JMK | Jurnal Manajemen dan Kewirausahaan
Journal of Management and Entrepreneurship

Register Login

ISSN 1411-1438 (print)
ISSN 2338-8234 (online)

Vol. 25 No. 1 (2023): MARCH 2023

DOI: https://doi.org/10.9744/jmk.v25.i1

Published: 2023-02-28

Articles

Focus and Scope
Editorial Team
Peer Reviewers
Author Guidelines
Peer Review Process
Publication Ethics
Article Processing Charge
Open Access Statement
Plagiarism Screening
Journal Template
Abstracting and Indexing
Citedness

ISSN

e-ISSN: 2338-8234

National Accreditation

Accredited by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology of the Republic of Indonesia
SK. No. 22/DIKTI/Kep/2002
SK. No. 55/DIKTI/Kep/2005
SK. No. 65a/DIKTI/Kep/2008
SK. No. 56/DIKTI/Kep/2012
SK. No. 36a/E/KPT/2016
SK. No. 30/E/KPT/2018
SK. No. 105/E/KPT/2022

Secretariat

Petra Christian University
Jl. Siwalankerto 121-131, Surabaya
60236, Indonesia
Phone: +62-312983242
E-mail: redaksi.jmk@petra.ac.id
Homepage:
https://jurnalmanajemen.petra.ac.id/

COLLABORATION

Statistic

View My Stats

INDEXED IN:

DOAJ Google Scholar INDEX COPERNICUS INTERNATIONAL ROAD sinta GARUDA ASEAN CITATION ASCI Dimensions

asean INDEX
WorldCat
MENDELEY
Crossref
Platform &
workflow by
OJS / PKP

JMK, VOL. 25, NO. 1, MARCH 2023, 25–40
ISSN 1411-1438 print / ISSN 2338-8234 online
DOI: https://doi.org/10.9744/jmk.25.1.25–40

WILLINGNESS TO EMBED SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY: A CASE OF GEN Y AND GEN Z ENTREPRENEURS IN INDONESIA

Sherlywati Sherlywati[1]*, Eliot Simangunsong[2]
[1] Faculty of Business, Maranatha Christian University, Bandung, 40164, Indonesia
[2] School of Business and Economics, Prasetiya Mulya University, Jakarta, 12430, Indonesia
*Corresponding author; Email: sherlywati@eco.maranatha.edu[1]

Submitted: Jan. 25, 2023, Reviewed: Feb. 1, 2023, Accepted: Feb. 27, 2023, Published: March 31, 2023

Abstract

This research aimed to explore the motivators and willingness of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia to embed social sustainability in their businesses. This research employed a quantitative method with an online survey, which was conducted based on a convenience sample of Gen Y and Gen Z from several universities in Indonesia. The data were processed using SEM-SmartPLS3.0. The research finding showed that instrumental and normative motivators affected the willingness to embed social sustainability, while relational motivators had no effect. The recommendation provided by this research is for developing a sustainable business strategy framework in terms of social dimension for young entrepreneurs, by strengthening the indicators of normative and instrumental motivators, and the willingness to embed social sustainability.

Keywords: Social sustainability, motivators, willingness, gen Y and gen Z, entrepreneurs.

Introduction

Entrepreneurship is one of the popular careers favoured by the millennial generation. According to the 2019 World Economic Forum (WEF) survey, 31% of young people in ASEAN aspire to become entrepreneurs. Similarly, the 2019 Sea Group Survey showed that entrepreneurship was the most popular career choice among Indonesia's young generation, according to 24%, followed by a preferred job as a civil servant at 17.1%. The World Economic Forum survey in 2021 also confirmed that about 35.5% of youth aged 15–35 years old in Indonesia wished to become entrepreneurs in the future (World Economic Forum, 2021). Among the countries in ASEAN, Indonesia has the highest proportion of young people with a strong aspiration to become entrepreneurs, at 35%, followed by Thailand and Vietnam, at 31.9% and 25.7%, respectively. Interestingly, BPS Indonesia 2020 noted that about 39% of the 129,137 SMEs in Indonesia are owned by high school graduates (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2022).

The critical issue after recognizing the youth's optimism for entrepreneurship concerns their creation of sustainable businesses. This is because many economists and researchers have observed that the failure rate of start-ups is still relatively high, at 90%. On average, 50–60% of start-ups collapse within three years (Kalyanasundaram, 2018). A survey by Start-up Genome also discovered that nine out of ten start-ups worldwide fail to achieve a profit and end up bankrupt (Gauthier *et al*., 2019). Therefore, potential entrepreneurs within the younger generation must consider the sustainability of their businesses as an important factor.

According to the United Nations Brundtland Commission, sustainability is a development process performed to address present needs without compromising the ability to achieve future goals (Keeble, 1988). Hansson (2010) described the term as satisfying the current needs of society through activities that ensure future needs and goals are achieved. It enables the mitigation of risks, particularly long-term, associated with limited resources, product liability, uncertainty cost, and waste management (Shrivastava, 1995). Sustainability is the competence of one or more entities, either individually or collectively, to exist and thrive over a lengthy time frame with the result that the development of a collection of entities results in a certain level of establishment in the related system (Starik & Rands, 1995). An entrepreneur is aware that sustainable practices have become a strategic initiative that can generate new economies, yield new revenue, as well as escalate customer and employee satisfaction (Narimissa, Kangarani-Farahani, & Molla-Alizadeh-Zavardehi, 2020).

