

## The competency approach in entrepreneurship: Conceptual framework

### مقاربة الكفاءات في ريادة الأعمال: إطار مفاهيمي

Lynda BOUMEZBEUR * <sup>1</sup>	Nacer DADDI ADDOUN <sup>2</sup>	
École Supérieure de Commerce, Algeria <a href="mailto:l_boumezbeur@esc-alger.dz">l_boumezbeur@esc-alger.dz</a>	École Supérieure de Sécurité Sociale, Algeria <a href="mailto:dadi_nacer2003@yahoo.fr">dadi_nacer2003@yahoo.fr</a>	
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#### Abstract

The present article aims to offer a conceptual framework for the field of entrepreneurship. Drawing on the competency approach from human resources management and entrepreneurship, we aim to highlight the impact of competencies on organizational performance and entrepreneurial business success. Our methodology relies on a theoretical review. We analyze existing research on competencies in entrepreneurship, aiming to understand their impact on organizational performance and individual entrepreneurial success. This review process allows us to identify key research contributions and solidify the importance of competencies for success in the entrepreneurial world. By exploring this competency approach, we aim to offer a conceptual framework applicable to the Algerian entrepreneurial landscape. The core question remains: How was the competency approach to entrepreneurship born, and in which perspective can we benefit from it in Algeria?

**Keywords:** Competencies, Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurial Competencies.

**JEL Classification :** M1, M13, M210.

#### الملخص

يهدف هذا المقال إلى تقديم إطار مفاهيمي لمجال ريادة الأعمال. من خلال الاعتماد على مقارنة الكفاءات في إدارة الموارد البشرية وريادة الأعمال، نسعى لتسليط الضوء على تأثير الكفاءات على الأداء التنظيمي ونجاح الأعمال الريادية. تعتمد المنهجية المتبعة على مراجعة نظرية. حيث نقوم بتحليل الأبحاث الموجودة حول الكفاءات في ريادة الأعمال، بهدف فهم تأثيرها على الأداء التنظيمي ونجاح الأفراد في ريادة الأعمال. تتيح لنا عملية المراجعة هذه تحديد المساهمات البحثية الرئيسية وتعزيز أهمية الكفاءات لتحقيق النجاح في عالم ريادة الأعمال. من خلال استكشاف هذا النهج القائم على الكفاءات، نسعى إلى تقديم إطار مفاهيمي قابل للتطبيق على الواقع الريادي الجزائري. يبقى السؤال الأساسي: كيف نشأ نهج الكفاءات في ريادة الأعمال، ومن أي منظور يمكننا الاستفادة منه في الجزائر؟

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** الكفاءات، ريادة الأعمال، الكفاءات الريادية.

\* Corresponding author.

<sup>1</sup> ليندة بومزبر، المدرسة العليا للتجارة، الجزائر.

<sup>2</sup> ناصر دادي عدون، المدرسة العليا للضمان الاجتماعي، الجزائر.

## Introduction:

After the economic changes that the world had witnessed during the twentieth century, particularly after the economic crisis of 1975 and both oil shocks in 1973 and 1982, businesses had to face a new economic context that is characterized by the globalization of markets and hyper-competition (Porter, 1986), as well as the rapid evolution of ICT and the demands of the workforce (Daddi Addoun, 2007). The field of entrepreneurship had been evolving in parallel with these turbulent circumstances; the crisis of the mid-1970s is considered a driving force for stimulating business creation and encouraging the implementation of aid and assistance measures for entrepreneurship (Torrès, Petitesse et mondialisation : l'hypothèse de proximité., 2005). This had the impact of a tendency in organizations' behaviour and management methods to consider new ways of development and prosperity. To boost performance, new practical thinking frameworks have been developed, supported by the paradigm of sustainable development, quality management, and knowledge management, particularly in the case of small businesses.

The consideration of competencies as a booster for organizational performance and success in entrepreneurial activity was born and developed implicitly in multiple theoretical approaches in management sciences. Algeria, a country with a social vocation and low economic competition (Benamar, 2010), is beginning to open its economy to drive development and benefit from the positive effects of the new model. The support systems for entrepreneurs and the delay of institutions could hinder rapid access to healthy competition based on conditions and rules of harmonized coordination between operators. This can also explain the scarcity of entrepreneurship studies and competencies specifically.

