RCMOS – Multidisciplinary Scientific Journal O Saber.
ISSN: 2675-9128. Sao Paulo-SP.

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Submitted on: 01/20/2022
Approved on: 01/27/2022
Published on: 02/10/2022 v. 2, no. 1, Jan-Jun. 2022 DOI: 10.51473/rcmos.v2i1.291

SUMMARY

Just like everything in current times, the public service also needs to be innovated, seeking to grow and update itself in the market compared to the private service. Therefore, it is important to bring this study that aims to present leadership and entrepreneurship in public service as a relevant and current subject for the time, in addition to being necessary for scholars and those curious about the subject to be able to understand the topic. The general objective of this research was to discuss leadership and entrepreneurship in public service. The methodology used to develop this work was a literature review, in which scientific materials already published on the subject were searched in reliable databases in order to compile data to compose the theoretical part of this study. This research concludes by stating that leadership and entrepreneurship have an important role in public service, always seeking innovation and updating in order to propose improvements to everyone.
Key words: Entrepreneurship. Leadership. Public service.

ABSTRACT

As with everything in current times, the public service also needs to be innovated, seeking to grow, to update itself in the market compared to the private service. Thus, it is important to bring this study, which aims to present leadership and entrepreneurship in the public service as a relevant and current issue for the time, in addition to the need for scholars and those curious about the subject to be able to understand the subject. The general objective of this research was to talk about leadership and entrepreneurship in the public service. The methodology used to develop this work was a literature review where we searched in reliable databases for scientific materials already published on the subject to compile data to compose the theoretical part of this study. This research concludes by stating that leadership and entrepreneurship have an important role in the public service, always seeking innovation and updating to propose improvements to everyone.
Keywords: Entrepreneurship. Leadership. Public service.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 CONTEXTUALIZATION

Entrepreneurship in public service integrates two distinct concepts: entrepreneurship and public service. While the first refers to exploration and exploitation opportunities (KEARNEY*et al*., 2008; KLEIN, 2008; SHANE; VENKATARAMAN, 2000), the latter refers to organizations owned and financed by governments and sub-direct political authority (CHRISTENSEN*et al*., 2007; RAINEY, 2009; WILSON, 2000). Public service entrepreneurship can be defined as:

> [...] the process that exists within the public sector organization that results in innovative activities, such as the development of new and existing services, technologies, administrative techniques, new and improved strategies, risk taking and proactiveness (KEARNEY *et al*., 2009, p. 28).

Public service entrepreneurship is critical to policy development and implementation as public service demands change over time. Public organizations need to be innovative and entrepreneurial in today's globalized and rapidly changing environment (ARUNDEL*et al*., 2015; WINDRUM; KOCH, 2008). Despite the importance of entrepreneurship in public service, studies have found that entrepreneurial activity tends to be low in public service (OSBORNE; PLASTRIK, 1997; ÖZCAN; REICHSTEIN, 2009; RAINEY, 2009). This lack of entrepreneurial activity in the public service is due to the risk-averse nature of public organizations and bureaucratic structures; reward mechanisms and the complexity of work environments discourage public service employees from being entrepreneurs (BOZEMAN; KINGSLEY, 1998; DEMIRCIOGLU, 2018; RAINEY, 2009; WILSON, 2000).

The hierarchical structures of public organizations (ÖZCAN; REICHSTEIN, 2009), as well as funding restrictions (ZERBINATI; SOUITARIS, 2005), further reduce public service entrepreneurship. Therefore, increasing entrepreneurship in the public service is an important issue.

At the same time, leadership in public organizations is becoming more important as research finds that organizational leaders in public organizations can increase organizational performance, efficiency, effectiveness, and public value creation (JENSEN*et al.*, 2019; MOORE, 1995; TUMMERS*et al.*, 2018; VAN WART, 2014).

However, studies tend to ignore what dictates the entrepreneurial behavior of public service employees, in general, and how leaders' behaviors affect entrepreneurial activity in the public service, in particular. These studies have not suggested how public service entrepreneurship can be increased despite structures and incentives in public organizations that discourage entrepreneurial behavior.

Since an organization's leaders play an important role in creating an organizational culture of innovation, understanding leadership behavior is critical for organizations and stakeholders. Consequently, it is important to understand what types of leadership behaviors to promote and how these behaviors influence other members of an organization. The relationship between leadership and entrepreneurship in the public service is worth analyzing because the behavior of leaders can play an important role in promoting entrepreneurial activity in public organizations.

Their behavior can affect public organizations not only in terms of organizational survival, success, performance, efficiency and creation of public value (FERNANDEZ, 2008; LEWIS, 1980; MOORE, 1995; OSTROM, 2005; RAINEY, 2009; VAN WART, 2003 , 2013, 2014; WILSON, 2000), but leaders also influence the effectiveness and efficiency with which organizations provide services to their constituents in a restricted funding environment (ZERBINATI; SOUITARIS, 2005), and leaders also have authority and responsibility significant for decision making (COVIN*et al.*, 2019).

Leaders are also an important source for acquiring resources, changing strategies based on knowledge of the changing environment (COVIN*et al.*, 2019) and motivate employees to be entrepreneurs through incentives and creation of an entrepreneurial culture (BERNIER; HAFSI 2007; KIM, 2010; SAHNI*et al.*, 2013).

Therefore, it is increasingly important to promote entrepreneurial behavior in public service so that public organizations serve their constituents effectively (MACK*et al.*, 2008).

Task-oriented behavior focuses on completing activities necessary to achieve a goal. Relationship-oriented behavior promotes building the relationships necessary to achieve goals, and change-oriented behavior promotes innovation and change and helps participants cope with change.

1.2 PROBLEM

What is the influence of leadership and entrepreneurship in public service?

1.3 JUSTIFICATION

This study is justified by bringing important implications to the area in addition to serving as a literary basis for other academics and/or lay people and scholars on the subject, thus seeking to resolve their doubts about the topic discussed here.

1.4 OBJECTIVES

1.4.1 General objective

This study has the general objective of discussing leadership and entrepreneurship in public service.

1.4.2 Specific objectives

The)Conceptualize Leadership and its types;
B)study entrepreneurship and its different types;
w)discuss the main drivers of public management.

1.5 METHODOLOGY

For this study to be developed, the descriptive method will be adopted, with a qualitative approach. Shank (2002, p. 5) defines qualitative research as “a form of systematic empirical investigation into meaning”.
By systematic, he means “planned, orderly, and public,” following rules agreed upon by members of the qualitative research community. By empirical, he means that this type of investigation is grounded in the world of experience.

Inquiry into meaning says that researchers try to understand how others make sense of their experience. Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p. 3) state that qualitative research involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach: “This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural environments, trying to understand or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings that people bring to them. for them".
The study was prepared through literature review research. For Marconi and Lakatos (2010), a literature review is a critical analysis of published sources, or literature, on a specific topic.
It is an assessment of the literature and provides a summary, classification, comparison and evaluation. At the graduate level, literature reviews may be incorporated into an article, a research report, or a thesis. At the undergraduate level, literature reviews can be a separate stand-alone assessment.
For Köche (2011), the literature review is generally in the format of a standard essay composed of three components: an introduction, a body and a conclusion. It is not a list like an annotated bibliography in which a summary of each source is listed one by one.
The search will be carried out in databases of Latin American and Caribbean Literature in Health Sciences (LILACS), Scientific Electronic Library Online (SCIELO), monographs, dissertations, scientific articles.
The inclusion criteria for the bibliographic survey of this study will be text available in full free of charge, in Portuguese and English and that meet the proposed objectives. Exclusion criteria will be studies that do not meet the study objectives.

