internationalization process (Andersen 1993, Oviatt & McDougall 1992).

According to Melin (1992), the Uppsala model's main weakness is putting a lot of importance on psychic distances, which is a way to measure how near two or more nations are when comparing their cultural similarities. Another weakness of the Uppsala model was also spotted by Chetty and Campbell-Hunt (2003) when they argued that the stages model was too rigid as it doesn't give firms the opportunity to internationalize at different rates.

During the internationalization process of firms, there are two significant mechanisms which are franchising and licensing (Luostarinen & Welch, 1997). According to Stanworth et al. (2004), franchising has given firms a way to internationalize with low costs.

2.3. Innovation related models of internationalization (I-models)

The innovation-related model is one of the most widely used models to explain the internationalization process (Rogers,1962). This innovation-related model considers the firms' internationalization to be a step-by-step process that is similar or comparable to the acceptance of a new product, while export decision-making is a process of adopting innovation that helps the firm in its gradual performance (Andersen, 1993; Rogers, 1962).

Furthermore, this model explains internationalization as a gradual process, with each level representing more experience and engagement than the one before it, and each stage is regarded as an invention for the company (Gankema, Snuif, and Zward, 2000). However, the number of internationalization stages differs among scholars following the I-models (Vissak, 2003). The export ratio in relation to the firm's turnover is related to several stages of the I-Models. This relationship depicts the extent of the company's involvement in exporting (Gankema, Snuif, and Zwart, 2000).

Some scholars developed innovation-related models that were shortened into three stages during the 1970s. In stage one, firms typically start to globalize by exporting on an irregular basis. In stage two, they start exporting on a regular basis to a country that is "geographically" closer to them. Finally, in stage three, they export to more "geographically" distant nations, gradually increasing their engagement (Bilkey & Tesar, 1977). In addition, each stage of the process is an innovation for the firm.

These innovation-related models are backed by a number of researchers who regard the concept of internationalizing to be an innovation for companies and thus present a different perspective on internationalization's progressive development (Cavusgil, 1980, Reid, 1981 and Czinkota, 1982). However, the innovation-related models from (Cavusgil, 1980 & Reid 1981) regarding the decision to begin foreign activities and the motive to export products are viewed differently from the models stated by Czinkota, 1982) and Bilkey and Tesar (1977).

Cavulgil (1980) proposed a model which deals with five stages of the export process namely; reactive involvement, pre-involvement, active involvement, limited involvement, and commitment. As suggested by Collinson and Houlden (2005), the I-Model describes how the internationalization process starts, the purpose of the decision-makers, and the variables affecting the decisions. Whereas, Reid (1981) also presented a five-stage model, emphasizing that the entrepreneurs' attitude, the experience they have in foreign markets, and their expectations in the future have a major and critical influence on a firm's internationalization.

Reuber and Fischer (1997) believe that the entrepreneur's education level and foreign experience or the firm's management team might give an advantage for SMEs to jump the first two steps of internationalization. As a result, their involvement in the foreign market and export activities might be characterized as innovation of the firm internally.

The various steps in I-Models can be roughly divided into three stages, as suggested by Leonidou and Katsikeas (1996). Stage one is the pre-export stage, where a firm is interested in growing domestically by gathering market knowledge and evaluating the suitability of exporting activity; the firm has begun exporting on a limited basis; however, it's no longer exporting due to interruption in the export process. Stage two is an export trial stage: When a company has the potential to expand its operations into other markets, it begins to export sporadically, and the final stage is an advanced export stage: The company exports on a regular basis and has extensive expertise in international markets and also the firm considers other ways of commitments into foreign markets.

According to Gankema, Snuif, and Zwart (2000), based on an evaluation of Cavusgil's model (1980), the level of foreign commitment of SMEs will improve over time, but there will differ substantially from case to case. Some SMEs jump straightway onto the next stage, whereas others might stop the internationalization process before reaching the last stage in order to avoid being overly dependent on foreign markets. (Torres, 1999) suggested that SMEs increase their export gradually at the early stages, and the internationalization process can be noticed in SMEs at their development stage or even at the start of their existence.

As suggested by Kalkan et al. (2014), in recent times, innovation has been viewed as a necessity for a company's process due to market competitiveness, internationalization, and rapid technological advancements. Innovation has an impact on the performance of export companies (Hamelink & Opdenakker, 2019; and

Bayraktar et al.,2017). They stated that a company's development is affirmative to the innovation in the manufacturing and marketing of products besides development through the firm's techniques. Companies using the advanced level of technology can develop a large number of new products in foreign markets. As a result, such firms are more likely to organize higher exports than companies that do not engage in innovation activities.

Technological capabilities refer to the firm's acquired technological knowledge, which the firm can use when making new products or services, as well as the improvement of existing ones. The technology skills of the groups or the individuals, the routines and processes used, and some other technological skills (such as machines or knowledge and production systems) which support the company in its path-dependent technology capability are some examples of technological capabilities. The company's technological skill enables the creation of stocks of innovative technology and science-based knowledge, which can be used to generate revenue via patent licenses (Mansfield, 1984). The company's technological skill also enables it to spot opportunities to use its knowledge when making new products and, more crucially, to make use of external science-based study results and other information (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). Companies with bigger technological skills frequently have more efficient methods for creating and attempting new product concepts than those with less established technological skills.

As suggested by Vernon (1966) and Krugman (1979), old literature theories represented a single-way relationship between a firm's innovation techniques and exporting. These early product cycle models are product differentiation or innovation that led to competitive benefits which allow companies to compete in foreign markets.

This everyday relationship is also supported by a new generation of neo-technology theories (Greenhalgh & Taylor, 1994).

As noted by (Bleaney & Wakelin 2002), there are several types of research indicating how innovation drives exports. Especially in the United Kingdom and Ireland, innovation has a positive effect on exports; while companies are active in industries with high research and development intensity, they are more likely to export. Wakelin (1998) also found a statistically significant relationship between innovation and exports. She explains the positive correlation between firms' innovativeness and exports as evidence of firms' innovation's functioning in boosting export growth. In addition to this, Love and Roper (2001) found that firms with high research and development capabilities are most likely to export. Having a bigger resource for technologies to export markets is a concept that may result in companies' enhancement of their knowledge foundation. Thus, a company's exporting increasing rate could assist in increasing the firm's research and development capabilities.

2.4. Network theory

The network theory of the internationalization process was established in the 1980s when it was clear that many companies utilize different relationships to ease their globalization activities Johanson and Mattsson 1988. According to Johnsen and Johnsen (1999), a network is a group of participants that involves people, departments, or business and their strategic links to other participants like community, family as well as financial or business partnerships.

Mort and Weerawardena (2006) as well as Collinson and Houlden (2005), argued that another effort to describe the internationalization process of firms in the network theory highlights the influence of firms' relationships informally as well as formally regarding firms' development and internationalization (Coviello & Munro, 1995).

Emerson and Cook (1978) describe networking to be the intersection between some groups of business connections. The firm enlarges its relationships with other participants of the network and eventually grows its activity across foreign countries until it becomes global by creating financial, technological, and other market networks. In addition to the previous definitions, Coviello and Munro (1997) determine that the level and the shape of internationalization are affected by various kinds of relationships developed in the network. When businesses are examined individually, complementarily and competitiveness can be seen in the internationalization process. Firms in the network are collectively relaying cooperative and competitive relationships.