In the work, we aim, through a theoretical approach, to present the conceptual framework of competencies in the two fields, human resources management and entrepreneurship, and to define the different contours and related aspects of the competence approach.

Throughout this reflection, we try to answer the question: How was the competency approach to entrepreneurship born, and in which perspective can we benefit from it in Algeria?

To carry out our subject, which is the entrepreneurial competencies, we focus on the main approaches concerned with the appearance and development of our subject. To do so, we are

taking a logical approach to qualitative analysis, mobilizing the essential literature framework in these subjects. Thus, after going through the concept of entrepreneurship, it is necessary to clarify the components of human resources competencies at a second point. Then, we move on to the role of these competencies in entrepreneurship in a third point. Finally, it concludes with some elements of synthesis and perspective relating to the Algerian case.

### **1. Entrepreneurship: Lack of consensus**

The complexity of entrepreneurship in modern societies has caused a need for more understanding. Specialists in the field ( (Bruyat, 1993); (Filion, 1997)) have already affirmed this. Despite recognizing entrepreneurship as a practice in economic activities such as business creation, at the beginning of their creation and the phase of their survival in all sectors, for some authors, though, it remains an independent field of science (Saporta, 2003). Indeed, research in this area still needs to be completed; it is practically impossible to develop one definition or a general theory (Danjou, 2002).

For several decades, much research has been done to reach a definition of entrepreneurship or an entrepreneur, but it still needs to exist<sup>3</sup>. However, there is an agreement in the literature on entrepreneurship's positive impact on economic development. Indeed, Adam Smith mentioned that the propeller of the economy, in a framework of entrepreneurship, is the worker's effort, competencies, and ability through the creation of value and wealth (Smith, 1776). Over time, different points of view on the subject will emerge to highlight factors that can improve entrepreneurial activity.

Although entrepreneurship is a state of mind, several authors have observed, studied, and analyzed this phenomenon. For this reason, we note several schools of thought that try to explain entrepreneurial activity according to different disciplines in the social sciences.

In her study of the entrepreneurship literature, Danjou (2002, p. 110) distinguished three angles of dominant approaches adopted by the pioneers of different schools of thought in the

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<sup>3</sup> In our opinion, speaking of a unified definition of a concept or a subject is not generally accepted in scientific reflection, which remains a dynamic and contingent phenomenon.

field, namely: **the context**: the conditions and effects of entrepreneurial action; **the actor**: the entrepreneur; and **action**: the entrepreneurial process.

Therefore, we can say that the evolution of entrepreneurship research can be summarised in three main questions: “What?”, “Who & Why?” and “How?” correspond respectively to the essential approaches to entrepreneurship research: the functional approach of economists (what), the contextual (behavioural) approach of psychologists and sociologists (who & why), and the process approach of managers (how).

In addition, the phenomenon of entrepreneurship is generally associated with four paradigms proposed by Verstraete and Fayolle (2005), namely Innovation (Schumpeter, 1939 and 1935; Julien & Marchesnay, 1996; Drucker, 1985; Carlan et al., 1984; Martin, 1994). Opportunity (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Bygrave & Hofer, 1991; Timmons, 1994; Krizner, 1973; Casson, 1982). Creating an organization (Gartner, 1985, 1993, 1995; Bygrave & Hofer, 1991). Value creation (Bruyat, 1993; Morin, 1989).

## 2. Competence in a broad scope

In terminology, Parmentier (2008, p. 53) emphasized that performance is the expression of competence in a specific context. It arises from the interaction between competence, motivation, and the work context. The act of training is supposed to put them into action to translate this interaction into performance ultimately. The human factor is the bearer of qualities that reflect the knowledge implemented during his experiences ( (Becker, 1962), in (Ait Razouk, 2007)). In the field, the performance of human operators is multidimensional; with its vague concept, it is considered a contextual word that only takes on meaning in the context in which it is used.