2 LEADERSHIP AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

In this first chapter of the research development, we propose to introduce considerations about leadership and entrepreneurship in the public service. To this end, we intend, in the next lines, to present notes regarding the currently conceived Administration model – that is, the managerial one, replacing the bureaucratic model, previously in force.
This is because it is based on the idea that, according to Silva and Barki (2012), a trait that seems to characterize contemporary Brazilian public management is the adoption of discourses, concepts and management practices typical of the corporate world. So much so that the managerial administration model, introduced by Constitutional Amendment 19/1998, to be dealt with in subchapter 2.1.1, was imported from private companies.
Thus, as will be seen, it is in this context that concepts such as innovation, entrepreneurship, management by results and skills and leadership are gradually incorporated into the daily vocabulary of the most varied instances of Brazilian public management. However, it must be considered that Public Administration has its own governing principles, determining its mode of action, which need to be considered in this path of analysis intended for this study. It is, therefore, based on this, that we will begin to present, in the following subchapter, the governing principles of public management in the country, among which is the constitutional principle of efficiency, based on Managerial Administration, which will be the subject discussed next.

2.1 GOVERNING PRINCIPLES OF PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

In general, according to Silva and Barki (2012), public management is responsible for the organization, as well as the process decision-making related to the implementation, formulation and evaluation of public policies that are the responsibility of the State. Your Management, according to the author, is carried out by a body of human resources that is hired by the State for this purpose and led by a political nucleus elected to assume the governments of each of the administrative spheres that comprise it. It therefore refers to the public management functions of government business.

In Silva's (2007) perception, it is possible to classify the public manager's actions into three different levels: the first, related to acts of government, located in the political sphere; the second, which corresponds to acts of administration, constituting a neutral activity, due to the connection it has in relation to the law (they are drawn up because the law determines so); and the third, which covers management acts, referring to the following basic parameters: translation of the mission; carrying out planning and subsequent control; administration of the resources available to management (human, technological, material and financial); insertion of each unit into the organization's focus; and decision-making in conflictual situations within the internal and external scope of Public Administration.

Regarding the concept of modern public management, Garde contributes as follows:

> The new Public Management is about renewing and innovating the functioning of Administration, incorporating techniques from the private sector, adapted to its own characteristics, as well as developing new initiatives to achieve economic efficiency and social effectiveness, underlying it is the philosophy that administration public offers unique opportunities to improve the economic and social conditions of people (2001, p. 221).

For Bonezzi and Pedraça (2008), the new public management is based on information, which has its essence affecting the content of public action, which must be transmitted, after analysis and storage, and released, to serve as a basis for future decision-making. decisions. It is, therefore, according to the authors, an administration that

> [...] it is based on ethical, moral and legal content on the part of those who participate in it, with the objective of believing in the positive result of the public policy to be implemented and in the credibility of the public administration exercised by them. It is also a component of the existence of a content full of technological elements that facilitate their use to administer with potential effectiveness and efficiency that is expected from the Administration of public goods (BONEZZI; PEDRAÇA, 2008, p. 12-13).

According to Lima (2007), it is possible to conceptualize public management as administrative acts that are classified by processes such as budget programming, planning, control, execution and evaluation of policies, in addition to having as its main objective the implementation of public policies, indirectly or directly, through private or public organizations. According to the author, it is responsible for the economic and urban development of the city, and management must therefore pay attention to all the facts that may happen in a society, in order to fulfill its duty, which is the to act to promote the development of the city for the benefit of the citizens who live there.

On the other hand, we have the concept of Public Administration, which, according to Bastos (1994, p. 2), is embodied in the activity that is carried out by the State, "[...] through the Executive Branch and bodies subordinate to it, of govern or manage public interests and assets, in accordance with the law, to achieve its purpose: the common good of the community". It should be noted that, in the definition brought by the author, Public Administration, which is confused with the Executive Power, presents itself as an activity that is intended for the management of public interests and assets with a view to achieving its purpose, which is the promotion of common good of the people (in this case, those administered).

For Meirelles (2013, p. 70), Public Administration reveals "[...] all the State equipment preordained for the performance of its services, aiming to satisfy collective needs". It is possible to note that the author, unlike Bastos, did not limit the notion of Public Administration to the Executive Branch. Before, he mentioned the State and its duty to satisfy the needs of the community. Therefore, a generalization can be seen, with a view to reaching the entire apparatus of the State, including all the Powers that compose it (Executive, Legislative and Judiciary), as well as the bodies related to them, which is preordained aimed at carrying out of its services. In this same sense, Granjeiro (2007) understands, for whom Public Administration consists of a set of entities (bodies and entities constituted by the Public Power) aimed at achieving the common good. The purpose, then, for the author, would be social prosperity, as well as the satisfaction of public interest, whether in its primary aspect, relating to the people, or in its secondary aspect, belonging to the State.

It is also worth mentioning the contribution of Di Pietro (2014, p. 71), who believes that Public Administration is "[...] the set of bodies and legal entities to which the law assigns the exercise of the administrative function of the State ". In the same sense, follows Medauar (2015), who maintains:

> [...] From an organizational angle, Public Administration represents the set of state bodies and entities that produce services, goods and utilities for the population, supporting top political institutions in the exercise of government functions. In this approach, the vision of an articulated structure or equipment, intended for carrying out such activities, predominates; one thinks, for example, of ministries, secretariats, departments, coordinators, etc. (MEDAUAR, 2015, p. 49).

Justen Filho (2012), however, shifts the subjective focus given to the concept by Bastos (1994), Meirelles (2013), Granjeiro (2007), Di Pietro (2014) and Medauar (2015), as reproduced here, and brings a conception which is based on the objective of Public Administration, which is the achievement of the administrative function. Therefore, for the author, the Public Administration is "[...] the set of assets and rights necessary to perform the administrative function" (JUSTEN FILHO, 2012, P. 90).

It must be emphasized, however, that, whether the subjective conception is accepted or the objective conception is taken, both currents contribute to the understanding that public administration contemplates the management of the public good, which is why it must be governed by an interest greater than the private interests that surround it, that is, the public interest of the community (CARVALHO, 2015).

Therefore, the definition of Public Administration sometimes points to the set of bodies, sometimes to the performance of the administrative function, is better elaborated if it is considered that the primary objective is to carry out the best management of the public good, always aiming at the interest of the people.

The administrative legal regime is based on two important principles: the principle of the supremacy of the public interest over the private and the principle of unavailability of the public interest. Both, according to Di Pietro (2014), are considered supra principles, considering that all other statements that make up the administrative legal regime derive from them.

The principle of supremacy of the public interest over the private interest has as its basic characteristic legal inequality. This is because, through this administrative statement, the State is in a prominent position in relation to the individual (CARVALHO, 2015). In other words, the public interest, which the Public Administration must maintain compliance with, must prevail over the interest of the individual, because it is at a higher level than that (it belongs to the entire community) (DI PIETRO, 2014).

As Di Pietro (2014) highlights, the principle of the supremacy of the public interest over the private is present in all state functions (promotion, intervention, administrative police and provision of public services) and in all branches of Public Law.

> [...] it is inherent to the very concept of public service; this is public because it is owned by the State, and it is owned by the State because it meets collective needs. Hence, the subjective element (State ownership), the objective element (provision of activities that serve the collective interest) and the formal element (total or partial submission to the legal regime of public law) are highlighted as characteristics of public service.
> The principle of the supremacy of the public interest is also at the basis of development activities, whereby the State subsidizes, encourages and helps private initiatives, exactly when it considers that the individual deserves this help because it is acting in the benefit of the public interest, in parallel with the State. (DI PIETRO, 2014, p. 37).

The supremacy of the public interest over the private interest therefore reveals itself as a principle that gives rise to the recognition of certain rights of action for the State so that it can act in a way that guarantees the effectiveness of its object. However, if in order to make the public interest prevail over the private interest, prerogatives are granted, duties are also attributed, which refer to the circumscription of action to what is determined in laws and principles. In other words, at the same time as having rights to act in favor of the public interest, the public agent also experiences limitations to his/her actions, in order to ensure that he/she complies with what is guaranteed by the prerogatives, without renouncing the public interest for individual interests (CARVALHO, 2015). An important lesson in this regard is brought by Di Pietro, who highlights:

> At the same time as prerogatives place the Public Administration in a position of supremacy vis-à-vis the individual, always with the objective of achieving the benefit of the community, the restrictions to which it is subject limit its activity to certain purposes and principles that, if not observed, imply misuse of power and consequent nullity of Administration acts (2014, p. 62).