The network theory appears to be at the heart of small companies' internationalization process. A lot of operations within the internationalization process rely largely on both small firms' and entrepreneurs' networks, particularly when it comes to obtaining market information. In addition to this, networks are often considered a source of opportunity, specifically for entrepreneurial firms. The majority of the interviewed small firms and entrepreneurs believe that the ability to form business networks is critical for companies seeking to internationalize.

According to network theory, companies' internationalization is a natural growth of penetration into the foreign country because of the network ties with overseas individuals and companies (Johanson & Mattsson,1988). In other words, a network is considered to be a major source where entrepreneurs can attain knowledge and market information that is typically gained during the long run due to the lack of networks in the host country. As a result, the network serves as a link mechanism that enables rapid internationalization (Mitgwe, 2006). This network strategy brings the involved participants close to one another by utilizing the knowledge gained by the company through its strong relationships with customers, suppliers, the industry, and other market participants.

The network is a significant factor for companies regarding their sizes, allowing firms to connect operations hence tying resources altogether. However, the network is a significant factor for firms that are born global as well as small, medium-sized firms whose resources are limited (Mort & Weerawardena, 2006). A firm's relationships can contribute to the company's success by helping to find new market opportunities in a foreign country and can also perform to build market knowledge, as referenced by Coviello and Munro (1995).

Networks promote firms to foreign markets through a gathering of institutional, business, and globalization knowledge, which gives the important intelligence which supports the process of networks (Eriksson et al. 200, Mejri and Katsuhiro, 2010). Using these networks, firms can acquire knowledge about international business so they can be conscious of rules and regulations in foreign markets. Moreover, they provide connections to the running of business and market intelligence which supports the firm's decision on when and how to globalize, as said by Johanson and Mattsson (1988).

As stated by Coviello and McAuley (1999), networking can help small and medium-sized firms to decrease their risk when entering into foreign markets also networking can facilitate solving a firm's size problems as it enables the business to develop a relationship with successful companies; therefore, reducing the risk (Madhok,1997).

According to network theory by Coviello & Munro (1995) and Glückler (2006), the markets where networks between a number of participants, such as customers, suppliers, competitors, producers, and private as well as public support agents meet a variety of purposes, including lowering the cost of production or transaction, providing to the development of new market knowledge, gaining partial control over the participant, bridging the gap between unrelated third parties, and assisting partners in mobilizing against a third party (Glückler, 2006).

A company's entry mode decisions and market selection are affected by its network partners. Therefore, network partners are critical in a company's foreign market entry. As noted by Glückler (2006), the network theory claims that entry to the foreign market is co-dependent on the networks' position compared to the host market's institutional, economic, or cultural factors (Mtigwe, 2006).

As referenced by Johanson and Mattsson (1988), companies create and grow market positions in the host country with respect to other players in a foreign market network. Companies that operate abroad engage in local networks with the primary purpose of developing business networks in a foreign country. The company's position in the domestic network influences its process of globalization since that position impacts the company's ability to mobilize their resource within the network.

As suggested by Madsen and Servais (1997), the first move a company should take to internationalize is to understand how the market works as well as its environmental circumstances with the help of the company's network in foreign markets. They also claim when companies go into a foreign market, the strength and number of networks attained during the relationship get stronger, assisting their international extension.

As claimed by Johanson and Mattson in 1988, when a company goes into international markets, it gains relationships in those foreign markets. This can be attained in three different ways as suggested by Johanson and Mattson (1988), the internationalization process is produced within the network through business contacts with foreign nations in three different stages, which are called: extension, penetration, and integration as high

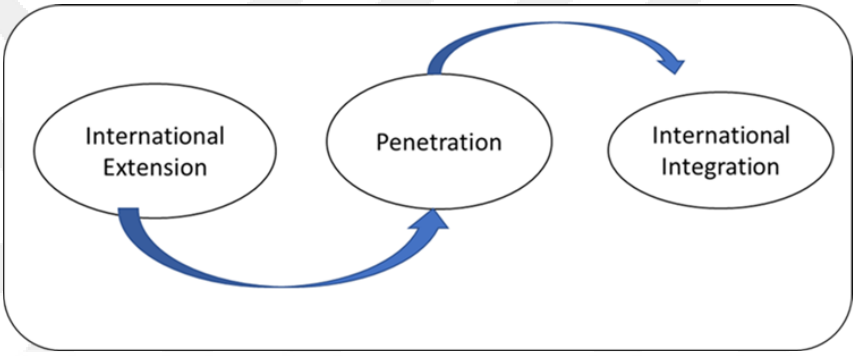


Figure 4 Johanson and Mattsson, 1988

As seen in figure 4, extension is the firm's first stage in building networks on its own or connecting to an already established network. The company will engage in new investments such as knowledge and relationships through contracts and partnerships to bind the company with its international partners. The term penetration explains the expansion of a firm's network position, and firms continue to grow their network together and increase resource engagement. Integration is a more sophisticated step in which a company connects to multiple networks and coordinates the activities of the various relationships that branch out and connect to networks already established in different markets. Furthermore, if the company engages in these three activities, its networks are built, and the company continues gaining access to the market and its resources.

Johanson and Mattson (1988, p. 212) acknowledged four different stages of internationalization that companies' internationalization strategies related to the requirement of knowledge improvement and relationship adaption in networks. These stages are namely: Early starter, lonely international, late starter, and international among others as you can see in table 1.

Table 1 Internationalization of network approach,

Degree of internationalization of firms	Internationalization degree level of markets		
		Low	**High**
	Low	Early starter stage	Late starter stage
	High	Lonely international stage	The international among others

Source: Johanson and Mattson, 1988

Due to fewer relationships between international companies the early starter firm has less knowledge of international markets and for them to reach new foreign buyers, companies usually turn to experienced domestic distributors and suppliers. The company typically begins foreign business by exporting their products to their partners and this will make firms get more experience in foreign markets. Resource adjustments are critical for the firm's internationalization because the company must enhance production capacity to meet demands for the new market and at the same time enhance psychic distance and knowledge improvement in newly entered markets.

Although the market in which the lonely international firm is located is not high, it is highly international by itself. By using their experiences, the companies can enter new networks and expand their activities in foreign markets. The late starter firm has foreign relations that will act as a pull force for global expansion. The firm is usually attracted to internationalization by its foreign partners such as buyers and suppliers. As a result, activity coordination and resource adjustment are important for internationalization. For the international among the others, it is a part of well-developed and competitive networks whose members operate primarily in foreign markets. Because they have knowledge and experience, it is easier for these companies to establish sales subsidiaries, as they require to organize activities in various markets. These firms have strong ties to global networks that offer opportunities.

Usually, the network approach adds a complementary aspect to existing internationalization models and presumes that internationalization tactics adopted by businesses are affected by their location and condition in the network. As a result, business relationships with the network can trigger, help and speed up the process of a firm's internationalization.