Meanwhile, Travaillé and Naro (2017) categorized sustainability into business (economy), natural case (environmental), and societal (social/community) cases. The social dimension is believed to greatly affect business performance long-term (Fernando,

Halili, Tseng, Tseng, & Lim, 2022). However, empirical research on sustainability has observed gaps in the social dimension of sustainability (Abbasi, 2017; Sudusinghe, Pradeepa Jayaratne, & Kumarage, 2018; Taylor & Vachon, 2018; Baid & Jayaraman, 2021; Fernando *et al*., 2022). Social dimension has been overlooked and received the least attention compared to economic and environmental dimensions (Yıldızbaşı, Öztürk, Efendioğlu, & Bulkan, 2021). Although sustainable social practices have been considerably inspected in the various field and unit analyses in agribusiness (Rueda, Garrett, & Lambin, 2017), the leather industry (Moktadir, Rahman, Rahman, Ali, & Paul, 2018), manufacturing (Tseng, Tran, Ha, Bui, & Lim, 2021; Fernando *et al*., 2022), company leaders (Simangunsong, 2018b), there are existing debates concerning the measurement of these practices. Satyro *et al*. (2022) also verified that companies prioritize measures of efficiency, profitability, and competitiveness while ignoring the human element, leading to a dearth of investigations on the social dimension.

Previous research on social sustainability focused on established companies, and almost none examined its necessity at the initial point of a business, which is called a start-up. One of the main attributes of a start-up is the ability to grow (Cockayne, 2019), thereby highlighting the need for such businesses managed by Gen Y and Gen Z members to focus on social sustainability. Cockayne (2019) explained that the term 'start-up' is used to describe companies below three years that are struggling to achieve sustainability. Since the majority of start-ups are currently managed by Gen Y and Gen Z members, there is a need to embrace sustainability, especially the social dimension, as a strategy rather than compliance (Baid & Jayaraman, 2021). Millennial entrepreneurs often focus solely on the dimensions of environmental and economic sustainability and overlook for social dimension, which has many benefits. This indicates a need to explore the factors that motivate social sustainability in order to strengthen businesses. Therefore, this research focused on Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia due to their important role in the development of new businesses and start-ups. It considered start-up companies as businesses that survived the first three years of their journey (Cockayne, 2019), and examined mechanisms that can motivate these groups to harness social sustainability practices.

Entrepreneurs in developing country are concentrating on integrating social sustainability into their business practices, with a focus on the companys's employee, suppliers, and the entrepreneurs themselves. This is demonstrated in case studies of the UEA's aviation sector (Al Marzouqi, Khan, & Hussain, 2020), India's apparel sector (Venkatesh, Zhang, Deakins, & Mani, 2020), and Pakistan's garment sector (Fontana, Atif, & Heuer, 2022). The finding of these studies highlights to the necessity of a social sustainability protocol that accounts regional context and findings essential to human resoureces management and policy maker (government) in developing countries. As a result, this study was carried out in developing country, particularly in Indonesia. The novelty of this study that it reveals the social sustainability of young entrepreneurs from Gen Y and Gen Z in developing country.

Meanwhile, social sustainability research in developed countries has been concentrated on assisting governments to integrated social sustainability in urban policy to emphasize the significance of both government leadership and public engagement for successful urban revitalization (Almahmoud & Doloi, 2015; Chan & Siu, 2015; Fernandes, Kuzey, Uyar, & Karaman, 2022). Researchers from developed countries put stakeholders at the forefront of addressing sustainability in the social context in their framework recommendation. This is a significant distinction between the emphasis and path of social sustainability research in developed and developing countries. Research on social sustainability is still required in developing countries.

Furthermore, the research gap regarding the motivators of social sustainability in Indonesia as a developing country needs to be addressed. The aim was to determine the most significant social sustainability motivators to measure the willingness to embed social sustainability practices. The results will provide a framework for sustainable business strategies in terms of the social dimension for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs, particularly in developing countries. And the findings of this study will be useful to human resource management and the government as policy makers, the majority of which are run by Gen Y and Gen Z. The urgent research questions are as follows:

RQ_1: What are the potential factors that can shape the willingness of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia to embed social sustainability in business?

RQ_2: What are the most significant potential factors that motivate Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia to embed and transform social sustainability into a business strategy?

Gen Y and Gen Z Entrepreneurs

A generation is a human group categorized based on the year of birth within a certain chronological time, similar social and historical experiences, accompanied by identical cultures, as well as various events that significantly affect the formation of individual characteristics (Hess & Jepsen, 2009; Chhetri, Hossain, & Broom, 2014; Barhate & Dirani, 2022; Srisathan, Ketkaew, Jitjak, Ngiwphrom, & Naruetharadhol, 2022). The range of birth years of each generation is usually defined differently, and the variations of each generation constitute the theme of research in various fields (Srisathan *et al*., 2022). For example, Chhetri *et al*. (2014) classified Gen Y or the millennial generation as the oldest in 1977 to the youngest in 1994, Martin (2005) used between 1978 and 1998, while Srisathan *et al*. (2022) employed the commonly used age range of 27–41 years. A lot of studies also use the youngest Gen Y birth year limit as 2000 (Barhate & Dirani, 2022).