Therefore, it is clear that the administrative legal regime is based on a principle that brings together the prerogatives arising from the realization of the supremacy of the public interest over the private, also contemplating the limitations brought by the principle of unavailability of the public interest, which includes duties set out in aimed at preventing public agents from carrying out their activities with a focus on seeking undue advantages. Treat-if these last limits are placed on the actions of public agents to prevent them from deviating from compliance with the primary public interest, related to the interest that surrounds the community, in response to individual private interests (CARVALHO, 2015).

From these two important principles, other administrative principles derive, among which are those enumerated in the Federal Constitution of 1988, in *caput* of article 37, which provides:

> Art. 37. The direct and indirect public administration of any of the Powers of the Union, the States, the Federal District and the Municipalities will comply with the principles of legality, impersonality,

morality, publicity and efficiency and also the following: (BRASIL, 1988).

Thus, the Public Administration, in general, must, in its actions, maintain compliance with constitutional dictates, and must also base its actions on the following principles: impersonality, legality, publicity, morality and efficiency. These are, therefore, in Brazilian law, the governing principles of public management in the country. Of these, special attention will be given to the principle of efficiency, related to the management administration model implemented since the publication of Constitutional Amendment No. 19, of 1998, to be covered in detail in the following subchapter.

2.1.1 Management administration (EC 19/1998)

Contemporary public administration has gone through several paradigms in recent decades. Initially, the government was linked to traditionally powerful political groups, presenting itself as a true extension of their power and private sphere. As a result, there was management that had an exclusively patrimonial character, using nepotistic methods to fill positions and clientelistic forms of work (PEREIRA, 2016). Therefore, at first there was no clear distinction between public and private things (CARVALHO, 2015).

At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, however, new institutions emerged with the aim of separating the private from the public sphere, focusing on the pursuit of the public interest and the moralization of political conduct. This was the bureaucratic public administration movement and the institution of democracy (PEREIRA, 2016).

Max Weber (2003), the main scholar of the bureaucratization process of the state body, described the evolution referred to as the supremacy of the rational-legal form of domination, with a preponderance of the formalization of processes and technical knowledge. Bureaucratization, within Public Administration, was an attempt to combat nepotism and corruption, establishing rigid hierarchical control of procedures and processes, which was a strong formalistic initiative (PEREIRA, 2016).

Furthermore, during this period investments were made to impose a technical and professional class of permanent public servants (CHIAVENATO, 2008). In Brazil, the bureaucratic bias was consistent with the coming to power of Getúlio Vargas, in a scenario of greater state intervention in the economy (PEREIRA, 2016). However, dissatisfaction with this management model began to be experienced, with the emergence, in the second half of the 20th century, of a new paradigm – that of managerial administration. It was a strategy to reduce costs and make the administration of large services that competed more with the State more efficient. Furthermore, it emerged as a mechanism to protect public assets in the face of rent interests or open corruption (CARVALHO, 2015).

Thus, while bureaucratic public administration focused on the process, on outlining procedures for hiring personnel, acquiring goods and services and meeting citizens' demands, managerial administration is based on public management by results (PEREIRA, 2016) .

For Bittar (2009), however, from a macro perspective, bureaucratic administration manifested itself as the executive face of the rational state of the contemporary era. Within its scope, according to the author, social norms would be outlined by positive law, in an attempt to control chaos.

However, according to Bittar (2009), even though there was some success with bureaucratic administration in reducing patrimonialism and corruption, on the other hand what was achieved was that it was a highly inefficient and expensive management, which offered low quality public services to the population.

Such questions were raised at the same time that the first signs of Modernity emerged, beginning the birth of a new social order that some scholars began to call Post-Modernity. In this new scenario, hopes for the development and progress of a legitimate normative unit, capable of rationally regulating all aspects of social life, were frustrated. Therefore, the inspiring promises of modernity were frustrated (BITTAR, 2009).

At the same time, the state entity acquired new responsibilities, evolving from the minimal liberal state to a state that provides public services in various sectors, such as health, education, social security, employment, among others. These tasks, at the end of the century, were not the responsibility of the State (ABRUCIO, 1997). However, at the same time that progress was made in this conception, inefficiency was encountered, considering that these new services were not provided sufficiently managed by the State, which had very expensive and slow management. This made the welfare state was faced with a factual situation in which there was an alarming public debt (CARVALHO, 2015).

The crisis in the bureaucratic form of State management emerged with full force from the Magna Carta of 1988, which implemented a highly rigid, hierarchical and centralized Public Administration, in addition to reaffirming patrimonial and corporate privileges with the social and economic reality of Brazil. The aforementioned constitutional text, also expanding the range of people's social rights, without outlining the respective counterpart of their sources of financing, contributed to the increase in the cost of social services, causing a decrease in the efficiency and quality of their provision (PEREIRA, 2016).

From a broader perspective, the problem of public administration management capacity and, therefore, administrative reform, has become essential. Administrative reform therefore began to be conceived as a recurring problem.

Practically all governments, at all times, began to highlight the need to provide more efficiency and modernity to Public Administration. However, there were only two structural administrative reforms in capitalism (PEREIRA, 2016).

The first was the institution of bureaucratic public administration, which replaced asset management, which occurred in the 20th century in European nations, in the first decade of this century in the United States, and in the 1930s in Brazil (PEREIRA, 2016).

The second was the implementation of managerial public administration, which finds its precedents in the 1960s, but only began to be established in the 1980s in countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. It was, however, only in the 1990s, when implemented in the United States, that the subject caught society's attention with the publication of the text "Reinventing Government", and the adoption of the National Performance Assessment by Bill Clinton's government. . In Brazil, this public management model was effectively implemented during the administration of Fernando Henrique Cardoso, in 1995, with the approval of the State Reform Plan (PEREIRA, 2016).

In this scenario of changes, the concept of efficiency deserves to be highlighted, which has become part of public management, in such a significant way that it has been elevated to the level of a constitutional principle of Public Administration (CARVALHO, 2015).

Initially, it is worth highlighting that the duty of efficiency determines how the objectives of the Public Administration must be achieved, as well as what the proportion and relationship between the measures it adopts and the objectives it pursues must be. And the public administrator is only responsible for executing what is required by law (BITTAR, 2009; CARVALHO, 2015). Therefore, it is essential to understand what constitutes efficiency in the scope of public management, so that this principle can be met.

In fact, it should be noted that the duty of efficiency in Brazil is not new to Brazilian legislation. Rather, it is certain that, since 1967, it has already been part of this scenario, as it was sanctioned by Decree-Law No. 200 as a duty of good administration. In the country's Magna Carta, it existed implicitly, until 1998, when, with Constitutional Amendment nº 19, it was expressly included in the list of constitutional principles that the Public Administration must obey, together with legality, morality, publicity and impersonality .

However, it should be noted that providing efficient services is not just a whim, but a necessity of the State, which is assigned the duty of monitoring new trends, adapting to the provision of adequate services to the citizen (PAZZAGLINI FILHO, 2008).

Therefore, it is not enough to just adopt a possible solution; It is necessary to find the best solution for the specific case. In this context, the Public Administration has the duty to act quickly and precisely to make the most of a program to be implemented. However, for this to occur, the State must improve its action plan, optimizing the appropriate means to best meet the needs of the community (MELLO, 2015; DI PIETRO, 2016).

The principle of efficiency also requires that the Public Administration permanently pays attention to the standards of modern management, in order to overcome the bureaucratic burden, to obtain the best results in the provision of public services to the population in general – that is, to citizens (DI PIETRO , 2016).

In Brazil, the majority doctrine, even though it does not confront the concepts of efficiency and economy, attributes to the former a greater scope of function, to weigh the results and social costs of State action. To the latter, however, it attributes the status of prescription in the sense that the State must spend as little as possible to carry out a given investment (MELLO, 2015; DI PIETRO, 2016).

However, according to Niebuhr (2015), the synergy that is established between the concepts of efficiency and economy becomes more evident when observing, for example, cases of requirements for compliance, in the bidding procedure, with the principle of economy. for contracting services or works, which contributes, according to the author, to promoting administrative efficiency.

Freitas (2007) identifies concepts and proportionality as a common trait. For the author, the notion of benefits and costs that is common to both is correlated to the consideration that is made when discussing the application of the principle of proportionality. In this regard, according to the author, Administration whose actions generate more losses than gains can be considered inefficient and uneconomical.