The main problem affecting the network model is the involvement of many participants in the network due to many different points of view provided by the involved parties on how to structure the network referenced by Håkansson & Johansson, (1992), in Johanson & Associates, (1994). Also, when the company goes global its problem increases regarding the involved participant such as the untrustworthy supplier (Hollensen, 2001).

2.6. Internationalization of entrepreneurship theory

Internationalization can be explained as a process of increasing participation in foreign activities, which typically takes place through collaboration and networking as mentioned by Welch and Luostarinen (1988). According to Dana et al. (2000, p. 1), the Internationalization of entrepreneurial activity is, therefore, a combination of internationalization and entrepreneurship that includes decision-making on the coordination of limited resources across foreign boundaries.

Entrepreneurship can be explained as individuals or groups that create opportunities to produce goods and services for other people in the market (Mitchell, 2002, pp. 179, 182). In addition to this, entrepreneurship is about people who recognize opportunities in the market where other individuals don't, and then try to take advantage of these opportunities through different ways of organizing, regardless of the resources available (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990).

McDougall and Oviatt (1997, 2000) define international entrepreneurship as creative, proactiveness, and risk-taking characteristics that go beyond foreign borders and are used to provide opportunities in firms. This approach creates knowledge from the perspective of a firm's internationalization through learning the active position regarding entrepreneurs' dynamic process of resources and competencies to acquire the international markets.

Entrepreneurial opportunity is explained as a condition in which entrepreneurs can make higher profits when they sell their products and services for a cost that is higher than the price of their goods as suggested by Shane and Venkataraman (2000). Some features of the internationalization entrepreneurship theory are significant for small firms. Small firms regard growth opportunities and market opportunities to be the important factor to introduce internationalization. Other important factors that are important for small firms are entrepreneurial activity and risk-seeking of entrepreneurs since these factors assist them in identifying possibilities to develop outside national borders.

According to Gurtoo and Williams (2009) and Hessels et al. (2008), When it comes to entrepreneurial motivations, considering two different types of entrepreneurial individuals namely: opportunity base entrepreneurs and necessity-based entrepreneurs. These necessity entrepreneurs are individuals that began an entrepreneurial business due to a lack of alternatives and also it is clear that necessity entrepreneurs start with less investment and knowledge, whereby opportunity entrepreneurs were led by profitable exploitation of identified opportunities.

The key motivating factor that drives entrepreneurial behavior is an individual's perception of opportunities (Neill et al., 2017). As a result, the differences in an individual's perception play a role in deciding whether or not to pursue an entrepreneurial opportunity. As suggested by Shane and Venkataraman (2000), all entrepreneurs will not be capable of utilizing possibilities that are similar to the approximated value. With regard to these decisions, it engages in assessing the relationship between opportunity value and costs of generating that value and the cost of generating values through different means. The entrepreneurs' possibilities are frequently the beginning stage of the entrepreneurial activities which are a distinguishing factor of entrepreneurial behavior analysis (Santos et al., 2017).

As explained by Bohlmann et al. (2017), there is an affirmative partnership between entrepreneurship opportunity viewed and entrepreneurship activity. Specifically, these findings show individuals that see market possibilities hence eventually being able to participate in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs' opportunity perception contributes more to economic development as compared to the perception of necessity as suggested by Beynon et al. (2016). Entrepreneurship theory is an action of distinguishing possibilities with characteristics of entrepreneurs, collective relationships, and knowledge of entrepreneurial awareness in businesses.

Hsu et al., (2013), considered later generational individuals to likely engage in export activity compared to old entrepreneurs (Saeed & Ziaulhaq, 2018). Entrepreneur’s age is considered to be a primary factor that affects export orientation because young entrepreneurs are more globally oriented compared to old entrepreneurs (Oviatt et al.,1993). In addition, as noted by Autio et al., (2000) it's worth noting that, in comparison to older entrepreneurs, younger entrepreneurs have benefited from new technology in the last few decades. New generation entrepreneurs would benefit from these technologies as they would be quicker and more energetic in reaction to entrepreneurs' opportunities. In addition to this, Ziaulhaq and Saeed (2018) found that later-generation entrepreneurs are open to an upcoming business environment, which helps them to develop their skills, and abilities and develop their thinking about globalization.

Nonetheless, elder entrepreneurs do not have the mental and physical capability and that is why sometimes they are incapable to change their psychological approaches effectively, which will lead them to produce a low level of information-associated ability in regard to the younger entrepreneurs (Hsu et al., 2013). As a result, these factors may limit older entrepreneurs' cognitive abilities to comprehend international culture, rules, and customer behavior and probably influence the globalization process (Hsu et al., 2013).

As noted by Álamo Vera and Suárez Ortega (2005) high intellectual entrepreneurs will be more likely to recognize new opportunities and be interested in foreign markets, hence, well-educated entrepreneurs will be able to examine both advantages and disadvantages of foreign market operations. Many studies such as Ganotakis and Love (2012), Ibeh (2003), and Samiee & Walters (2000) viewed, that the better the education level of entrepreneurs, the greater the impact they have on orientation internationally with regard to business speed and functionality. Furthermore, these researchers found that entrepreneur business education has substantially facilitated companies to reach good functionality performance-wise and competitiveness.

According to Kundu and Katz (2003), a well-educated entrepreneur with a professional degree will be more business-minded and hence more willing to explore international markets than entrepreneurs who do not have an education degree. They also claim that the business starter level of education affects the realization of internationalization and global intentions in the beginning stage of the business.

According to Capelleras and Greene (2008), entrepreneurs that have attained a wide range of education are likely to participate in export operations through their aspirations within international markets. Therefore, due to their attained levels of education, they are more knowledgeable and have the ability to see the opportunities, process, and later examine the gained knowledge. In addition, highly knowledgeable entrepreneurs come up with new concepts due to their high levels of confidence in themselves and eventually develop their new business locally as well as internationally (Bandura1978).

Moreover, examining the different effects on businesses and technological knowledge may lead to a different effect on the function ability of companies as mentioned by Love and Ganotakis (2012). Also, Samiee and Walters (2000), noted that individuals' knowledge assists with the growth of necessary managerial roles that lead to functional foreign performance. In addition to this, Ganotakis and Love (2012), argued that the background education of entrepreneurs in business analysis leads to special advertising techniques and efficiently supports the quickly evolving advancement of technology to benefit the possibilities in the foreign market and effectively reach a high level of export performance. Similarly, Marvel and Lumpkin

(2007), as well Ganotakis and Love, (2012) and Cavusgil and Knight (2004) suggested that technical education exclusively deals with the advancement of technology in making new products and processes and develops company performance in the foreign market.

Furthermore, entrepreneurs with high levels of education will continue to enlarge their mental attitude that will enhance their business activities to better acknowledge the differences in their environment as noted by Venkataraman & Shane (2000) and Baron et al. (2006). Using this complete better knowledge, entrepreneurs might divert existing resources to take appropriate steps regarding existing prospective possibilities and turn them into meaningful possibilities to reach the present and near-future goals locally and internationally as mentioned by Sarasvathy (2001).