On the other hand, even if Smith already mentioned it in his work of 1776, the essential role of human capital in driving the success of businesses has been recognized since the first reflections, at the beginning of the twentieth century, on the place of human capital in the economy of industrialized countries. Gary Becker was one of the pioneers who addressed issues related to human capital. He considers that an investment in human resources competence is profitable for companies. Subsequently, many authors have provided support for this reflection on competencies. The theoretical framework in question of the role of human resources has evolved and is closely linked with that of business performance and competitiveness.

A significant part of strategy research has arrived at the same vision, considering that a firm is efficient if it generates economic or financial value. Regarding overall performance, the concept of value encompasses two essential points linked to management and corporate governance.

### **2.1. A broader conception of performance through corporate governance**

Currently, corporate performance is associated with a more global and multidimensional aspect. Taking into account the connection between the company and the stakeholders led to the appearance of various organizational mechanisms, including governance as a set of critical measures marking the behaviour and functioning of the company (Charreaux, 1997); (Daddi Addoun, 2007)) and thus explaining the relationship between the organizational performance and the competencies of human resources.

In the classical shareholder governance model, the company was considered a nod of contacts, with little interest in aspects other than financial and economic. Governance mechanisms aim to eliminate conflicts of interest arising from the agency relationship (Jensen & Meckling, 1976) between, on the one hand, the owner of the means who seeks to ensure the performance of his property, and the manager and different actors who work there on the other hand. This view has expanded into the positive agency model, where both parties take on other positions with various interests.

Then, from a broader perspective, towards the end of the 1970s, governance saw the arrival of the partnership model, where, in stakeholder theory, each individual involved in the value creation process receives part of the residual debt<sup>4</sup>.

However, these two currents of governance (shareholders and partnership) still present limits to highlighting or valuing the role of competencies and knowledge of human capital in the company's performance.

Finally, another model came to complement the two previous approaches by integrating a more dynamic vision of governance: the cognitive model, which affects the aspect of knowledge

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<sup>4</sup> By residual debt, we mean the sharing of wealth generated by the relationship.

differently from other models and glorifies the role of human competencies in creating value and new investment opportunities, building competitive advantage and supporting innovation.

Governance, with its multiple mechanisms and facets (Carassus & Gardes, 2005); (Pérez, 2009)), has allowed the concept of performance to move from a one-dimensional framework to a multidimensional or global and more complex one. Therefore, the three approaches are complementary, and they must be addressed for effective corporate governance.

Then numerous studies have demonstrated that company performance is more linked to endogenous factors specific to the firm than exogenous factors related to the environment. Following the economic changes of the 1980s, the competition moved from static and predictable to dynamic, harsh, and flexible competition (Torrès, 1997); (Lapointe, 1995)). Adaptation to the environment is no longer sufficient to achieve performance because its uncertainty is increasingly high, which means that competitive advantage has become temporary.

## 2.2. The Resource Based View “RBV”

It is the second dominant theory defining the disciplinary field of strategic management after the theory of industrial organization (Porter, 1986). The theoretical framework of this approach has been developed by several authors (Coriat & Wenstein, 2010), such as Penrose (1995), Mintzberg (1988), Barney, Prahalad, and Wernerfelt, etc. Over time, this approach has improved to adapt to changing reality, particularly within the company, to find a workplace model that suits them. This is a shift from the concept of a contract node to a competence node, which is based on the vision of Penrose (1995), who described the enterprise as a “... collection of productive resources” that generally distinguishes between all the tangible and intangible assets mobilized and implemented by the company to achieve its objectives and improve its performance (Coriat & Wenstein, 2010).

The RBV framework focuses on the internal aspects of a company, recognizing that the development and acquisition of competitive advantages occur through the exploitation of internal capabilities and resources rather than being linked to external factors. In this vision, the company depends on both tangible and intangible resources, which are heterogeneous and dynamic. Let us analyze the characteristics of each type of resource. We will find that intangible resources take longer to develop and are difficult to acquire instantly according to the current need.

In this sense, Dierickx and Cool (1989) indicate that certain strategic assets, such as reputation and customer loyalty, cannot be acquired on the strategic factor market and must be accumulated internally. According to Mingchun and Edison (2009), there are five main parameters “of the process of accumulation of strategic resources” which are at the origin of inimitability, and therefore of sustainable competitive advantage: Time-related diseconomies; The efficiencies of the asset pool; Interconnections between assets; Asset erosion; Causal ambiguity.