Similarly, Chhetri *et al*. (2014) defined Gen Z as those born in 1995 and after, Srisathan *et al*. (2022) recognized the age range of 18–26 years old (1996–2004), while Barhate and Dirani (2022) and Simangunsong (2018a) considered this post-millennial group to consist of persons born between 1994 and 2012. Simangunsong (2018a) conducted research on Gen Z in 2015 with respondents aged less than 21 years, indicating a classification this means that the year of birth began between 1994 and below. The ranges of birth years of Gen Z defined by research are different because the generation after Gen Z has not been widely discussed.

This research focused on two generations, namely Gen Y and Z, which are known as the followers of the business model innovation (Srisathan *et al*., 2022), as they prefer to be entrepreneurs rather than employees of large companies. However, research on the entrepreneurial inclinations of both groups is still quite rare (Basuki, Widyanti, & Rajiani, 2021). Therefore, this research focused on Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs, using 1977 as the maximum year of birth of Gen Y (Chhetri *et al*., 2014), and 1994 as the minimum, considering this is the frequently used limit (Simangunsong, 2018a; Barhate & Dirani, 2022). The Gen Z birth year range began after the maximum age limit for the youngest Gen Y, namely 1995, and ended in 2012 (Barhate & Dirani, 2022). Recent research on entrepreneurship is still mostly focused on Gen X and the baby-boomer generation, referring to individuals born in the 1970s, 1960s, and 1950s (Liu, Zhu, Roberts, & Tong, 2019). However, this present research explored the generations after the 70s, namely Gen Y and Z.

Entrepreneurial Traits of Gen Y Entrepreneurs

According to Lau (2015), Gen Y is focused to responsible for shaping the future world. It was found to be more compassionate, civic-minded (Baggott, 2019), and most socially aware than other generations (Zainee & Puteh, 2020). The members are very demanding, influential, and have high bargaining power (Srisathan *et al*., 2022). As business people, Gen Y is autonomous entrepreneurial thinkers, who like accountability, demand prompt feedback, and also pursue targets within short periods (Martin, 2005). They thrive in challenging work, business, and creative expressions. Also, this group likes freedom and flexibility, dislikes micromanagement and is considered to potentially be the highest-performing generation in history (Martin, 2005).

In addition, members of this generation are outspoken, tech-savvy, and contradictory (Martin, 2005). They are educated independently and tend to be left alone to care for themselves by their parents, resulting in an attitude of self-confidence. The habit of self-care usually leads to demands for freedom and flexibility. An interesting contradiction is the desire to collaborate, as though this generation works well alone, they work better together.

Entrepreneurial Traits of Gen Z Entrepreneurs

Gen Z is digital expertise because they were born in the generation of access to technology and electronic gadgets (Mat Zain *et al*., 2021). They often seek knowledge online, where about 71% get the information from social media and 43% from instant messages. But, surprisingly, 44% found the information from television (Nielsen, 2015).

The generation is also entrepreneurship-oriented, willing to work hard, committed, and self-confident. This characteristic combination is a potential powerhouse that can lead to entrepreneurial development with proper transmission (Mat Zain *et al*., 2021). They are also likewise extremely innovative, imaginative, and creative, exhibit dedication, loyalty and commitment, and are inspired to work hard. Furthermore, Gen Z aspires delight, which is depicted by enjoyment in life (Ganguli, Padhy, & Saxena, 2022).

Gen Z is electronically dynamic and reliant on gadgets and social media, consuming an average of eight hours daily on the Internet. They are enlightened, empowered, and entrepreneurial (Tjiptono, Khan, Yeong, & Kunchamboo, 2020), resulting in traits of curiosity, caring, competence, and confidence. These exceptional traits and behaviors deliver

notable challenges to encounter as consumers, employee, and entrepreneurs (Tjiptono *et al*., 2020). They likewise favour to communicate their emotions through stickers or emojis, and frequently utilise social media.

Motivators of Social Sustainability

The active response and the motivation of entrepreneurs to participate in sustainability issues has a significant effect on the future of businesses (Mani, Agrawal, & Sharma, 2015; Sajjad, Eweje, & Tappin, 2015). Likewise, social sustainability motivators can be categorised into internal and relational/ external motivators (Walker, Di Sisto, & McBain, 2008; Hussain, Khan, Ajmal, Sheikh, & Ahamat, 2019; Baliga, Raut, & Kamble, 2020).

An internal motivator is a desire to comply with certain moral norms that arise from a company's needs in order to achieve its goals (Paulraj, Chen, & Blome, 2017). It is stimulated by the awareness of the importance of protecting a company's reputation and brand image from irresponsible actions throughout supply chain activities from upstream to downstream (Maloni & Brown, 2006). The entrepreneur's active responses to these issues become an internal motivator in adopting social sustainability, which is classified into two subcategories, namely instrumental and normative motivators (Sajjad *et al*., 2015; Paulraj *et al*., 2017; Baliga *et al*., 2020;).

Instrumental Motivators

Instrumental motivators are strategic tools for publicizing a company's financial goals by creating wealth through the social dimension (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Instrumental motivators are one of the company's strategies for maximizing profits, institutional strength, and risk mitigation (Chen & Chen, 2019). The five instrumental motivators of sustainability supply chain management (SSCM) are risk management, brand differentiation benefits, new business enhancement, cost efficiency and reduction, corporate brand strengthening, and reputational risk (Sajjad *et al*., 2015). The concern of instrumental motivators regarding stakeholder demand is to increase sustainability, avoid bad publicity, and achieve short and long-term profitability (Paulraj *et al*., 2017). The instrumental motivation perspective refers to the belief that managerial involvement in social initiatives can directly impact company profitability and earnings (Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2009). Therefore, it is not the sole driver of sustainability practices but is supported by other motivations and factors (Paulraj *et al*., 2017).