Furthermore, these entrepreneurs with a higher level of education will notice prospective opportunities faster than entrepreneurs with a low level of education since they can easily identify relevant information and knowledge faster as noted by Arenius and De Clercq (2005). Education assists in creating relationships with individuals who have a higher level of education like the entrepreneurs, thus allowing individuals to gain important network relationships (Capelleras et al. 2011). With regard to this, education will expand entrepreneurs' relationships, increasing their capacity to acquire the required knowledge and identify new possibilities (Drucker 1995; Arenius and De Clercq 2005).

Furthermore, a high level of education will offer entrepreneurs a wide range of knowledge and information, allowing them to optimize their capacity to connect this information to prospective opportunities (Cohen and Levinthal 1990). Many high intellectual entrepreneurs will pull in their knowledge skills to further understand the necessary information to mimic the various parts of potential possibilities in the new foreign market.

Besides the entrepreneur's education level and age, another factor that support the export entrepreneurship of small firms is the skills of the entrepreneur. Nevertheless, several researchers examined the connection between entrepreneurs' language skills and export behavior, stressing their role in the beginning and development of global activity as referenced by Stoian et al. (2011) and Shih & Wickramasekera (2011). In addition to this Ruzzier et al. (2007) and Álamo Vera and Suárez Ortega (2005) suggested that individual communication skills help companies to interact with international consumers, build interactive relationships, and have a better comprehension of activities in the global market.

Shih and Wickramasekera (2011) discovered that international communication skills have a substantial influence on the decision of exports among other entrepreneurial features. As a result, entrepreneurs who are fluent in international communication will engage in foreign markets and are predicted to do better in terms of export performance (Zucchella et al., 2007).

The increase in international networks led many companies to become globalized and it makes it easier to get over the challenges of participating in foreign markets as suggested by Zain and Ng (2006), Chetty and Holm (2000), and Coviello & Munro (1997) so as to protect their role in the foreign markets as noted by Johanson and Mattson (1988). Networks assists individuals to identify market possibilities, gaining market resources, and coming up with plans for SMEs so they can internationalize (Zain and Ng, 2006).

Furthermore, many researchers such as Bell (1995) and Coviello & Munro (1997) have underlined the dormant position of networks in beginning globalization. Also, a company’s early globalization process is influenced by social networks, and they found companies having significant relationships have reached good performance within foreign markets.

Moreover, networks can open new doors for entrepreneurs by offering market access, finance, distribution channels, and a huge range of relationships for internal and external developments as suggested by Coviello (2006) and Coviello (2006: p, 723). In addition to this, entrepreneurs' networks might have an impact on their ideas to find foreign business opportunities right from the start of the firm’s internationalization (Sharma & Blomstermo, 2003). They also describe how tight and long-lasting relationships open the way for early networks into foreign markets. In addition to this, Chung et al. (2000) claim that social relationships are necessary for the search for new business opportunities and foreign business partners. Furthermore, individual relationships and foreign networks provide entrepreneurs with the knowledge and tools required to perform business internationally.

According to some research such as (Braga et al., 2017, and Yeoh 2014) a company's decision to export might be affected by the special traits of goods supplied according to a better quality of the goods. Likewise, it was discovered to be one of the causes for companies to begin globalization activities in many studies as suggested by Bell (1995) and Crick and Choudhry (1997). Furthermore, the special product not only attracts buyers but also makes it easier in achieving competitive advantages in foreign markets. In addition to this, many types of research have also demonstrated that companies with unique products and technological capabilities can conduct foreign business activities quickly and produce better results (Braga et al., 2017, Beleska Spasova et al., 2012, Knight and Cavusgil, 1996).

Technological advances are viewed as an entrepreneurship action toward globalization (O’Cass & Weerawardena, 2009). They discovered that the advancement of technology is a primary force driving behind SMEs' foreign activity. In addition, according to Boermans and Roelfsema (2015), technological advances have a mediating influence on a firm's internationalization and its ability to perform better.

Risk aversion is the main problem regarding early analysis of entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurs are individuals that assess and take the risks of their companies, whereas individuals who perceive risk in the early stages are not likely to participate in entrepreneurship operations as suggested by Santos et al. (2017). However, (Santos et al., 2017) found that entrepreneurs' attributes in the early stage of entrepreneurial activity are less affected by risk perception. Similarly, research done by Özdemir and Karadeniz (2011) found that fear of failure does not affect at all on entrepreneurial activities in Turkey. In addition to this, when starting a new business, risk aversion decreases the entrepreneur's likelihood of becoming self-employed and also foreign business activities as noted. (2009).

2.7. Born global firms

The idea of born global companies was introduced for the first time by McKinsey and Co (1993) when conducting a survey for the Australian Manufacturing Council. It was used to explain companies that had reportedly gone through the globalization process faster than they had been expected for companies that have the same size, age, and type.

Some researchers such as Madsen et al. (2000) and Knight and Cavusgil (1996) definition of born global firms to be companies that sell their first product in international markets during the first 3 years of their founding and generate at least 25% of their revenue outside of their domestic market. This explanation is frequently used in the literature on born global companies. According to the born global definition employed in Denmark (Madsen et al., 2000), they define firms that are born global as a manufacturing company with a percentage of their exporting (relative to the total sales) of 25 percent or higher that began exporting within three years of its establishment.

In the last 30 years many empirical types of research on export regarding the behaviors of companies with difficulties to find exact export characteristics as reported in the old globalization. Many companies are now showing that they do not expand in gradual stages with respect to their foreign activity. Some researchers suggested that a few SMEs firms globalize as soon as in their first years of establishment (Yip et al., 2000, Coviello & Munro, 1995).

In the past three decades, a lot more studies have been conducted to examine the internalization of newly founded organizations that follow a global strategy from the start that differs from typical expectations (Knight, 1997; Oviatt and McDougall, 1994). The new phenomena provide a major new challenge to traditional globalization theory as mentioned by Knight and Cavusgil (1996). As you can see in table 1 some researchers call born global firms by many different names.

Table 2 The names of born global firms in the literature

Author's name	Firm's name
Rennie (1993), Knight & Cavusgil (1996), andMadsen and Servais (1997)	Born Global firms
Oviatt & McDougall (1994)	Global start-ups
Jolly (1992)	High Technology Start-ups
Lindqvist (1991)	Infant Multinationals
McDougall et al. (1994)	International new venture firms
Preece et al. (1999)	Instant internationals

Source: Own tabulation

Some new breed exporting firms are coming up in Australia that contribute significantly to the export expenditure of the country. Although the establishment of these firms does not contribute to the country's economic growth, the development of these exporters reflects two major trends in the 1990s: the first; small is attractive, and the second; incremental globalization is dead as noted by Cavusgil (1994, p.18).

There are various high technology enterprises among Australia's Born Global companies, but the more common companies use well-known technology. Some features of these companies are that they have had faster growth rates and experience than other firms in Australia, as well as a significant increase in export sales compared to domestic sales. The management's dedication to globalization is a crucial aspect in the explanation of the phenomena Born Global as noted by McKinsey and Company (1993).

Other important features are the company's ability to normalize production, marketing, and other aspects of its business in a global way rather than expected developing customized products. Cavusgil (1994) elaborates on the McKinsey reports as gradual globalization is dead and he stated that also small companies have the means to gain information about export markets and could start exporting as soon as a new company is established.