Therefore, the duty of efficiency is related to contemporary public management, and within its scope, several concepts arising from private administration were being incorporated into the day-to-day activities of public administration. Among them, the concept of entrepreneurship, which will be explored in more depth in the following subchapter.

2.2 GENERAL LESSONS ABOUT ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Within the scope of private administration, management must be focused on achieving better results, because excellence in performance leads to better results, which contribute to business growth. In public management, this perspective is not very different.

It is possible, even to say that it is exacerbated, considering that, here, it is the administration of someone else's thing – in the

In this case, a public thing, belonging to the entire community. Precisely because it involves the management of public assets, the actions of the Public Administration must be based on principles that have as a major objective the pursuit of the people's interests. In fact, Public Administration presents great management complexities, especially with regard to the use of public money for the acquisition of goods, services, works and the like. These resources must be managed in order to ensure the integrity of transactions. Therefore, the public agent must act as efficiently and transparently as possible to the population, since the holder of the managed asset is precisely the people. It is in this conception that the need to carry out bidding for acquisitions at the state level is involved.

Today, Brazilian society, aware of its decision-making power within the scope of the Democratic Rule of Law experienced in Brazil, is demanding better performance from the public service in the application of public resources.

To this end, the development and adoption of new practices are proposed that strengthen integrity, as well as promote the efficiency of spending and the achievement of results, mainly in relation to the acquisition of goods, carrying out works and provision of services, earning more and more space, every day, in the professional and academic reflection of professionals in the area of Administrative Law and public management.

Thus, innovative forms of contracting and controlling government purchases, based on the promotion of continuous improvements or the exploration of new concepts with a view to the continuous improvement of techniques that ensure the success of public policies, have been occupying a prominent position in the debate on the effectiveness of public spending, especially in relation to acquisitions with large values, such as those related to the contracting of services and high-value engineering works.

The fact is that, since the second half of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century, debates about selection and hiring procedures in the administrative field have been recurring.

Such discussions cover, in particular, the search for contractual mechanisms that can ensure real effectiveness of public policies through the regular execution of contracts, in addition to the evaluation of the bidding procedure, the contractual management model, institutional governance practices and the use of use of contractual guarantees.

In Brazil, these considerations are enriched by the challenge perceived in combating systemic corruption and by the inability of the current model of management and monitoring of the execution of administrative contracts implemented in the country, in which there is a very common practice of adding additions to the value of the contract and delays in the execution of contracts or, in some cases, non-performance of the contract.

According to Reis (2008), the study that has been carried out on entrepreneurship has been gaining strength in the last decade due to the need for people and organizations to adapt to a competitive market, marked by constant changes.

Its expressiveness is also due, according to the author, to the growing unemployment in the country, arising, in turn, from structural changes occurring in the economic sphere of organizations, which are under great pressure to reduce costs and increase competitiveness. It is, therefore, based on these concepts that we will start to develop this part of the study.

2.2.1 Concept of entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship is one of the tools used to manage a business. It is, therefore, an action aimed at the creation and development of an idea. It means acting to make it work, seeking to bring positive results with something that has been studied, evaluated and created.

This is the perception that emerges from reading the work of Drucker (2008), according to whom entrepreneurship is based on a single principle, regardless of whether the company already exists or not, or whether it is a large company or not. In any of these situations, entrepreneurship will exist.

In other words, according to Drucker (2008), entrepreneurship exists regardless of the company's reason for existence. In this way, the acts of creating it, sustaining it, creating products and maintaining them on the market and obtaining customer acceptance are all related to entrepreneurship, being an integral part of its constitution.

It should also be noted that, according to Bessant and Tidd (2009), innovation and entrepreneurship are interconnected, and should not, however, be considered as mere results of a brilliant idea. Before, according to the authors, one must understand the essence of the action of both on organizational development, in order to use them with a view to improving business performance.

According to Bessat and Tidd (2009), conventional approaches to entrepreneurship often start the principle that the idea and commercial concept had already been identified, leaving the execution work to be done through the development of a business plan and raising funds to put it into practice. Mariano and Mayer (2011), in turn, point out that, in their view, the entrepreneur shows himself to be a complete administrator, who seeks to interact with the environment so that he can, based on it, make the best decisions, through the incorporation of the various existing approaches, knowing how to use activities, roles and functions in a complementary way and at the right time so that you can achieve your objectives.

Thus, for Mariano and Mayer (2011), the successful entrepreneur would be endowed with a unique characteristic, namely, the knowledge of the business in which he operates, which differentiates him from the common administrator. Another differentiating factor, cited by Trott (2012), refers to the entrepreneur's ability to carry out constant planning based on a vision of the future, ensuring that the business remains aligned with market trends, but does not lose its strategic essence. , translated into its mission, vision and values.

Given this, it is possible to consider entrepreneurship as a process that involves different processes and people, which, together, bring about changes and the transformation of ideas into real opportunities (DORNELAS, 2008). It is, therefore, based on the conception exposed by Dornelas (2008), of a process of innovation, of creation, in which dedication of effort and time necessary for its implementation is required, assuming indispensable risks, enjoying, in the end, of the rewards arising from the entrepreneurial attitude, which consist of the independence and personal satisfaction of those who decide to undertake.

Thus, innovation/creation, the dedication of necessary effort and time, the assumption of essential risks and independence and personal satisfaction as rewards are characteristics of entrepreneurship, and it is therefore based on these that the entrepreneurial attitude must be analyzed.

2.2.2 Fundamental processes in the entrepreneurial process

2.2.2.1 Creativity and innovation

For Wright, Kroll and Parnell (2010), it is possible to explain the speed with which changes occur in contemporary times based on the constant technological advances experienced at that time, as well as the ease of access to information.

From this perspective, therefore, it is possible to consider that the contemporary external environment, much more than at any other time to date, exerts continued pressure on organizations, pushing them to make changes and adopt an innovative stance in conducting business. .

In Ferraz's view*et al*. (2010), however, it cannot be said that innovation requires only external stimulus; on the contrary, for the authors, it also requires internal receptivity to change. According to the authors, many attempts to seek innovation come up against internal resistance to change, being perceived by members of the organization as incompatible with the interests that exist there, as well as with the evident distribution of resources.

In this sense, there are also the notes of Bom Angelo (2013), according to whom entrepreneurial strategies require a scenario in which its members value innovation, believing that this is the expected and accepted way to deal with challenges arising from the external environment.

In this way, we envision a process of innovation development based on the understanding of innovation as one of the characteristic elements of entrepreneurship, as already mentioned in the previous subchapter, with such behavior being desired by those who seek to provide structural changes in contemporary organizations.

According to Bessant and Tidd (2009), there are two ways for entrepreneurs to innovate. One of them is having the idea and starting everything from scratch, preparing the business plan, the fundamental reason for its creation being the scope of attracting external investment.

In fact, when starting a new business, attracting external investment is essential for the entrepreneur, with the business plan serving, in this context, to demonstrate how viable the business model presented is, and what the intended designs are. to give it so that success can be achieved in such an undertaking.

Before all this, however, according to Bessant and Tidd (2009), one must observe the existence of a cycle to be followed by the entrepreneur, which identifies several steps to be followed so that it is actually possible to put the idea into action, making the company can function. Such steps, which can be considered stages of the enterprise cycle, are identified in Figure 1, which seeks to illustrate the process established within its scope.

Figure 1 – Enterprise cycle

Source: Adapted from Bessant and Tidd (2009).

There are, therefore, ten characteristic steps in the enterprise cycle, which are delimited as follows: the first step is the motivation of the entrepreneur, considered his initial idea, the kick-start, so to speak, of the innovative attitude, which will provide improvements the organization's performance (BESSANT; TIDD, 2009). In this regard, an important lesson is the lesson drawn from the work of Hirisch, Peters and Sheperd (2009), according to whom motivation can be understood as the birth of the entrepreneurial spirit, even if it has not actually materialized.