Normative Motivators

Normative (moral) motivators refer to the moral obligation to run a business effectively, beginning with the principle of the top management team and CEO on sustainability and long-term company orientation (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Morality-based motivators play an important function in the effort carried by organizations (Paulraj *et al*., 2017). Every value-creation process involved in any business activity is embedded in moral complexity (Fernando *et al*., 2022). Management practices need to willingly engage to sustainability practices based on moral motivations and not just economic welfares or stakeholder pressure (Vanpoucke, Quintens, & Van Engelshoven, 2016). Sajjad *et al*. (2015) revealed the moral motivation of entrepreneurs can be separated into five perspectives, namely focus top management team and board members on sustainability, chief executive officer (CEO) highly focused on sustainability, board commitment, long-term orientation, and ethical/moral obligation to do the right thing. Normative motivators are expressed by the ethical obligation of businesses to contribute to community and assemble a better future (Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2009; Paulraj *et al*., 2017). Entrepreneurs with high moral levels tend to have superior values. This positively affects sustainability practices, particularly the social dimension of SCM, even when economic difficulties occur (Paulraj *et al*., 2017).

Relational/External Motivators

Relational/External Motivators refer to the desire to take action in order to realize a goal (Paulraj *et al*., 2017). The relational motivators as an effort to be responsible, particularly in the practice of social sustainability in supply chain management, can be observed through the concept of corporate stakeholder theory (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). This theory asserts that the company will ensure the welfare of the groups involved in its supply chain (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). Several external motivators that trigger companies to improve sustainability include market drivers (competition, consumer and customer demand), core social factors (society and media), and government regulations (Sajjad *et al*., 2015). The most influential stakeholder for a company's sustainability is the customer, signifying that customer satisfaction must be the external motivator in the social

sustainability of the supply chain (Collins, Linda, & Koning, 2007). External pressures, such as non-governmental organization (NGO) and public sentiment, must be embraced in the practical implementation of social sustainability supply chain management (S3CM) to ensure companies can communicate in spite of social violations (León-Bravo, Caniato, & Caridi, 2021). Therefore, the customer and market-based social dimension, as well as competitive pressure, are external pressures that influence companies to adopt and develop sustainability practices (Tate, Ellram, & Kirchoff, 2010). According to Sajjad *et al*. (2015), the external motivators for sustainability in New Zealand companies include customer and community expectations, increased brand reputation and value, NGO pressure, and good media publicity tools. Meanwhile, Paulraj *et al*. (2017) revealed that the desire of entrepreneurs to engage in sustainable activities was stimulated by relational motives, such as increasing the customer base, achieving competitive differentiation, becoming a source of sustainable competitive advantage, and especially meeting government regulations on sustainability. Previous research has indicated various factors that explain these three motivators, which are summarized in Table 1.

Willingness to Embed Social Sustainability

In this research, the willingness to embed social sustainability indicators applied the perspective outlined by Law and Gunasekaran (2012), Kohli and Hawkins (2015), and Simangunsong (2018b). It refers to the readiness of management and the allocation of resources in measuring sustainability

Table 1
Motivators Dimension of Social Sustainability

Latent Variable	Code	Dimensions	References
Instrumental Motivators	IM1	Risk management and reputational benefit.	Chen and Chen (2019) Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	IM2	Brand differentiation benefits.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	IM3	New business enhancement.	
	IM4	A strengthened employer brand.	
	IM5	Shareholders demand for sustainability improvements.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017)
	IM6	Avoiding poor publicity.	Chen and Chen (2019)
	IM7	Appeasing shareholders.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	IM8	Achieving short-term and long-term profitability.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017)
Normative Motivators	NM1	CEO and top management are sustainability-focused.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	NM2	The commitment of the board.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	NM3	Moral/ethical obligation to do the right thing.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015) Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009) Paulraj *et al*. (2017)
	NM4	Long term orientation.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017) Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	NM5	Genuineness and feeling of responsibility to society.	Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen (2009)
	NM6	Considering society and environmental responsiveness as a vital part strategy.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017)
Relational Motivators	RM1	Consumer and community expectations.	Collins *et al*. (2007) Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	RM2	Enhanced reputation and brand value.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017) Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	RM3	NGO's pressure.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015) León-Bravo *et al.* (2021)
	RM4	Good media publicity tools.	Sajjad *et al.* (2015)
	RM5	Increasing customer base.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017) Sajjad *et al.* 2015)
	RM6	Differentiating from competitor.	Paulraj *et al.* 2017) Tate *et al.* (2010)
	RM7	Sourcing of sustained competitive advantage.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017)
	RM8	Primarily due to government regulations on sustainability.	Paulraj *et al*. (2017) Sajjad *et al.* (2015) León-Bravo *et al.* (2021)

development (Law & Gunasekaran, 2012). The willingness of management, which is measured by social sustainability motivators, is the main key to a successful business practice (Kohli & Hawkins, 2015).

The positive benefits of instrumental, normative, and relational motivators can influence the willingness of managers to implement social practices in their business processes (Paulraj *et al*., 2017). Similarly, research by Law and Gunasekaran (2012) and also Kohli and Hawkins (2015) combined the effects of motivational factors influencing the willingness and readiness of companies to adopt social sustainability practices. Simangunsong (2018b) stated that social sustainability issues include community, human rights, diversity, safety, environment, and ethics. These issues motivate companies to design policies, procedures, and behaviours to benefit the workplace, individuals, organizations, and society (Simangunsong, 2018b). In this research, the respondents were asked to make a perceived recognition of sustainable development in their businesses, compare it with other development initiatives, and integrate into their processes.