Born global companies have higher global market knowledge before first entering into foreign markets as suggested by Sharma and Blomstermo (2003) or even at the beginning (Rialp et al. 2005). Managers' knowledge is not the only knowledge preferred but the employee's knowledge as well, therefore the size of the company is a significant factor.

One essential resource is a company's advantage, which is achieved by product differentiation, well-advanced technology products, technical advancement, and characteristics of the managers (Rialp et al. 2005). According to Evangelista (2005), born global companies regard themselves as having or owning a source of competitive advantage in international markets with respect to their knowledge, unique product characteristics, cheaper pricing, and advanced technical service.

According to Madsen and Servais (1997), the model elevations in information technology and internationalization have made it easier for companies to acquire knowledge and apply it across nations. Therefore, companies with global marketing and entrepreneurial mindset develop the creativity required to compete in international marketplaces, globalizing from the start and expanding largely (Knight & Cavusgil, 2004).

Assumptions from the born global model involving three types of knowledge describe the company's quick globalization. The first assumption of the born global model is that managers have gained knowledge about foreign markets before the company expands internationally. In addition, managers gained the characteristics, skills, and required market experience through their work in the previous organizations before they get involved in the new company as noted by Knight and Cavusgil (2004) and Madsen et al. (1997). As a result, the company may begin selling its products at an early stage internationally.

According to Ovitatt and McDougall (1997), the second assumption of the model is that business knowledge has less effect on the company's globalization because the company is highly advanced in technology or has a high level of inventiveness. As a result, the goods from advanced technological firms meet less competitiveness between different nations, therefore clients will be well prepared in utilizing the goods even though they aren't perfectly used to their requirements thus by doing so, it allows the company to join a wide range of nations easily and quickly.

The third assumption of the model implies that institutional knowledge has less effect on the company's globalization. Economic changes like deregulation of industries and technological advancements have lowered the expenses, obstacles as well as knowledge use across nations as mentioned by Knight and Cavusgil (1996). As a result, a company can simply globalize into many nations. However, the majority of the companies begin exporting to nations that are geographically close to their countries (Chetty & Campbell-Hunt, 2004).

The born global model interests' companies which are doing business in the foreign market since their establishment and they differentiate relatively from other older companies. These born global companies have fewer shares in their home markets as compared to their shares in the international market (Wai and Noichangkid, 2012), whereby the Uppsala model regards the old companies tend to have rigid market shares domestically before they go into foreign markets.

According to (Gray, 1997), the growth of a born global company is mainly affected by networks which are a significant factor. Gray also stated that these networks existing in many different cultures are methods of enhancing market activities. Networks consider sharing knowledge about firms' opportunities, obstacles in the market, and their relevant partners in the market, while the informal network has a significant purpose for a growing economy in the country when checking for relevant partners.

According to Cavusgil (1996), the ability to get global networks is the main source of born global firms throughout global preparation and technology capabilities that are important factors to global strategic competency (Knight 2001). These global networks include suppliers, subcontractors, customers, and sellers. These born global companies can acquire market knowledge from their partners in foreign markets rather than getting the knowledge by themselves. To be able to get better international connections, these networks should be sufficiently extensive to help advertise in various markets (Chetty and Campbell-Hunt (2004).

International entrepreneurial orientation is more significant in the formation of born-global firms since it is a key driver of many factors for instance preparation of globalization, strategic capabilities, and the quality of technology as noted by Knight (2001). Basically, entrepreneurship layout relates to autonomy, innovation, risk-taking, effectiveness, and competitive drive, which are all required when the company interacts newly.

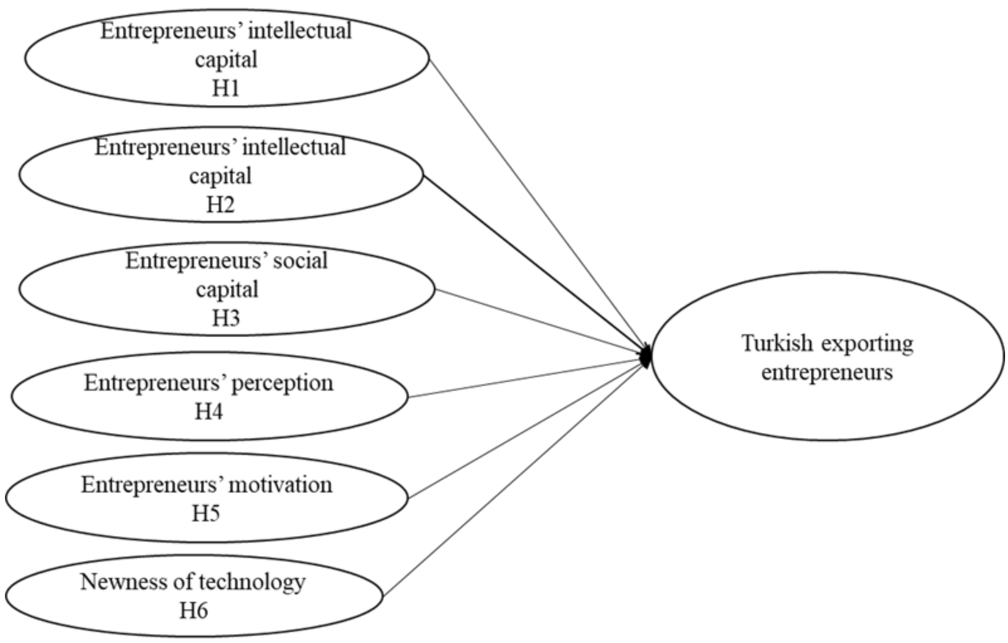
According to McDougall (1994) when entrepreneurs get opportunities with a high return by conducting business across foreign countries thus form born global firms. These entrepreneurs have the capabilities to recognize opportunities in the market whereas others do not have those capabilities. As suggested by Simpson and Kujawa (1974), education level is an important factor that influences feedback of exporters and non-exporters to unrequested orders from international buyers and they regard college and university degrees to be a significant factor in export activities. This suggests that entrepreneurs having a high level of education are most likely to see foreign business opportunities compared to entrepreneurs with a low level of education.

3. METHODOLOGY

The research question of this study is to find out what factors that influence internationalization of Turkish entrepreneurs. It is worth noting that exporting is used as a proxy

indicator of internationalization. Hence, the purpose of this research is to gain better knowledge of the entrepreneurship process using the main theories of internationalization and increase better understanding in the field of internationalization to describe and analyse how entrepreneurs decide to go internationally and find out what variables that influence the entrepreneurs' export activities. In this study, our research model is based on four categories, and the following hypothesis will be tested.

Figure 6: The research model



A- The Entrepreneur's intellectual and social capital

The literature shows a link between the entrepreneur's intellect, social capital, and internationalization. According to Kundu and Katz (2003), a well-educated entrepreneur with a professional degree will be more business-minded and hence more willing to explore international markets than entrepreneurs who do not have an education degree. They also claim that the business starter level of education affects the realization of internationalization and global intentions at the beginning stage of the business.