The second step, according to Hirisch, Peters and Shepherd (2009), is the moment following the idea, of reason. This is because it is at this moment that we will seek to outline the idea more specifically, thus determining means to find, develop and protect it. Regarding this, Bessant and Tidd (2009) make an important contribution, stating in their work:

> **How to find, develop and protect an idea:**Finding an idea: The entrepreneur usually already has an idea in mind, his obstacle will be perhaps knowing where it can be used, that is, which sector his product or service will represent, what type of audience, this is the understanding of find an idea (BESSANT; TIDD, 2009, p. 62).

The next two steps of the venture cycle, according to Bessant and Tidd (2009), still follow this bias of implementing the business, as they are where the entrepreneur will analyze the social, economic and legal surroundings of his idea, carrying out, As soon as you can determine these factors, a first analytical assessment of everything you have about the idea as a whole.

It is, therefore, the elaboration of a general diagnosis, which covers aspects relating to both the entrepreneur and the product and company being created. These steps are extremely important to achieve the final objective, considering that it is at this moment that you will have support to make the decision whether to continue with the business or whether you should stop at that point, going back and reanalyzing its viability (BESSANT; TIDD , 2009).

Once this moment has passed, an analysis of the external environment must be carried out, investigating the factors that could impact the business, followed by an analysis of the internal environment, with the elaboration of the commercial policy to be adopted by the company, the resources necessary to its existence and maintenance and aspects related to accounting and financial planning of the business (BESSANT; TIDD, 2009).

Finally, the business plan is prepared and the legal constitution of the company begins, which requires, according to Hirisch, Peters and Sheperd (2009), the elaboration of the constitutive acts and their respective registration with the State Commercial Board.

This cycle, however, is easier to apply to businesses that emerge from scratch. In the case of companies that already exist, there will be limitations. This is because, when the company already exists, there is a burden; it needs to improve its production, directing their employees... all of this ends up becoming an obstacle for the entrepreneur to act, especially one who does not study ways to continue entrepreneurship (BESSANT; TIDD, 2009).

However, the situation of those who want to start a business is different: when the entrepreneur has time to study and analyze his idea and know how to invest and apply it, the existing company needs to innovate, know how to adapt the organization and prepare it for new technologies (BESSANT; TIDD, 2009). It is, therefore, based on these notes that we will begin to address, in the next subchapter, leadership in entrepreneurship, already touching on aspects inherent to the study carried out now.

2.2.3 Leadership in entrepreneurship

As was the case when we outlined brief lines about entrepreneurship, it is proposed, at this point, to equally treat leadership in its conceptual aspects, in order to make citizens aware of the institute that is being discussed in the present study.

In common sense, it is possible to identify as a leader, in a few words, someone who has influence over a certain group, in order to make them act as intended. It should not be confused, however, with someone who has the power to command, attributed by their role (like the manager, for example); the leader would occupy this position by choice of the group itself, which recognizes such power in his person, and wants him to make decisions for everyone, leading them to the common objective outlined. From this perspective, leadership would then be the leader's ability to influence people, making them act in the way he idealizes and suggests, and not imposed. And this is exactly the concept that Vergara (2005) brings about leadership.

According to what is stated in the Mirador International Encyclopedia (1987), the term leadership would have had its first record in 825 AD. It is a word coming from the English verb *to lead*, which has the meaning, among others, of crossing, captaining, heading, forwarding, persuading, commanding, guiding, directing, leading.

In the year 1300, there is documentation of the term *leader*, which means captain, handler, conductor – in other words, it is the person who takes on the role of guiding, leading. It was also at the time that the term *leading*, a noun of the verb *to lead*, whose translation is equivalent to “action of driving” (ENCICLOPÉDIA MIRADOR INTERNACIONAL, 1987, p. 6790). Later, in 1834, the term *leadership* appears with the meaning of driver, boss, guide (ENCICLOPÉDIA MIRADOR INTERNACIONAL, 1987).

For Marquis and Houston (1999), the origin of the term leader dates back to the 14th century, whose meaning would be the one who leads; Leadership, in turn, according to these authors, is presented in English only in the early mid-19th century. Bergamini (2013) also provides important information in this regard, stating that the first studies conducted on leadership addressed its association with the ability to exert influence over those led, seeking to achieve a given objective.

According to this author, the concern shown with the systematization of behaviors and attributes inherent to leaders seems to arise from the roles that are played, historically, by figures who can be considered great leaders (BERGAMINI, 2013).

In this sense, it is worth highlighting that, according to Bergamini (2013), great leaders did not always hold the power itself in their hands; In fact, they were common people, from the people, who, despite their condition, were able to influence those who admired their attributes, in a natural way. Among them, he mentions Jesus Christ, Moses, Muhammad, Gandhi, Robespierre, Zumbi dos Palmares and Tiradentes, among countless others.

Wagner III and Hollenbeck (2009) also follow in this sense, stating that leadership consists of the individual's ability to influence and be influenced by the group he leads, giving such behavioral interference through a process of adequate interpersonal relationships so that objectives that are common to everyone involved can be achieved.

Hunter (2009) is similarly positioned, for whom leadership consists of the ability to influence people, making them work enthusiastically, seeking to achieve objectives that have been identified as pertinent to the common good. Jordan (2010 *apud* PANZENHAGEN; NEZ, 2012), in turn, maintains that leadership consists of the art of leading people to do what is necessary of their own free will. “It's getting your people to want to do what needs to be done” (JORDÃO, 2010 *apud* PANZENHAGEN; NEZ, 2012, p. 4). Thus, true leadership, however, for Hunter (2009), would be built on authority, which, in turn, has as its foundations service and sacrifice, which is based on love. Everything, however, would begin with the desire to serve others. Looking at this scale from its initial (increasing) perspective, according to the aforementioned author, such authority is achieved by the ability to make people carry out the leader's will – willingly, however; not because they are forced to do so (coercion), but because of their personal influence and power, which is subsumed in the ability to force or oblige others to do their will, even if it is not in their interests, due to their hierarchical position.

In this context, it must be emphasized that such ability is questionable and necessary when considering the extreme responsibility held by the leader which, according to Lacombe (2005), is based on the following:

> a) the future and desirable state of the organization is in your hands, which forces you to develop a mental image of it, establishing a long-term vision and, based on it, making your team members accompany you in the fight for business objectives;
> b) the duty to communicate the new organizational vision is also your responsibility. To do this, you must have communication as an organizational ally, sending everyone the message of this new business context; c) it is necessary for those led to act in accordance with the new organizational vision. In this case, the leader will need to create trust through positioning, thus demonstrating honesty, character, courage and confidence, which will lead his followers to act as intended;
> d) learning is perpetual. Nobody knows everything about everything. There is always something to learn. For the leader, this is not a quality, but a duty. Leaders must be perpetual learners, as the

constant learning is its engine, causing new ideas and challenges to emerge, resulting in knowledge for everything new that may happen.

In the organizational context, therefore, the leader would assume an innovative role, with a view to the growth of the organization: when encountering problems with the team, he would seek to help, encouraging and showing where the team made a mistake, seeking to provide ways to act correctly, so that the same mistakes are not made again, thus motivating those led for the work to be performed (PANZENHAGEN; NEZ, 2012).

However, the leader's influence on those they follow does not always occur in the same way. Chiavenato (2014) points out four distinct situations, which he calls the degrees of influence of the leader's attitudes on his followers. They are: degree of coercion, related to the idea of constraining, coercing or forcing through compulsion or pressure; and degree of persuasion, in which the leader prevails over the led without, however, forcing him to do so.

In persuasion, followers accomplish what the leader expects through their advice, arguments or instructions. Again, they are not forced: they do it through the persuasion exercised by the leader; degree of suggestion, in which the leader puts or presents a proposal, an idea or a plan, in order to make them consider, ponder or execute it; degree of emulation, in which one seeks to imitate vigorously, to equal or surpass, or, at least, become almost equal to someone. Looking at this scale from its initial (increasing) perspective, according to the aforementioned author, such authority is achieved by the ability to lead people so that they carry out the leader's will – willingly, however, not because they are forced to do so (coercion), but through their personal influence (HUNTER, 2009). In this way, as Maximiano (2017) rightly points out, there would be a clear differentiation between the leader and the one who uses the power conferred by their hierarchical position to get what they want. This is because, according to the author, while the leader gets what he wants without forcing anyone to do so, the manager, for example, gets people to act in the way he expects using the power of direction given to him by his position in the hierarchy. of the organization.