The willingness to participate in sustainability initiatives is driven by internal willingness or company readiness (Lee, 2008; Law & Gunasekaran, 2012; Kohli & Hawkins, 2015; Simangunsong, 2018b). From eight indicators of the willingness to implement sustainability development, Law and Gunasekaran (2012) proposed three categories, namely management willingness, internal action, and current practice. Management willingness focuses on the inclination of the top management to promote sustainable development. Internal action concerns setting policies, strategies, financial resources, specialized knowledge and expertise, corporate culture, and infrastructure in sustainable development. Conversely, the current practice focuses on the prestige of sustainable development, the level of integration of sustainability in business, and the current development of corporate sustainability issues.

Kohli and Hawkins (2015) found five indicators of willingness to participate in sustainable supply chain initiatives, namely awareness, willingness to participate, interested managers, expecting environmental, community, and economic benefits from sustainability practices, as well as internal readiness. Simangunsong (2018b) conducted an exploratory factor analysis of thirty social driving factors for socially responsible purchasing and found three categories of drivers of companies' willingness to implement social sustainability. They are, first, a core ideology, such as vision, mission, value, and reputation; second, knowledge of implementing social sustainability; and third, pressures from business partners and competitors. Table 2 is a summary of the dimensions of willingness to embed social sustainability.

Lee (2008), Law and Gunasekaran (2012), Kohli and Hawkins (2015), and Simangunsong (2018b) proposed combining the influence of motivational factors on the willingness and readiness of companies to adopt sustainable development strategies. They also discussed the relationship between motivation, willingness, and various sustainability initiative programs that support sustainable development. Previous investigations have attempted to provide solutions to social problems in businesses (Mani, Agrawal, & Sharma, 2016), as well as highlight barriers, factors, and indicators of social sustainability. However, these findings have been rarely applied in the context of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs or start-ups, as the investigations were conducted in manufacturing or large industries. Past research focused on established companies and almost no studies discuss the need for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs to instil social sustainability initiatives from the starting point of their

Table 2
Dimensions of Willingness to Embed Social Sustainability (WSS)

Latent Variable	Code	Dimensions	References
Willingness to Embed Social Sustainability	WSS1	Awareness of social dimension initiatives.	Kohli and Hawkins (2015)
	WSS2	Willingness to participate in social initiatives.	
	WSS3	Company practices to contribute to society and avoid competitors.	Law and Gunasekaran (2012)
	WSS4	Willingness of top management to drive towards social sustainability.	
	WSS5	Owners' support of policies and strategies for social sustainability.	Law and Gunasekaran (2012) Simangunsong (2018b)
	WSS6	Owners' concern for company culture to take serious consideration in social sustainability development.	

businesses. Hence, the exploration of the motivators or drivers to strengthen businesses through social sustainability is an interesting theme. Embedding the motivation to execute social sustainability in businesses owned by Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs is important. Based on the findings in the literature review, a research framework was developed and presented in Figure 1.

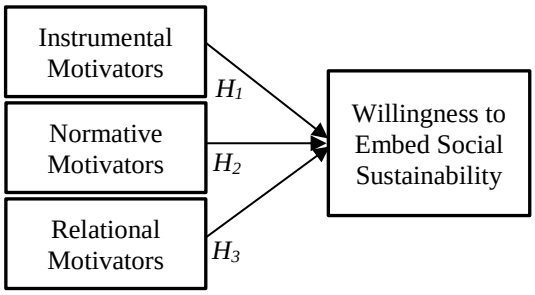

Figure 1. Research framework

From the framework above, some hypotheses were developed to answer the research questions as follows:

H1: Instrumental motivators affect the willingness to embed social sustainability in the businesses owned by Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia.

H2: Normative motivators affect the willingness to embed social sustainability in the businesses owned by Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia.

H3: Relational motivators affect the willingness to embed social sustainability in the businesses owned by Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia.

Research Methods

Sample and Data Collection

This research employed the quantitative method, and the instrument was a survey, which was conducted using questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed through Google Forms, a popular and reliable online tool for disseminating surveys (Hsu & Wang, 2019). The process was based on a convenience sample of alumni and students from several universities in Indonesia, with criteria of Gen Y and Gen Z members or persons born in 1977 and afterwards (Martin, 2005; Simangunsong, 2018a; Barhate & Dirani, 2022). Finally, the population was Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia, selected based on their suitability for the research.

The questionnaires were distributed du-ring the May–July 2022 period and filled by 196 respondents. After data assessment, nine incomplete or erroneous entries were found and deleted from the records, resulting in a total of 187 samples of respondents.

Measurements

The latent variables were measured using a seven-point Likert scale, where "1" signified "strongly disagree" and "7" meant "strongly agree." These variables were built from various references based on previous research while considering the gaps in the existing literature. The questionnaire was prepared according to the context of Gen Y and Gen Z members as the unit of analysis. It contains eight items of the instrumental motivator (Sajjad *et al*., 2015; Paulraj *et al*., 2017; Chen & Chen, 2019) and relational motivator variables each (Collins *et al*., 2007; Tate *et al*., 2010; Sajjad *et al*., 2015; Paulraj *et al*., 2017; León-Bravo *et al*., 2021) and six items of the normative motivator (Brønn & Vidaver-Cohen, 2009; Sajjad *et al*., 2015; Paulraj *et al*., 2017), and the willingness to embed social sustainability variables each (Law & Gunasekaran, 2012; Kohli & Hawkins, 2015; Simangunsong, 2018b).