Hypothesis 1: *The greater the entrepreneur's self-confidence, the more likely he/she will engage in export activity.*

Hypothesis 2: *When the education level of an entrepreneur is higher, most likely he or she will engage in export activity.*

Hypothesis 3: *The larger the entrepreneur's networking, the more likely he/she will engage in export activity.*

B- **Entrepreneurs' perception**

Entrepreneurship is about people"; therefore, it is essential to know personal perceptions and judgments about the environment, which are significantly correlated with an individual's decision to start a new business (Arenius and Minniti, 2005).

Hypothesis 4: *The more the entrepreneur's fear of failure, the less likely he/she will engage in export activity.*

C- Entrepreneurial motivation

In the literature, the people who are motivated to be entrepreneurs are classified into two categories, namely: opportunity base entrepreneurs and necessity-based entrepreneurs (Gurtoo & Williams, 2009, and Hessels et al., 2008). The necessity entrepreneurs are individuals that began an entrepreneurial business due to a lack of alternatives, and it is clear that necessity entrepreneurs start with less investment and knowledge, whereby opportunity entrepreneurs were led by profitable exploitation of identified opportunities.

In accordance to (Stevenson et al., 1989), entrepreneurship is explained as the mechanism by which individuals seek export market opportunities on their own or within organizations regardless of the resources they currently control or the environment, they are facing. Furthermore, entrepreneurs' export activities are conceptualized into situations that make it possible for a firm's introduction of new products into foreign markets. Whereas international business conceptualizes different, opportunities in ways that firms enter a new international market (Alvarez et al., 2013).

Hypothesis 5: *Opportunity entrepreneurs are more likely to engage in export activity than necessity entrepreneurs are.*

D- Entrepreneurs' innovativeness

As noted by (Bleaney & Wakelin 2002), there are several types of research indicating how innovation drives exports. Especially in the United Kingdom and Ireland, innovation has a positive effect on exports; while companies are active in industries with high research and development intensity, they are more likely to export. Wakelin (1998) also found a statistically significant relationship between innovation and exports. She explains the positive correlation between firms' innovativeness and exports as evidence of firms' innovation is functioning in boosting export growth.

Hypothesis 6: *The entrepreneurs using new technology are more likely to engage in export activity.*

3.1 Sample and data collection

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM Project) was established in 1997 by Michael Hay and William D. Bygrave as a joint research initiative by Business School in London and Babson College in the USA. GEM aims to offer internationally similar information on entrepreneurs' export activities in any of the participating nations (Reynolds et al., 2005). There are three main objectives of GEM, first, to measure the differences in entrepreneurs' activity levels between nations; second, to uncover factors determining the national level of entrepreneurs' activities; and last, and to identify measures that would help enhance entrepreneurs' activities on the national level.

GEM has continued to extend its academic project to gather annual data on entrepreneurial behaviour. Till today it was recorded: 23 years of data, more than three million entrepreneur respondents and expert interviews since 1999, 148 thousand respondents to the GEM adult population survey in 2021, and more than 2000 expert interviews for the GEM national expert survey in 2021. In addition, it recorded more than 120 economies, 370 GEM national team members, over three hundred academic and research institutions, over 200 funding institutions, and more than 1000 publications.

The data in this study consists of 5547 Turkish entrepreneurs aged between 18-64 years old, and this GEM data was collected in the years between 2006 and 2018. However, 2009 and 2011 were not included. Because Turkey did not participate in GEM in those years. 3367 entrepreneurs who are (60.7 percent of them) are not doing export activity in our sample, while 2180 entrepreneurs who are (39.3 percent of them) are participating in export activity. 40% of data was collected in 2013, and 38.1% was collected in 2014, while the remaining 21% were collected in the years 2006, 2007,2008, 2010, 2012, 2015, and 2018, respectively.

3.2 Variables

Dependent variable:

Export behaviour is our dependent variable; in this study, exporting is employed to be a proxy indicator of internationalization. The dependent variable is measured as "% annual sales revenues will usually come from customers leaving outside. The question is coded as follows 1= more than 90%, 2= 76 to 90% ,3 =51 to 75%' 4= 26 to 50%, 5= 11 to 25%, 6=10% or less and 7 =none. However, the logistic regression is used in our analysis' the question is recorded as (0) =Domestic entrepreneurs and (1) = International entrepreneurs.

Independent variables:

Business skills: This is where individuals are asked Yes or No questions inquiring about their skills and knowledge base to establish a new firm.

Networking: Individuals were asked Yes or No questions if they knew an individual who has established a new firm within the last two years.

Level of education: Individuals were required to provide their highest degree level of education as; No education= (0), some high school = (1); high school = (2); post high school = (3); University and post graduate degree= (4).

Fear of Failure: Individuals were asked Yes or No questions regarding fear of failure as a hindrance to them establishing a new firm.

Motivation: In becoming an entrepreneur, we asked individuals concerning their motivations by creating a binary variable where 1 equates to opportunity reasons and 2 equates to necessity.

The new technology used by the entrepreneur: Individuals were asked about the technology they use whether it's new technology "less than 1 year', moderate technology "between 5 years" and old technology "more than 5 years.

Control variables: In this study, the gender and the age of the entrepreneurs are included as the control factors.

Gender: Individuals were asked about their sex status: Male =1 and Female =2.

Age: Individuals were required to state their birth year.

We use a binary logistic regression model to analyse our data due to dependent variables in our model having binary values as 0 and 1. We are able to assess the influence of numerous factors on the likely hood of engaging in entrepreneur's export activities using this method.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS

During our research, we used a logistic regression model to test our six hypotheses developed in the methodology section. Whereas export is, our dependent variable and our independent variables are entrepreneurs' intellectual and social capital, entrepreneurs' perception, entrepreneurs' motivation, and newness of technology.

Table 3 shows the likelihood ratio Chi-square test results. The Chi-square test is the diversity of functions, so this test concerns the model fit test; since the p-values are very low and less than 0.05, the model fits significantly, which means the data fits the model suitably.

Table 3 Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients

		Chi-square	Df	Sig
Step 1	Step	71,226	14	0.000
	Block	71,226	14	0.000
	Model	71,226	14	0.000

Table 4 shows that under the model summary, we have pseudo-r-squared values, which accurately predict 71% and explain 18% of Nagelkerke R square = 0.018 of variance in the chances of participation in export activity.

Table 4 The model summary of our analysis

Step	-2Log-likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	7208.000a	0.013	0.018

a. Estimation terminated at iteration number because 4 parameter estimates changed by less than,001.

Table 5 summarizes the hypothesis test results of the variables in the equation, their significant levels, and how these variables influenced the Turkish exporting entrepreneurs.