In other words, if we take two companies active in the same sector and, more precisely, influenced by the same environmental forces, we will find that they always possess different intangible internal resources, which helps each company develop its competitive advantage. To create a competitive advantage, a company's resources must have four characteristics (Barney, 1991): VRIN (Valuable, Rare, Inimitable, and Non-substitutable).

- **The value:** A resource has value if it helps the company reduce costs, develop differentiation, or combine the two by increasing the value of products for customers.
- **Scarcity:** a unique resource is unavailable to competitors.
- **Inimitability:** Imitation is supposed to be imperfect or costly; an inimitable resource is difficult for competitors to implement.
- **N-substitutability:** indicates resources that are difficult and expensive to replace; it is difficult for other competing companies to find identical resources.

Then, in 1997, Barney added an element to the VRIN framework, “organization,” which appoints a process or organizational support mechanism that the company must implement to exploit the resources held optimally, essential to achieving a competitive advantage.

### 2.3. Competencies as a source of performance

Indeed, resources have been divided into six categories (Hofer & Schendel, 1978): Financial resources; physical resources (raw materials, factories, technique, geographical position...); human resources (experience, talent, social relationships, and training systems.); technological resources (patents, knowledge, capabilities, and R&D; reputation: customer loyalty, social

status.), and organizational resources (formal structure, cooperation, and control systems, formal and informal planning.)

(Grant, 1991), for his part, considers that resources must be distinguished from capabilities. He indicates that “if resources are the sources of the firm’s capacity, capabilities are the main source of its competitive advantage.” In this sense, capabilities are the organizational processes that allow good management of resources. These capabilities will enable the company to differentiate itself from its competitors. In the spirit of Hall (1992): “it is the intangible resources possessed by firms which give them a differential capacity compared to the competition.”

Competencies, intangible resources that can have links in several categories of resources (human, technological, organizational), are at the origin of building differential functional and cultural capabilities in a company. Thus, we can schematize in a simple way what was said as follows:

**Competencies → Capabilities → Sustainable competitive advantage.**

The CBV approach engages competencies as the basis for the company’s sustainable and sustainable competitive advantages in a reasonably turbulent environment. The term competence appeared in 1984 in human resources, corresponding to a change in the professional relations system. We moved from qualification to competency (Parmentier C. , 2008, p. 62), where qualification refers to the notion of the person’s position, knowledge, and know-how accredited by a collective recognition. Competence refers to the idea of the profession and the individual’s ability to cope with a given situation—initially, the notion of competence designated the concept of individual competency. Subsequently, there was a development in the analysis of the latter’s idea, which ended with the emergence of collective competencies. In the literature, there are two conceptions of competence; the first is the French conception based on (Boumane, 2007, p. 27) Knowledge: theoretical dimension; Know-how: practical dimension; Soft competencies: social and behavioural dimension.

The second is the Anglo-Saxon conception, which refers to the work of McClelland (1973, in (Tremblay & Sire, 1999)). It integrates the following components: “Hard competencies” (essential competencies): Knowledge and skills, they are necessary to meet the operational needs of the organization; “Soft competencies” (differential competencies): traits, behaviours, motivations,



linked to the personality of each person, they help to distinguish employees individually (Tremblay & Sire, 1999).

Competence logic, for its part, has constituted a theme of social debate since its appearance. In the MEDEF "Deauville Day" texts, professional competence is defined as "a combination of knowledge, know-how, experiences, and behaviours exercised in a specific context" (Richebé, 2002, p. 99).

The economic changes in this period, the evolution of ICT in particular, have meant that the company's needs tend more towards its human resources and their capacity to meet the challenges of these economic and organizational changes. New techniques, management devices, and tools require new knowledge and experience. This led to a new logic and system based on the qualification of individuals as actors and not just bearers of hierarchical position titles.