Data Analysis

The collected data were analysed using two approaches. The first was descriptive analysis, which assists in the understanding of the data profile of respondents and checking the suitability of the data for the subsequent analysis, and the second approach was the confirmatory factor analysis using the SmartPLS 3 tool. This is a popular tool for social behaviour research (Sarstedt *et al*., 2022) that has been applied extensively in the social sciences field. The evaluation of SmartPLS3 measurement models follows the systematic method proposed by Sarstedt *et al*. (2022), namely (1). Model specification, (2). Measurement model assessment, (3). Assessment of structural model.

Results and Discussions

Respondents Characteristics

The description of the respondents' characteristics indicated suitability for further analysis. The research respondents were 58% Gen Z and 42% Gen Y, which was a fair representation of both generations. Similarly, the genders were almost balanced, with 55% male and 45% female. The majority of 53% of the respondents had privately owned businesses, not family-owned or joint partner businesses. Their annual income was majorly below 300 million, and

the number of employees was quite diverse, where about 19% had none.

Meanwhile, the analysis results presented some limitations to the research, as about 93% lived in the Western part of Java Island (West Java & DKI Jakarta area). This means additional investigations may be needed to explore areas outside Java Island because of significant economic gaps with enterprises outside this area. In addition, only 52% of the respondents conformed with the definition of a start-up by Cockayne (2019) as a company that was in its first three years. The remaining had businesses of varying ages up to and over seven years. Hence, the majority were start-up owners, but the analysis included other Gen Y and Gen Z categories. Table 3 is a summary of the respondents' characteristics.

Evaluation of the SmartPLS Measurement Model

The data analysis was conducted using the Partial Least Square Structural Equation Model (PLS-SEM), which has recently received considerable attention in various disciplines, including management (Hair Jr., Sarstedt, Hopkins, & Kuppelwieser, 2014). Hair Jr., Matthews, Matthews, and Sarstedt (2017) explained that PLS-SEM is highly proper for exploratory research. This research explored the motivational factors that are important for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in implementing social sustainability in their businesses. The first step in the PLS-SEM analysis was the evaluation of the measurement model using the SmartPLS 3 application.

Several observed variable data were eliminated from each construct. There were two eliminations from the instrumental motivators construct, namely IM1 and IM8, NM1 from the Normative Motivator construct, and RM3 and RM8 from the relational motivator construct. Meanwhile, there was no data elimination from the construct of the willingness to embed social sustainability because the factor loading was at an acceptable threshold. The summary of the factor loading status for each observed variable is presented on Table 4.

Generally, data analysis involves the evaluation of model assessment and structural model. The model assessment tests the validity and reliability of the constructs in the model through convergent validity, internal consistency reliability, and discriminant validity reliability. The evaluation of the structural model consists of an assessment of the predictive relevance (Q), variance (R^2), and effect size (f). The fit of the model is tested using the Goodness of Fit (GoF). Since there is no established GoF to measure PLS-SEM (Hair Jr. *et al*., 2017), various heuristic parameters, such as CFI, GFI, and RMSEA, are used. The SmartPLS analysis used 300 iterations with a bootstrapping subsample size of 500.

Table 3
Respondents' Characteristics

Dimensions	Category	Total Respondents	Percentage
Age by Generation	1. Gen Y (28–45 years)	79	42%
	2. Gen Z (<28 years)	108	58%
Gender	1. Male	102	55%
	2. Female	85	45%
Ownership	1. family business	53	28%
	2. privately owned business	98	53%
	3. joint partner business	36	19%
Yearly Income	1. <300 million	107	57%
	2. 300–500 million	33	18%
	3. >500 million–50 billion	48	25%
Age of Business	1. <1 year	32	17%
	2. 1–3 years	66	35%
	3. 3–5 years	27	14%
	4. 5–7 years	9	5%
	5. >7 years	53	29%
Number of Employees	1. >30 workforces	15	8%
	2. <30 workforces	24	13%
	3. <10 workforces	40	22%
	4. <5 workforces	72	38%
	5. 0	36	19%
Province	West Java	144	77%
	DKI Jakarta area	29	16%
	Middle and East Java	9	5%
	Outside Java Island	5	2%

Table 4
Data Elimination by Factor Loading

Constructs	Code	Observed Variables	Status of Factor Loading
Instrumental Motivators	IM1	Risk management and reputational benefit.	Deleted
	IM2	Brand differentiation benefits.	Accepted
	IM3	Increased new business.	Accepted
	IM4	A strengthened employer brand.	Accepted
	IM5	Shareholders' demand for sustainability improvements.	Accepted
	IM6	Avoiding poor publicity.	Accepted
	IM7	Appeasing shareholders.	Accepted
	IM8	Achieving short-term and long-term profitability.	Deleted
Normative Motivators	NM1	CEO and top management are sustainability-focused.	Deleted
	NM2	The commitment of the board.	Accepted
	NM3	Moral/ethical obligation to do the right thing.	Accepted
	NM4	Long-term orientation.	Accepted
	NM5	Genuineness and feeling of responsibility to society.	Accepted
	NM6	Considering society and environmental responsiveness as a vital part of strategy.	Accepted
Relational Motivators	RM1	Consumer and community expectations.	Accepted
	RM2	Enhanced reputation and brand value.	Accepted
	RM3	NGO pressure.	Deleted
	RM4	Good media publicity tools.	Accepted
	RM5	Increasing customer base.	Accepted
	RM6	Differentiating from competitor.	Accepted
	RM7	Sourcing of sustained competitive advantage.	Accepted
	RM8	Primarily due to sustainability regulation.	Deleted
Willingness to Embed Social Sustainability	WSS1	Awareness of social dimension initiatives.	Accepted
	WSS2	Willingness to participate in social initiatives.	Accepted
	WSS3	Company practices to contribute to society.	Accepted
	WSS4	Willingness of top management to drive towards social sustainability.	Accepted
	WSS5	Owner's provision of supportive policies and strategies for social sustainability.	Accepted
	WSS6	Owner's concern for company culture to take serious consideration in social sustainability development.	Accepted