2.3 ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

Some scholars divide public entrepreneurs into the categories of political entrepreneur, bureaucratic entrepreneur, executive entrepreneur and political entrepreneur (HOLCOMBE, 2002; KROPP; ZOLIN, 2008; LEWIS, 1980; ROBERTS, 1992). Other scholars view public service entrepreneurs in terms of the role they play. For example, Klein*et al.*, (2010) suggest that public service entrepreneurs play four different roles: rules of the game, new public organization, creative management of public resources and lover of private actions for the public domain.

Similarly, Dhliwayo (2017) suggests that public service entrepreneurs play three different roles: economic facilitation and regulation, political-civil service agent, and participation in the commercial market. We define a public service entrepreneur as follows: To achieve an organization's goal, an employee works beyond what is required of their job, goes above and beyond, and suggests ideas or policies that improve the way the organization and its members work.

This definition considers entrepreneurship in terms of the roles that employees play and aligns with studies by Morris and Jones (1999), in which public service entrepreneurs find better ways to provide public services by combining and exploiting public and private resources and creating value for the organization and citizens.

Likewise, this definition aligns with Roberts' (1992) statement that the entrepreneurial process in public service has:

a) creation phase (new idea);

b) design phase (prototype); It is

c) implementation phase (innovation).

Therefore, a public service entrepreneur can explore and exploit opportunities (KEARNEY*et al.*, 2008; KLEIN, 2008; LEYDEN; LINK, 2015; SHANE; VENKATARAMAN, 2000), is involved in innovative activities (e.g., providing new ideas) and is proactive (HAYTER*et al*, 2018; KEARNEY*et al.*, 2009) and performative (CLAUSEN, 2020).

In fact, in order for public service entrepreneurs to find better ways to deliver services, they they would have to present new ideas, create a project and manage the resources necessary to implement the ideas (HAYTER*et al.*, 2018).

2.3.1 Justifications for innovating in public service

It is generally accepted that innovation is at the heart of economic growth and prosperity and that, at least in private service, innovation occurs through a process of creative destruction that is driven by corporate action. It is less clear to what extent entrepreneurial action is possible or advisable in servicepublic as a mechanism to drive innovation.

However, although the public service has a different institutional structure from the private service and, therefore, a different set of motivations, risks and rewards, incentives and constraints. It can also benefit from something like the private service's entrepreneurial drive as a mechanism for generating public service innovations that contribute to economic growth and prosperity. The potential benefit of public service innovation is great.

Although the size of the public service varies by country, the size of the public service in an average country is one-third of that country's economy. This size suggests that public service innovation has the potential to contribute significantly to a country's economic growth and prosperity by reducing the cost of providing public services and increasing the quality and variety of those services and, indirectly, improving the private service productivity through expansion and improvement of the infrastructure provided by the public service on which the private service depends.

2.3.1.1 Leadership and relationships

When mentioning the issue "leadership and relationships", it should be noted that one of the discussions found in the literature, research on the topic "leadership" is that it is born "ready", so to speak, or if there are skills that can be learned. Andrea McAleenan (*apud*MENDES, 1998), chosen by Peter Drucker to manage his business administration school, is a supporter of this second opinion – that is, that there are skills that can be learned so that a person can exercise leadership.

Fiorelli (2007) highlights the following as skills that facilitate the exercise of leadership, contributing to reducing interpersonal barriers, increasing feelings of identification and establishing emotional bonds: ability to observe (a good observer is patient, seeks details, uses discretion, respects privacy and pursues neutrality); ability to listen; ability to speak (the quality of listening, according to the said author, often manifests itself when the person responds to an explicit or implicit question or, simply, gives an opinion).

In other words, citing Miranda and Miranda (1993*apud*FIORELLI, 2007), the speech of the person listening can signal their level of understanding of the message being transmitted.For Fiorelli (2007), often, the only demand of speech is to be understood, involved. According to the said author, seeing and listening in depth require involvement, thus having the ability to, at a moment, be part of the situation that surrounds the problem that the other presents – which does not mean, on the other hand, letting oneself be dominated by them. enthusiasms, joys, fears and anxieties experienced by the other person.

For him, involvement constitutes the key to understanding the logic that directs the other's thinking; understanding. According to Fiorelli (2007, p. 220), "[...] when understanding, the leader discriminates between the 'figure' and the 'ground' in messages, the essential and the accessory; identifies thought schemes and even defense mechanisms of those led"); congruence (the need for congruence can force the leader to review their behavioral styles); giving and receiving feedback (the objective is to ensure good quality communication with those led); body language; and ability to guide, according to Fiorelli (2007), recognized leaders understand that communication constitutes the basis for establishing leadership, and that all other attributes are supporting to the process of guiding).

According to Chiavenato (2003), for humanists, leadership can be viewed from different angles, namely:

a) leadership as a phenomenon of interpersonal influence. Here, for humanists, leadership would appear as the interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the process of human communication towards the achievement of one or more specific objectives. Thus, according to the author, leadership would appear as a social phenomenon and exclusively in social groups, arising from relationships between people in a given social structure, thus not having any relationship with the leader's personal personality traits;

b) leadership as a process of reducing uncertainty in a group. According to Chiavenato (2003), the degree to which an individual demonstrates leadership quality depends not only on their own personal characteristics, but also on the characteristics of the situation in which they find themselves. In this sense, leadership would be seen as a continuous process of choice that allows the company to move towards its goal, to the detriment of all internal and external disturbances. In this scenario, there would be a tendency for the group to choose as leader the one who can provide the greatest assistance and guidance to achieve their objectives, thus highlighting leadership as a matter of reducing group uncertainty through decision making. In other words, at this point, the leader would be a decision maker or the one who helps the group to make appropriate decisions (CHIAVENATO, 2003);

c) leadership as a functional relationship between leader and subordinates. For humanists, according to Chiavenato (2003), the relationship between leader and followers rests on three generalizations, which are: life for each person can be seen as a continuous struggle to satisfy needs, alleviate tensions and maintain balance; most individual needs are satisfied through relationships with other people and social groups; and, for the person, the process of relating to other people is an active – not passive – process of satisfying needs. Here, then, the leader would emerge as a means to achieve the objectives desired by the group, thus consisting of a strategist who knows how to indicate directions for people (CHIAVENATO, 2003);

d) leadership as a process depending on the leader, followers and situation variables. From this angle of analysis, leadership would depend on variables in the leader, subordinates and the situation; in other words, its emergence would occur through the combination of personal characteristics of the leader, subordinates and the situation that surrounds them. In this scenario, the leader would appear as the person who knows how to combine and adjust all these characteristics, which is why it can be said that there is no single and exclusive type for each situation (CHIAVENATO, 2003).

For Bergamini (2013), three approaches can be identified when defining the term “leadership”. They are: a) concern with what the leader is. According to the author, some authors associate leadership with personal characteristics, for example charisma and firmness. This is, however, a very restricted approach, as it presupposes that leadership is a natural gift;

b) concern about what the leader does. Here, different leadership styles would be identified, seeking to correlate the leader's behavior, regardless of their personal characteristics, with the effectiveness of their leadership: the extremes, namely, authoritarian and democratic. These include other leadership styles;

c) situational theories. Here, two other variables that determine the effectiveness of the leader were worked on, namely, the characteristics of the leader and the environmental circumstances of the organization. In this way, Bergamini (1994, p. 14) adds, there would not be an ideal leader profile, nor an ideal leadership style, but rather a style more suited to the existing situation. For this reason, the idea that leadership is a natural gift is contested here, with its followers arguing that training aimed at creating leaders is possible. According to Banov (2008), the concept of leadership style refers to the way leaders behave and what they use to control the behavior of their followers. In this context, Chiavenato (2011) identifies the following styles, reflecting specific aspects of each of them:

Table 1 – The three leadership styles

AUTOCRATIC	DEMOCRATIC	LIBERAL (LAISSEZ-FAIRE)
– The guidelines are set by the leader, without any participation from the group	– The guidelines are debated and decided by the group, which, in turn, is stimulated and assisted by the leader	– There is total freedom for group or individual decisions and minimal participation from the leader
– The measures for carrying out tasks are determined by the leader, each one in turn, as they become necessary and in an unpredictable way for the group	– Tasks gain new perspectives with debates; the group outlines measures to achieve the target and seeks advice from the leader, who suggests alternatives for the group to choose from	– The leader’s participation is limited, presenting only varied materials to the group, clarifying that he could provide information as long as they asked for it
– The task that each person must perform and their work partner are determined by the leader	– The division of tasks is at the discretion of the group, with each member having the freedom to choose their work companions	– Both the division of tasks and the choice of colleagues are completely up to the group. Absolute lack of leader participation
– The leader is domineering and personal in praising and criticizing each member’s work	– The leader is objective, limiting himself to the facts in criticism and praise. Try to be a normal member of the group, in spirit	– The leader does not evaluate the group or control events, only commenting on activities when asked

Source: Adapted from Chiavenato (2011, p. 125).