Table 5 The determinants of Turkish exporting entrepreneurs: Logistic regression results

Variables	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
Business skills	0.206	0.078	6.970	1	**0.008**	1.229
Post-graduate			5.012	5	0.414	
None (1)	-1.433	0.797	3.232	1	0.072	0.239
Some high school (2)	-1.546	0.775	3.976	1	**0.046**	0.213
High school (3)	-1.522	0.776	3.851	1	**0.050**	0.218
Post-high school (4)	-1.475	0.773	3.639	1	**0.056**	0.229
University (5)	-1.457	0.773	3.550	1	0.060	0.233
Networking	0.155	0.058	7.235	1	**0.007**	1.168
Fear of failures	-0.056	0.066	0.731	1	0.393	0.945
Opportunity motivation	0.148	0.060	5.956	1	**0.015**	1.159
Traditional Technology			26.605	3	**0.000**	
Latest Technology (1)	-0.161	0.131	1.523	1	0.217	0.851
Moderate Technology (2)	0.411	0.101	16.637	1	**0.000**	1.508
Gender (Male)	0.149	0.073	4.191	1	**0.041**	1.161
Age	0.001	0.002	0.108	1	0.742	1.001
Constant	1.563	0.778	4.040	1	0.044	4.775

Source: GEM Adult Population survey

The interpretation of the results of the variables is as follows: In terms of an entrepreneur's intellect and Social Capital, variables such as education level, knowing other entrepreneurs, and self-confidence are all supported. However, entrepreneurs'' perception, which is fear of failure, is not supported by our hypothesis result.

Business skills: Entrepreneurs with the self-confidence and experience to start a business are more likely to be involved in the export activity than their counterparts (B= 0.206, and P= 0.008). Self-confidence is one's own skills, capacity, and knowledge to establish new firms in order to increase entrepreneurs' activities in foreign countries, which leads to more business creation (Verheul et al., 2003). In addition, confidence in self is explained as an individual's belief in the ability and knowledge to perform a job and has an impact on the development of entrepreneurs' goals as well as their behavior and activities (Byod & Vozikis, 1994). This finding is supported by some previous studies, for example, knowledge about foreign languages, understanding of cultures of international markets, as well as adaptations to the legal system, encourage a firm's export interaction in the internationalization process. In addition, having good communication skills with international consumers and international market knowledge play a significant part in the globalization process, as suggested by Diamantopoulos et al. (1990) and Sullivan and Bauerschmidt (1988).

Knowing entrepreneurs: Entrepreneurs who have known other entrepreneurs (Networking) who started a business last two years are more likely to be involved in the export activity as compared to entrepreneurs who have less networking (B= 0.155, and P= 0.007). This finding is supported by many previous studies, such as networks can open new doors for entrepreneurs by offering market access, finance, distribution channels, and a huge range of relationships for internal and external developments, as suggested by Coviello (2006) and Coviello (2006: p, 723). In addition to this, entrepreneurs' networks might have an impact on their ideas to find foreign business opportunities right from the start of the firm's internationalization (Sharma & Blomstermo, 2003).

Education Level: Entrepreneurs who have some secondary degrees are less likely to do an export activity (B= -1,546, and P= 0.046) compared to entrepreneurs who have postgraduate degrees. In other words, postgraduate entrepreneurs are 5,012 times more likely to do an export activity. Similarly, entrepreneurs who have secondary and post-secondary degrees are less likely to engage in export activities (B = -1,522, P= 0.050 and B= -1,475, P= 0.056 respectively) as compared to entrepreneurs who have postgraduate experience. The entrepreneurs who have secondary degrees were 3,851times, and the entrepreneurs with post-secondary degrees 3,639 times were less likely to engage in export activity as compared with the entrepreneur who has a university and postgraduate degree. Our data suggest that education beyond high school education made an additional contribution to engaging in exporting activity. However, we found that the higher level of education, the likelihood of the entrepreneurs involved in the export activity. This finding is supported by previous researchers; as noted by Álamo Vera and Suárez Ortega (2005), high intellectual entrepreneurs will be more likely to recognize new opportunities and be interested in foreign markets; hence, well-educated entrepreneurs will be able to examine both advantages and disadvantages of foreign market operations.

Entrepreneurs' perception: Entrepreneurs' fear of failure has no significant effect on the export activity (B= - 0.056, and P-value= 0.393). As a result, H*4* is not supported, which means that entrepreneurs who are risk-takers are less likely to be involved in export activity in Turkey. In Turkey, taking the risk is not a determinant of exporting. This finding is supported by research done by Özdemir and Karadeniz (2011) found that fear of failure has no effect at all on entrepreneurial activities in Turkey. In addition to this, when starting a new business, risk aversion decreases the entrepreneur's likelihood of becoming self-employed and also foreign business activities.

Entrepreneurs' motivation: Entrepreneurs who are motivated because of opportunities in the market (B= 0.148, and p= 0.015) are more likely to participate in exporting activities than necessity entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurs who started their business because of opportunities were 5,956 times most likely to engage in export activities than the entrepreneurs who started their business because of necessity. It could be explained that entrepreneurs who run the necessity-driven entrepreneurial activity have a short-term financial benefit to survive. However, opportunity entrepreneurs have usually had the intention of exporting, turning them into long-term enterprises. As explained by Bohlmann et al. (2017), there is an affirmative partnership between entrepreneurship opportunity viewed and entrepreneurship activity. Specifically, these findings show individuals that see market possibilities hence eventually being able to participate in entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs' opportunity perception contributes more to economic development as compared to the perception of necessity, as suggested by Beynon et al. (2016).

Newness of technology: In terms of the newness of technology used by entrepreneurs, we find that entrepreneurs using moderate technology comparing traditional technology is the significant factor that affects the exporting activities. (B= 0.411 and P=0.000). In fact, the entrepreneurs using moderate technology were16,637 times more likely to do the export activity as compared to entrepreneurs employing old technology. This finding is also supported by our innovation-related models (Hamelink & Opdenakker, 2019; and Bayraktar et al.,2017), innovation has an impact on the performance of export activities. Companies using the advanced level of technology can develop a large number of new products in foreign markets. As a result, such firms are more likely to organize higher exports than companies that do not engage in innovation activities.

Technological advances are viewed as an entrepreneurship action toward globalization (O'Cass & Weerawardena, 2009). They discovered that the advancement of technology is a primary force driving behind SMEs' foreign activity. In addition, according to Boermans and Roelfsema (2015), technological advances have a mediating influence on a firm's internationalization and its ability to perform better.

Control variables: The gender and the age of the entrepreneurs

Gender: Gender is used as a control variable. Male entrepreneurs are most likely to engage in export activities than their female counterparts. Male entrepreneurs were 4,19176 times most likely to engage in the export activity in comparison to female entrepreneurs. Results showed gender to be a significant factor in influencing the number of entrepreneurs engaging in exporting activities (B= 0.149, p=0.041).

Many research suggests that male entrepreneurship activity is still greater than female entrepreneurial activity. According to cross-national empirical studies, there are considerable disparities in female and male entrepreneurial engagement, with numerous factors influencing company performance across nations (Tsyganova and Shirokova, 2010).

Age: Age is used as another control variable by which age does not significantly affect the involvement of individuals in export activities (B= 0.001, P-value = 0.742). These results are inconsistent with many studies previously found, such as Hsu et al. (2013), who considered later generational individuals to likely engage in export activity compared to old entrepreneurs (Saeed & Ziaulhaq, 2018). Entrepreneur's age is considered a primary factor that affects export orientation because young entrepreneurs are more globally oriented compared to old entrepreneurs (Oviatt et al., 1993).