Measurement of Model Assessment

The validity and reliability of the research model constructs were measured using convergent validity, discriminant validity, internal consistency reliability, and indicator reliability (Agyabeng-Mensah, Ahenkorah, Afum, Dacosta, & Tian, 2020). The convergent validity was examined via the average variance extract (AVE), while the indicator reliability was determined using factor loadings. Internal consistency was assessed through composite reliability and Cronbach's Alpha. The thresholds used were factor loading > 0.70, Cronbach's alpha > 0.70, composite reliability > 0.7, and AVE > 0.5 (Hair Jr. *et al*., 2014). According to the Fornell-Larcker criteria, the AVE construct must be higher than the squared correlations. However, the new criterion for discriminant validity is the Heterotrait-Monotrait Correlation Ratio (HTMT) (Henseler, 2017), which has been shown to outperform the Fornell-Larcker criteria (Henseler, 2017). Significant HTMT values < 1 or < 0.85 provide strong evidence about the discriminant validity of a pair of constructs.

The least values for Cronbach's Alpha (0.811), CR (0.868), and AVE (0.567) indicated that the scales used to measure the model in this research were reliable. The result of the maximum HTMT ratio (0.841) showed that the model had achieved good discriminant validity. The values for measurement variables are shown in Tables 5 and 6.

Assessment of Structural Model

The structural model was assessed based on the evaluation of the effect size, variance explained, the predictive relevance of the exogenous variables (instrumental, normative, and relational motivators) on the endogenous variable (willingness to embed social

Table 5
Reliability Statistics

Construct	Code	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Rho-*A*	CR	AVE
Instrumental Motivators (IM)	IM2	0.740	0.811	0.813	0.868	0.567
	IM3	0.747				
	IM4	0.737				
	IM6	0.763				
	IM7	0.778				
Normative Motivators (NM)	NM2	0.784	0.838	0.841	0.885	0.683
	NM3	0.800				
	NM4	0.837				
	NM5	0.760				
	NM6	0.711				
Relational Motivators (RM)	RM1	0.714	0.906	0.916	0.928	0.683
	RM2	0.878				
	RM4	0.872				
	RM5	0.857				
	RM6	0.762				
	RM7	0.861				
Willingness to Embed Social Sustainability (WSS)	WSS1	0.812	0.902	0.905	0.924	0.671
	WSS2	0.803				
	WSS3	0.848				
	WSS4	0.766				
	WSS5	0.881				
	WSS6	0.801				

Table 6
Discriminant Validity HTMT

	IM	NM	RM	WSS
IM	0.753			
NM	0.723	0.780		
RM	0.841	0.776	0.827	
WSS	0.556	0.591	0.510	0.819

Table 7
Discriminant Validity HTMT

CODE	IM2	IM3	IM4	IM6	IM7	NM2	NM3	NM4	NM5	NM6
VIF	1.442	1.602	1.423	2.127	2.005	1.946	1.861	2.233	1.671	1.537

CODE	RM1	RM2	RM4	RM5	RM6	RM7	WSS1	WSS2	WSS3	WSS4
VIF	1.560	3.120	2.808	2.761	2.175	2.933	2.741	2.672	2.522	1.921

CODE	WSS5	WSS6
VIF	3.336	2.283

sustainability), and the model fit. The variance explained values (R^2) were evaluated using the thresholds of 0.25, 0.50, and 0.75, which represented small, moderate, and substantial (Hair Jr., Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). The R^2 figure for the willingness to embed social sustainability construct was 0.386, indicating a fairly moderate value. This showed that the three motivator constructs were able to explain 38.6% of the construct. In addition, the *f*-values of 0.050, 0.116, and 0.04 depicted the effect size of the instrumental, normative, and relational motivators on the willingness to embed social sustainability. Hair Jr. *et al*. (2013) categorized these effect sizes as weak, moderate, and none. According to Hair Jr. *et al*. (2013) and Henseler (2017), the Q^2 values as the predictive relevance are evaluated using blindfolding. The Q^2 values of 0.248 showed that the model had excellent predictive relevance ($Q^2 > 0$) for each effect. Finally, the multicollinearity test was conducted using the variance inflation factor with a threshold of < 5. This research obtained a maximum VIF value of 3.336, suggesting good multicollinearity.

Table 8
Predictive Relevance

	R^2	Q^2
WSS	0.386	0.248

The data analysis indicated that hypotheses H_1, H_2, and H_3 were processed at a statistical significance of 5%. Hypothesis H_3 was not statistically supported and rejected because the direct relationship between relational motivators and willingness to embed social sustainability was negative. Conversely, hypotheses H_1 and H_2 are supported, where instrumental and normative motivators were shown to have significant and positive influences on the willingness to embed social sustainability. The results of the hypotheses were H_1:β = 0.433, t = 2.841, p = 0.005, H_2:β = 0.330, t= 3.677, p = 0.000, and H_3:β = -0.103, t = 0.772 p= 0.440.