Furthermore, the advent of Small Businesses in response to these changes, particularly the technological boom, has caused a reduction in the lifespan of the product and the production tool. Thus, this reduces the capital invested in SMEs and VSEs, characterized by local management where the group's culture takes its leading role (Torrès, 1997). The particularity and conditions of the period and local management have set in, which requires more and more competence in business management in an environment of complexity.

According to the Medef definition, competence is exercised in a specific context; it is how an individual acts in the face of a situation. As Zarifian (2023, p. 2) points out: "The situation does not exist without the individual who intervenes. When we describe a situation, we also describe the individual who acts in this situation. This is very different from a job analysis. We make the individual active; the job no longer defines the qualification."

### **3. Competencies in the field of entrepreneurship**

The causal relationship between human capital competence and business performance has long been recognized in management (Katz, 1965; Mintzberg, 1980; in (Chandler A. D., 1988)). In entrepreneurship, researchers' interest in studying the causality of competencies on the success of entrepreneurs appeared late, as admitted by Dussault and Lorrain (1998, in (Laviolette & Loué, 2006, p. 6)).

The field of entrepreneurship has known two dominant approaches, which have attempted for around forty years to explain entrepreneurial performance, in other words, to justify the success of entrepreneurs against the failure of others (Verstraet & Saporta, 2006): The trait approach (individualist, deterministic or psychological) and the fact approach (behavioralist). The trait approach, which was dominated and developed by behaviourists during the 1980s, is based on the idea that the entrepreneur stands out from other citizens through specific, identifiable character traits and indicates the entrepreneurial potential of the person (Danjou, 2002, p. 112).

However, empirical studies following this line of thought have led to contradictory results and a need for more consensus in the literature on essential entrepreneurial characteristics. In this case, it was not possible to establish a “typical profile” of the entrepreneur, which confirms the difficulty of explaining through personality traits, entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurial performance (Lorrain & Dussault, 1998, in (NKAKLEU, 2013, p. 4)).

Consequently, the trait approach was strongly criticized during the 1990s by a significant number of researchers, including Brockhaus and Horwitz, 1985; Chell, Haworth, and Brearley, 1991; 1989; Gartner, 1989, cited in (Rauch & Frese, 2007, p. 46)), for three arguments as indicated by Low and MacMillan (1988): First, the majority of studies on entrepreneurial characteristics were purely descriptive without having provided a theoretical framework. Second, almost all reviews and research have simplified hypotheses and ignored mediating processes and situational contingencies. Third, methodologically, the quality of entrepreneurship research was (and remains) low.

Following the limitations of the trait approach, Lorrain and Dussault (1988) proved that behaviours are better indicators of success in entrepreneurship (Filion, 1997, p. 139). This is where behaviourists shift towards behaviourist logic, which defines the entrepreneur as a social man, a product of his environment. We, therefore, started from a perspective of character traits towards a perspective of entrepreneurial characteristics. In this facet, entrepreneurship is seen as a regional phenomenon where behaviours are shaped by a given region's cultures, needs, and habits; entrepreneurs integrate them, assimilate them, interpret them, and translate them into actions. In other words, according to the conclusions of several authors (Filion, 1997), the environment from which the entrepreneur comes influences his way of acting and the construction of a business.

Also, in addition to being social, learning while doing a job affects the characteristics of the entrepreneur. In this sense, Filion (1988, p. 140) argues, "The entrepreneur must not only define what he must do but also what he must learn to be able to do it." We can, therefore, consider the entrepreneur as a person in continuous learning when launching a project or during the latter's life to adapt to a profession whose nature of activity causes him to evolve permanently.

It is important to remember that the components of the culture of societies, and social groups in particular, are determined by the habits, behaviours, and lifestyles of individuals and companies within a given ecosystem (Pérez, 2009). Indeed, these components form the system of socioeconomic values and cultural beliefs. This subsequently characterizes the effectiveness and performance of their governance system at the micro and macroeconomic levels. Also, in addition to the dynamic competencies of the company managers concerned (Enriquez de la O, 2015), performance is partly explained by the conditions of the industry sector (Porter, 1986). In this regard, the German entrepreneurial model is among the most apparent in its effectiveness. Indeed, it is (Bleuel, 2018) "the fruit of a German culture trying to break with the past, advocating freedom of enterprise, constrained by the social responsibility of the entrepreneur and stakeholders evolving in a particular ecosystem."