According to Araújo*et al.* (2011), the autocratic style of leadership is characterized by the individual authoritarianism of the leader, who sets standards and imposes them, without listening to subordinates. These authors emphasize that the autocratic leader's stance is highly directive, driven only by carrying out tasks, which, in turn, are determined by him, without opening any space for the creativity and participation of those he leads. In this context, the aforementioned authors highlight, it is common to observe frustration on the part of subordinates, which consequently favors a workplace conducive to tension, stress and demotivation on the part of subordinates.

In democratic leadership, the leader proposes the participation of all employees in the debates held. That enables integration, in addition to the development of measures and techniques to achieve the expected objective. Support for those led is also observed, with the development of bonds of friendship and cordiality towards them. This stance comes from his positioning as an equal member and in the same position as the others, not being in a privileged position due to his status as leader. This leadership style promotes greater engagement among people, as they are important in carrying out the company's tasks and objectives. They thus result in greater results, attributed to the good interpersonal relationship between the leader and those led (ARAÚJO*et al.*, 2011).

At the*laissez-faire*, the leader's intervention is minimal, with broad freedom for groups and individuals to make decisions, regardless of whether the leader knows them or not. There are also no imposition of rules, with the execution of tasks carried out by the group itself, without the participation of the representative figure of leadership.

Any normal employee, faced with a situation like the one described, would feel like they were in employee paradise; however, if, on the one hand, the employee feels at ease, as there are no imposed rules to be followed, on the other hand, it must be agreed that he favors disrespect, confusion and impunity, considering that there is no an active voice to drive processes, determine roles and resolve conflicts. In other words, to direct the work. For this reason, it is not surprising that this style of leadership leads to a process of business failure (ARAÚJO*et al.*, 2011).

Thus, the aspects of leadership, in general, demonstrate that leaders have different perspectives in their work as an important factor, all of which revolve around one: the development of a new vision of human relations. In other words, the leader understands, in his management, that the important thing is to maintain a (good) relationship with his followers; after all, without them, there would be no leadership (VERGARA, 2005).

It is, therefore, good and convenient for the manager to assume, in his management, the role of leader towards his subordinates, directing them to achieve organizational objectives. But everything in a very calm and normal way, doing what is peculiar to him: influencing people (VERGARA, 2005).

In this sense, it can be said that those who become the best leaders take advantage of the widest possible range of opportunities: they try, fail and learn from their mistakes. They become better when they are enthusiastic participants in changes (BERGAMINI, 2013).

2.3.1.2 Public interest

We draw on public management theory and empirical research on public service innovation to propose a framework for collecting micro-level data on the value of research and public policy to support public service innovation. The public policy issue shared with business innovation research is to collect data to make a*benchmarking*the prevalence and activities of innovation.

Political interest in innovation culture, the strategies and tools that managers use to innovate, and incentives for innovation are based on the effect of these factors on innovation outcomes. Innovation research needs to provide sufficient data to identify "what works" and what impedes innovation. Analysis of these factors is also necessary for specific types of innovations, as what works for developing a new service may be different from what works for improving an internal process.

Better data collection on public service innovation would create a research program, in the same way that implementing the Oslo Manual guidelines and implementing multiple business innovation surveys resulted in a new research program on business service innovation, leading to valuable insights for innovation theory and policy.

The number of academic papers using European Community Innovation Survey (ECIS) data on business innovation has increased from less than 10 per year in the 1990s to nearly 100 in 2013, in part due to ECIS data creating opportunities for innovation research (ARUNDEL*et al.*, 2015).

The creation of a new research program on public service innovation would be greatly aided by government support for data collection. The first step in this direction would be the formal establishment of international guidelines on measuring public service innovation by the OECD Working Group of National Experts on Science and Technology Indicators.

There is also a need for further experimentation in collecting data on public service innovation. Although there is good evidence of how to collect high-quality data about the strategies and tools that managers use to innovate and the innovation capabilities of their organizations, to date research has not attempted to capture the existence and effectiveness of high-level strategies to support innovation, such as a strategic management policy for innovation.

Adding a strategic and systematic perspective to data collection would enable analyzes that can link innovation capabilities and practices to the motivation or "why" of innovation activities.The types of innovations that are produced with and without a strategic approach to innovation and the differences in innovation result in management strategies to support innovation.

The ability to measure management strategies for innovation and how they are implemented at different levels in an organization would help both in theory and practice. Furthermore, a strategic approach to public service innovation would support research into the optimal boundaries for dividing responsibility for innovation between the political and administrative wings of the public service.
While the focus of this framework is on innovation in the public service, as opposed to all service providers such as education or healthcare, it would be worth experimenting with using the same (or similar) survey questionnaire to collect data from companies active in the same industry. services. This would allow direct comparisons between service innovations provided by the public service and by private companies.
Experimentation should also further explore the use of questions about a single innovation, which could illuminate differences in the sourcing of ideas for different types of innovations and potentially provide high-quality data on innovation investments. A crucial area for experimentation is improving data on the results of public service innovation. This requires better subjective data on the value of service innovations to citizens and interval-level data on the contribution of public service innovation to efficiency improvements.

2.3.2 Factors that inhibit and facilitate entrepreneurship in the public service

To know where to prioritize and what type of innovation to adopt, it is recommended to identify and develop the innovation capacity of the public service (VALLADARES; VASCONCELLOS; DI SERIO, 2014), which can determine the success or failure of the innovation process and service results. public. The following table describes eight innovative capabilities, which also affect the public service's propensity to undertake.

Table 2 – Innovative capabilities of entrepreneurship in the public service

Capabilities	Definition
Transformative leadership	One that makes its followers more aware of the importance and value of work; activates your higher order needs; and induces them to transcend their personal interests for the benefit of the organization.
Strategic intention to innovate	Degree to which the organization is willing to take risks to promote change, technological development and innovation and to compete aggressively in order to obtain a better result in terms of efficiency, efficacy and effectiveness for the organization in a way that is noticeable to society
People management for innovation	Orientation of people management towards innovation, providing freedom or autonomy of action to employees, establishing challenging goals, allowing them to decide how to achieve them and encouraging self-realization and commitment to the organization's objectives.
Knowledge of the target audience	Ability to detect events, needs, expectations, significant changes and trends of the target audience. Realize changes in advance and manage them appropriately.
Strategic technology management	Management of the creation and development process of technologies, aiming at creating value. The technology management process comprises five stages: identification, selection, acquisition, exploration and protection.