Table 6 shows the results of the logistic regression analysis; five hypotheses are supported by the

Model out of our six hypotheses: Self Confidence, knowing entrepreneurs, Education Level, Opportunity entrepreneur, and technological advancement in terms of being new or old, which the firm uses, are significant factors to engage in export activities. Even though we expect fear of failure, has more likely to be affected in export activities. However, we did not find any significant to support our hypothesis.

Table 6 Accepted or rejected hypotheses

	Accepted	Rejected
Self-confidence	Yes	-
Education level	Yes	-
Networking	Yes	-
Fear of failure		Yes
Opportunity vs necessity	Yes	-
Newness of technology	Yes	-

Source: Own tabulation

5. CONCLUSION

The role of entrepreneurs is crucial because entrepreneurs are important contributors to a nation's economy. As a result, it is critical to comprehend the factors/variables that influence Turkish entrepreneurs' export activity and the internationalization of entrepreneurs.

This research aimed to analyse the effects of the entrepreneurs' intellectual and social capital, perceptions, motivation, and innovation on the internationalization of Turkish entrepreneurs. This study uses the combined GEM data of Turkey, which was collected years between 2006 and 2018.

In the study, a total of six hypotheses were proposed whether the entrepreneur's self-confidence, entrepreneur's education level, entrepreneur's networking, entrepreneur's fear of failure, the opportunity of entrepreneurs, and entrepreneur's using new technology were determinants of exporting Turkish entrepreneurs or not. These hypotheses were tested using logistic regression analysis to determine if there was an impact on Turkish entrepreneurs' export activity. The research results from the study are as follows:

Our data have supported our first hypothesis, and the findings are consistent with the literature review. If the entrepreneurs' level of self-confidence is high, they are more likely to participate in export activity. Because Self-confidence is one's skills, capacity, and knowledge to establish new firms to increase entrepreneurs' activities in foreign countries which leads to more business creation (Verheul et al., 2003; Kunday and Senguler, 2015), having self-confidence will enable entrepreneurs to feel better for themselves and their products. In addition, several studies examined the connection between entrepreneurs' language skills and export behavior, stressing their role in the beginning and development of the global activity, as referenced by Stoian et al. (2011) and Shih & Wickramasekera (2011).

Our second hypothesis, namely: entrepreneurs' capital measured in education level has been supported and significantly affects entrepreneurs' export activity in Turkey. These findings also supported our models of international entrepreneurship theory and the Uppsala model, which argues that, as the level of education increases, entrepreneurs are more likely to engage in export activity. Entrepreneurs' business education has substantially facilitated their firms to reach good performance and competitive international markets. According to Capelleras and Greene (2008), entrepreneurs with a wide range of education are likely to participate in export operations through their aspirations within international markets. Therefore, due to their attained levels of education, they are more knowledgeable and can see the opportunities, process, and later examine the gained knowledge. In addition, highly knowledgeable entrepreneurs come up with new concepts due to their high confidence levels and eventually develop their new business locally and internationally (Bandura1978).

Our results also supported the third hypothesis of the research, which is networking a line with network theory in the literature review. The results found that knowing other entrepreneurs and someone's social networking positively affected the entrepreneur's export activity in Turkey. This finding is consistent with network theory which argues the business network assists entrepreneurs in identifying business opportunities, gaining access to resources, and developing a plan for SMEs to internationalize (Zain and Ng, 2006). Moreover, networks can open new business opportunities for entrepreneurs offering them wide accessibility to the market, finance, channels of distribution, and a considerable range of relationships for internal and external developments, as Coviello (2006) and Coviello (2006: p, 723). In addition, entrepreneurs' networks might impact their ideas to find foreign business opportunities right from the start of the firm's internationalization (Blomstermo and Sharma, 2003).

This research also hypothesized entrepreneurs' motivation (opportunity). Our results confirm that entrepreneurs driven by opportunity are more likely to participate in globalization efforts than entrepreneurs driven by necessity. These findings are consistent with entrepreneurship theory which argues that entrepreneurs' opportunity perception contributes more to economic development than the perception of need, as suggested by Beynon et al. (2016) and Kunday and Senguler (2015).

Our findings have supported entrepreneurs' innovation which is measured newness of technology a line with innovation-related models in the literature review. The results found that entrepreneurs' using new technologies are more likely to engage in export activities in Turkey. This finding is consistent with (Hamelink & Opdenakker, 2019; Bayraktar et al., 2017, and Kunday and Senguler, 2015), who argues that innovation impacts export activities performance. Companies using the advanced level of technology can develop a large number of new products in foreign markets. As a result, such firms are more likely to organize higher exports than companies that do not engage in innovation activities.

Technological advances are viewed as an entrepreneurship action toward globalization (O'Cass & Weerawardena, 2009). They discovered that the advancement of technology is a primary force driving behind SMEs' foreign activity. It's found that entrepreneurs who employ moderate and traditional technology positively relate to export activity. However, entrepreneurs using new technologies have a negative effect on entrepreneurs’ export activity.

Regarding gender, our findings confirm that male entrepreneurs are most likely to participate in exporting activity, which is not surprising as male entrepreneurs dominate the export activity in general. These findings are supported by many previous studies, such as male entrepreneurs are more participating in entrepreneurship than female entrepreneurs (Minitti et al., 2006, Reynolds et al., 2002).

Overall, our findings show that three variables, namely: that entrepreneurs' self-confidence, education level, and networking are very significant factors that influence entrepreneurs who export to Turkey. Individuals should improve their business networking since it allows entrepreneurs to have good connections with other business partners, create new business concepts, and hence achieve significant economic success.

Our research results show that as entrepreneurs' level of education increases, they are more likely to engage in effective export activities in Turkey. All levels of the educational system should be effective in providing instruction and experience that can encourage entrepreneurship to stimulate a new generation of enterprise culture with a focus on internationalization.

As also mentioned by Karadeniz (2008), "All levels of the educational system should be effective in providing instruction and experience in the creation and management of the new business. Therefore, entrepreneurial courses should be incorporated into all levels of the educational process and should be part of national education policy".

There are also two essential variables that our findings supported. These are entrepreneurs' opportunities and the newness of the technology. Regarding entrepreneurs' motivation, the government and policymakers should encourage opportunity entrepreneurs to set up their businesses by providing financing and a friendly entrepreneurial ecosystem. Finally, the newness of technology promotes entrepreneurs' export activities, so the government should help export entrepreneurs get advanced technologies for their business.

5.1. Limitations and future research

Numerous different factors affect entrepreneurs' process of internationalization. The strategies and procedures used by entrepreneurs from a given nation are influenced by factors including economic conditions, business culture, Technologies, infrastructure, etc. A significant limitation of our research is that we generally examine the process of Turkish entrepreneurs' export activity with the concentration of the four fundamental approaches. A further restriction is that we concentrate only internationalization of entrepreneurs. But not multinational companies.

This research only focuses on Turkish entrepreneurs that will engage in export activities. The study of this research is limited to only Turkish entrepreneurs using four theories that influence the internationalization process of entrepreneurs.

A more extensive study that will engage many types of entrepreneurs from different countries is required. Since our research is only based on one country, comparative analysis can be done with other countries in future research. Our model could be extended by including factors such as experience in management, cultural values, and environmental factors in future research.

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