From there, the company's performance is explained by the study of the behaviour of entrepreneurs in their socio-economic environment, where the emphasis is placed on the actions (what does) of the entrepreneur with a focus on competencies. For example, the competencies identified by several North American researchers over the last twenty years of the previous century (Laviolette & Loué, 2006, p. 6) include developing a business plan, identifying business opportunities, and mobilizing network resources.

Mitchell et al., (2003) are among the researchers who have used cognitive psychology to try to understand "how" entrepreneurs think and "why" they act the way they do. This made it possible to determine the knowledge, attitudes, and competencies necessary during the entrepreneurial process. Moreover, to conclude, entrepreneurial competencies, defined by the cognitive approach, are competencies specific to the role of the entrepreneur, as opposed to organizational competencies, which can be held by other roles, including that of the manager (Aouni & Bernard, 2007).

Therefore, we can remember that entrepreneurial competencies, according to the behaviourist approach, are contextualized; that is to say, the competencies an entrepreneur must have depend on the role he must assume and the problems he must solve. This implies that they differ depending on the situation, the phase of the entrepreneurial process, and the context in which the entrepreneur carries out his entrepreneurial activity. The socio-economic framework in which it evolves will also determine the conditions and constraints of its operation and its results.

Gradually, more typological works classifying entrepreneurial competencies appear in entrepreneurship research. As Filion (1997) points out: "We see, however, that the study of entrepreneur behaviour is no longer the prerogative of behaviourists. Indeed, we are increasingly observing that research is moving towards other spheres, such as the competencies required to function well as an entrepreneur...".

According to McMahon (2001) and Aragon-Sanchez and Sanchez Martin (2005), typologies in the field of entrepreneurship research refer to the orientation or "entrepreneurial competencies" of the company (Ndzie, 2019). Authors (Herron and Robinson, 1993, cited in (Laviolette & Loué, 2006) ) have formulated a typology of seven competencies (abilities) of the entrepreneur: being able to design products or services, evaluate the different functions of the company, to understand its sector of activity and its trends, to motivate its staff, to create influential relationships in its business network, to plan and administer the company's activities and to implement opportunities.

In an interesting study on a sample of 134 companies, Chandler and Jansen (1992), based on previous research, identified entrepreneurial, managerial, and technical-functional competencies as the three competencies the entrepreneur must have to succeed in his business. The results showed that managerial experience and business education complement these three competencies.

This study was taken up and developed by Lorrain, Belley, and Dussault (1998) to develop a questionnaire as an instrument for measuring entrepreneurial competencies; the latter includes twelve capacities (abilities): opportunity identification, strategic vision, business network management, time management, work management, financial management, marketing

management, operations management, personnel management, management of laws and regulations, business negotiation and decision making.

More recently, entrepreneurship researchers have been trying to develop entrepreneurial competencies benchmarks. Loué and Laviolette (2006) proposed a competency model by choosing support structures (incubators) as a field of application to evaluate and develop entrepreneurial competencies, making it possible to create a lasting structure. This model allows (theoretical) competencies to be tested in the field and offers a personalized learning and training course. They thus identified 53 competencies classified into six groups: entrepreneurial, managerial, marketing and sales, human resources management, and financial management.

In 2015, Algeria was the subject of a study by Loué and Baronet (2015). To validate a competency framework with a sample of multinational entrepreneurs, the two researchers chose entrepreneurs from Algeria, France, and Canada (Quebec) as part of a research partnership between Advancia in Paris, ESAA in Algiers, and the University of Sherbrooke. Ten Algerian entrepreneurs in various sectors were interviewed. The framework resulted in forty-four competencies grouped into eight areas: detecting and exploiting opportunities, managerial-leadership competencies, human resources management, sales and marketing, financial management, self-management and organization, marketing and activity management, intuition, and vision.