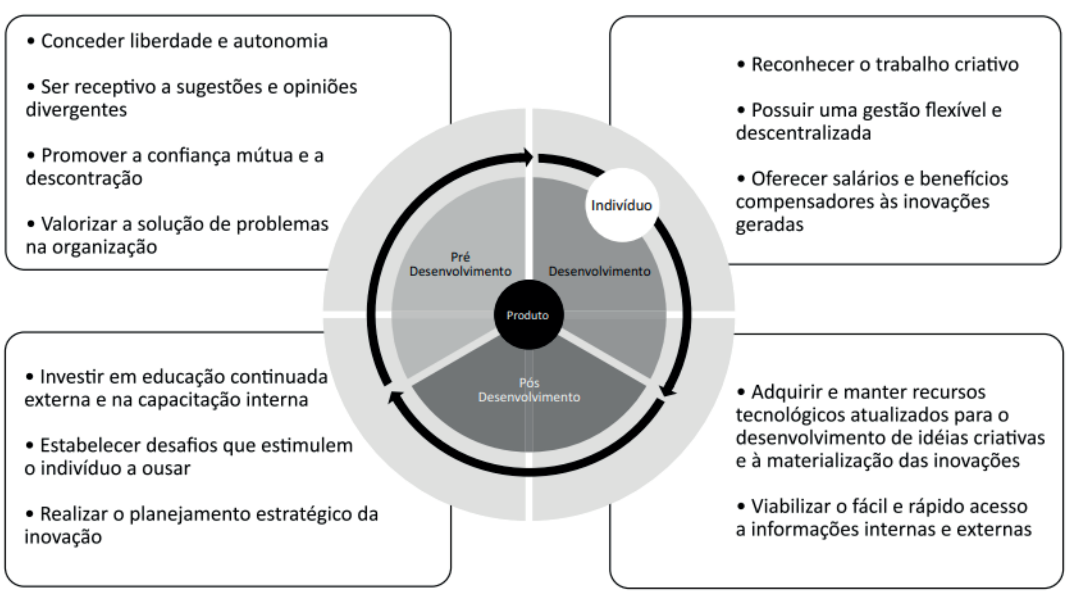
Organicity of the organizational structure	Degree to which the structure is characterized by granting autonomy, flexible controls, unimpeded horizontal communication, valuing knowledge and experience, and informality in personal relationships. So-called organic structures allow a faster response to changes in the external environment than those called mechanistic.
Innovation performance	Innovative organizations or work units are those that exhibit consistent entrepreneurial and innovative behaviors over time.
Project management	Planning, provision of resources, execution and control of the innovation process. It includes careful project evaluation, analysis and planning, mainly aimed at gaining understanding, commitment and support from *stakeholders* involved in the project.

Source: Emmendoerfer (2019, p. 47-48).

Regarding the implementation of Public Service Innovation (ISP) application types, it can be seen from the table above that project management is the required skill for organizational innovation. Therefore, Situational Strategic Planning (PES) developed by Chilean economist Carlos Matus is a way of implementing public plans and projects, aiming to implement the process and results of focusing on the collective interests of relevant people (FRAGA, 2018).

The PES will make this possible considering the political role of including planners and the behavior of all participants in the formulation of public policies based on consensus among the various social actors in the deliberative space (HUERTAS, 1996). Dewes *et al.* (2012) found that the products of ISP projects can be developed to achieve the expected results, and the organizational environment can be conducive to the implementation of innovation in the public service, as shown in the following figure.

Figure 2 – Facilitating elements in organizations in the ISP development process



Source: Dewes *et al.* (2012, p. 13).

In this sense, ISP project management comes from an environment that facilitates innovation and is inspired by the work of Amaral *et al.* (2011), having objectives and capabilities to make the project management process simpler, flexible and interactive, in order to obtain the best results in terms of performance (time, cost and quality) and added value for interested parties.
Innovation is expected to be a way of presenting good solutions with positive results to alleviate or eliminate public problems, which will awaken people's sensitivity and recognition. However, it is important to realize

that there are some obstacles that can act as inhibitors of the PSI project and process in the organization, as shown in the following table.

Table 3 – Elements inhibiting innovation by types of application

Relevant for	Innovations from product	Innovations in process	Organizational innovations	Innovations in marketing
Factors relating to cost				
Scratchs perceived as excessive	X	X	X	X
Very high cost	X	X	X	X
Shortage in internal financing	X	X	X	X
Shortage in financing in other sources outside the organization:				
Venture capital or public sources of financing	X	X	X	X
Factors relating to knowledge:				
Potential innovative (R&D, design etc.) insufficient	X	X		X
Staff shortage qualified:				
– Inside the organization	X	X		X
– In the market work	X	X		X
Shortage in information about technology	X	X		
Shortage in information about you markets	X			X
Disabilities at availability in external services	X	X	X	X
Difficulty in meet partners for cooperation in:				
- Development of product or process	X	X		
– Partnerships in marketing	X	X		X
Internal inflexibilities in the organizations:				
Staff attitude towards change	X	X	X	X
Management's attitude towards change	X	X	X	X

management structure of organization	X	X	X	X
Inability to direct you employees to the innovation activities due to the production requirements	X	X		
Market factors:				
Demand uncertain for innovative goods or services	X			X
Market potential dominated by companies foreign	X			X
Institutional factors:				
Shortage in infrastructure	X	X		X
Fragility of the patrimonial property rights It is intellectual	X			X
Legislation, regulations, standards, taxation	X	X		X
Other reasons not to innovate:				
No need in innovate due in old innovations	X	X	X	X
No need resulting from the lack of demand for innovations	X			X

Source: Emmendoerfer (2019, p. 52-53).

3 FINAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.1 CONCLUSION

Leaders in any organization play an important role, so learning to improve your skills is critical. Thus, leadership behavior is crucial for entrepreneurship in the public service. Leaders in an organization can build team cohesion, which is helpful for better performance, productivity, trust, and social capital among team members.

This trust between members of a group can help when they are faced with a challenging situation or when they are improving on assigned tasks. For example, strengths allow members to take criticism and feedback from the group and consider it constructive. The findings also demonstrate that relationship- and change-oriented behaviors go hand in hand.

Entrepreneurial activity requires adapting to change as well as managing change. Manage changes in public organizations can be challenging, as employees tend to get used to routines established in the organization over many years, communicative leaders can motivate employees to involved in the change process.

Although organizational routines can contribute positively to the success of the organization, they can also give a false sense of competence to members who may miss opportunities in a changing environment. It is possible for established routines to create problems for leaders due to employee inertia.

Employee inertia can prevent the organization as a whole from adjusting to a changing scenario, which can be detrimental to carrying out entrepreneurial activity.

Another interesting finding is the effect of employees' current positions on public service entrepreneurship. This study contributes to this discussion by demonstrating that, in fact, managers are more entrepreneurial than

than front-line employees.
Managers have the right skills, attitudes and behaviors for entrepreneurship. This demonstrates the importance of human capital for business activity not only in the private service, but also in the public service. This finding is also consistent with studies showing that senior managers' private work experiences affect their attitudes toward management, including attitudes toward efficiency, achievement orientation, and innovation. Additionally, agency size is typically not statistically significant, and workplaces have mixed results and no significant results across models.
However, it should also be noted that most public organizations are larger than those in the private service. These findings challenge earlier studies of private service entrepreneurship that compared private organizations, in which types of organizations and workplaces have important effects on innovation and entrepreneurship. Stability and education are positively associated with entrepreneurship for all employees. Therefore, it is suggested that employees' entrepreneurship can increase with their work experience and education, suggesting that entrepreneurship can be learned and improved.
Another interesting finding is that women are more entrepreneurial than men. This is consistent with new studies that have found that women are more entrepreneurial, although men and women differ in terms of entrepreneurial behaviors.
For example, the presence of women councilors and administrative managers influences local financial decision-making. They found that the presence of women advisors leads to more risk-averse financial decision-making. Women are described as “prudent entrepreneurs”.
Overall, the findings of this study imply that, typically and compared to private organizations, in public organizations, size, workplace and agency do not have significant effects on employee entrepreneurship since budgets are stable, resources are guaranteed and organizations do not compete with each other. What matters for entrepreneurship in public organizations is leadership and, in particular, leadership focused on relationships.

3.2 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

Future studies could collect data in other countries, particularly non-OECD countries, to test the effects of entrepreneurship in public service. This study analyzes public entrepreneurship from a management perspective.
Future research could consider analyzing entrepreneurship from a policy or macro-level perspective, such as testing institutional effects for entrepreneurship.
In addition to suggesting that future research on public entrepreneurship be carried out at the societal or macro levels, including “the co-evolution of public and private interests, institutions, resources, activities and governance in the formulation of rules”, “the creation of new public companies”, “the innovative management of public resources” and “the public propagation benefits of private entrepreneurship”.
Furthermore, future studies can test the effects of other leadership behaviors on entrepreneurship in the public service.

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