Our study is one of Algeria's rare (not to say the only) studies that affect entrepreneurship competencies. Although entrepreneurship in Algeria emerged in the 1990s, notably with the investment code of 1993 (reinforced in 2000), and in a context of transition from a planned economy model where the State was the only and main entrepreneur and employer to a market economy system, research work remains limited by recurring subjects: the development of entrepreneurship through aid and support systems for the creation of business (ANAD, ANDI, ANGEM, CNAC, ANVREDET, ANPT, and FAUTIC), teaching entrepreneurship in universities, blocking constraints, female entrepreneurship, incubators (Sidi Abdellah technology park, INTTIC, etc.) and entrepreneurship houses.

Therefore, it is interesting to note that the question of competency was not treated as a subject but as an integral part of other studies. For example, Tounès and Assala (2007) studied culture and

its influence on managerial actions among Algerian entrepreneurs. Among the results of their field investigation, they indicated that the absence of managerial knowledge means that the entrepreneur is unaware of the existence of management tools. Thus depriving themselves of seizing the opportunity for growth and development. Bensedik and Ouchallal (2009), in a study of the psychological dimension of the success of entrepreneurs, show that the young entrepreneur denounces his vulnerability in terms of competency and knowledge in the field of his activity, particularly in terms of management and accounting. Thus, the few studies on the competency variable demonstrate its importance in entrepreneurship but do not glorify it as Western researchers do.

It is, therefore, admitted that cognitive aspects are of great importance in the success of newly created companies in Algeria. However, the subject is still not considered a primary dimension in theoretical and empirical research studies. This motivates us to shed more light on other works on entrepreneurship competencies. We seek to understand what competencies and knowledge Algerian entrepreneurs must acquire to develop and lead their businesses to success and not fail or disappear.

### **Conclusion**

To conclude, we will summarise some ideas, deducing the answer to the question asked at the beginning of this paper: How was the competency approach to entrepreneurship born, and from what perspective can we benefit from it in Algeria?

Despite the massiveness of research work in entrepreneurship, the only consensus is the non-existence of a generic definition of the entrepreneur or entrepreneurship. This is due to the multiplicity of disciplines and contexts of researchers interested in entrepreneurship. The literature review of the different approaches that have long attempted to define the contours of the entrepreneurial phenomenon allows us to say that they are consistent. Each theoretical vision is given according to the discipline of the person who developed it to make up for the failings of others. Thus, it encourages the continuous development of designs in entrepreneurship and makes it more dynamic and absorbing in terms of results from different contexts worldwide.

The competency approach has demonstrated a positive causal link between “competency, knowledge” and business performance in different organizations and entrepreneurial activities.

This idea is best illustrated by discussions of cases such as that of the German model (Bleuel, 2018), which other countries seek to imitate. However, ambitious studies in this direction recognize the difficulty and impossibility of copying such complex entrepreneurial behaviours. This state of affairs is explained by the nature of the behaviours whose specificities are defined by the cultural characteristics of this phenomenon (Pérez, 2009). Culture is only a result of the accumulation of the life of societies.

This work, therefore, allows readers to recognize the place of competencies in management and entrepreneurship and to capture the differences between the two disciplines.

In Algeria, cognitive approaches to entrepreneurship are sidelined, and the general question “What makes an entrepreneur succeed while others fail?” » is widespread in a broad and sometimes paradoxical way. This led us to align ourselves with international research to understand the conceptual framework of competence since its appearance in the business world and highlight its importance and relevance in the success of businesses created within an entrepreneurship framework. Thus, the cultural dimension, an imperative factor in management, remains little addressed in entrepreneurship in Algeria. The efforts made and the measures put in place by public authorities to encourage initiative and entrepreneurship among young people, in particular, cannot succeed without reviewing the causes and driving forces of this social phenomenon at the level of the culture of these operators.

To gain a deeper understanding of the entrepreneurial reality and business success in Algeria, we recommend that Algerian researchers shed light on the interplay between entrepreneurial profiles, competencies, and Algeria's unique cultural and environmental context. Furthermore, employing a constructionist epistemology that acknowledges the influence of social norms (Darlaston-Jones, 2007, p. 19) can provide more informed and sophisticated constructions. By delving deeper into these factors, researchers can contribute to the development of more significant frameworks and reconstruct conceptual frameworks of technical significance to understand culturally sensitive models of entrepreneurial success in Algeria.

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