Discussions

Relational motivators are not the drivers of the willingness to embed social sustainability in Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs, as these factors relate to their entrepreneurial traits. Gen Y entrepreneurs are the most socially conscious generation (Zainee & Puteh, 2020), comprising independent thinkers who are responsible and demand feedback (Martin, 2005). As a result, they are capable of self-motivation and orientation towards social sustainability without the need for relational motivators. Likewise, Gen Z entrepreneurs show serious concern for social issues and are even willing to spend money on sustainability practices (Nielsen, 2015). They are also known to be highly innovative, creative, and motivated to work hard using their technological abilities (Ganguli *et al*., 2022). Therefore, neither group requires influence by external (relational) motivators.

This research found that normative motivators had a greater influence on the willingness to embed social sustainability than their instrumental counterparts. There are three main indicators of normative motivators, namely long-term orientation, moral/ ethical obligation to do the right thing, and management commitment. Hence, these findings denote that the desire for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs to implement social sustainability in their businesses is driven by concern for long-term effects. They view social sustainability practices as an integral part of a business or an obligation to act right, thereby highlighting the need to be supported by the commitment of owners and management.

Meanwhile, the most influential instrumental motivator indicators of the willingness to embed social sustainability were appeasing shareholders, avoiding bad publicity, and increasing new business. Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs view instrumental motivators in social sustainability practices as some of the tools required to maintain brand image and create new business innovations. The willingness to embed social sustainability was expressed by the owners' inclination to provide supportive policies and social sustainability strategies, contribute to society, and their awareness of social dimension initiatives. Hence, the drivers of the willingness to embed social sustainability are internal motivation and management commitment, not external motivators. This is in line with research by Law and Gunasekaran (2012), which stated that the main factors in the practice of social sustainability are motivation and internal management. This means scholars need to consider internal management as one of the driving forces for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs to embed social sustainability practices.

In addition, the findings contrasted with research by Paulraj *et al*. (2017), where the motivation for sustainable business development practices came from external motivators that support internal motivators. These factors were shown to motivate company management to adopt and implement appropriate sustainable business development practices. The success of sustainable business development was determined to be dependent on the degree of alignment between management attitudes and policies. However, this present research indicated that the motivation for sustainable business development practices of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs only comes from internal motivators supported by management and the readiness of business owners to instil social sustainability practices in their companies.

Table 9
Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis	Path	Path Coefficient (β)	*t*-value	*p*-value	Remarks
H_1	IM->WSS	0.433	2.841	0.005	Supported
H_2	NM->WSS	0.330	3.677	0.000	Supported
H_3	RM->WSS	-0.103	0.772	0.440	Not Supported

Note: significant at a 5% level of significance

Conclusions

Potential factors that can shape the willingness of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia to embed social sustainability in business are instrumental and normative motivators, while relational motivators are not potential factors. And the most significant potential factor that motivate Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in Indonesia to embed and transform social sustainability into a business strategy is normative motivators.

This is different from previous literature results, in which the three motivators were reported as the drivers in the practice of social sustainability. The variation may be due to the past focus on established industries and companies (Collins *et al*., 2007; Sajjad *et al*., 2015; Paulraj *et al*., 2017; Chen & Chen, 2019; León-Bravo *et al*., 2021), whereas this research was conducted on new businesses owned by Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs. Furthermore, this finding reflects a novelty in social sustainability research that offers direct unit of analysis to Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in developing countries.

This research was processed using SmartPLS 3. Although the research model was simple, the constructs are still being investigated and are in the research development stage. The social behaviour theory regarding motivators to embed social sustainability is still rarely studied, particularly for individual unit analyses, unlike for companies. In addition, the limited number of samples can be overcome by bootstrapping SmartPLS (Hair Jr. *et al*., 2014), leading to its suitability for this research data (Hair Jr. *et al*., 2013; Hair Jr. *et al*., 2014; Hair Jr. *et al*., 2017; Sarstedt *et al*., 2022).

Theoretical and Managerial Implication

The results of this research can be used as a reference for policymakers regarding the sustainability agenda to involve Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs, particularly in social sustainability movements. Following the awareness of the importance of social sustainability practices, young entrepreneurs can design strategies and social activities for the sake of business sustainability, thereby enabling market share expansion among the younger generation. Also, the characteristics of Gen Y and Z, such as concern and orientation towards social sustainability, can be utilized by involving consumers in social sustainability activities. And the findings of this study can be used as a basis for policymakers (government), to pay special attention to elements of social sustainability in developing MSME business processes.

Limitation and Further Research

Some limitations encountered in this research provide a gap for future investigations. First, the sample size was relatively small, with most respondents living in the Western part of Java Island. In further research, the sample size should be enlarged and the scope of respondents expanded to include external areas, as a significant economic gap exists between enterprises in Java Island compared to those outside.

Second, several construct indicators were eliminated during the data processing process due to invalidity. This could be due to a lack of depth in conducting a literature review or the developing construct measurement. In future research, exploratory factor analysis may be used to strengthen indicators that can reveal motivators to embed social sustainability.

Third, this research analysed some perceptions of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs about the motivators of including social sustainability in their businesses using questionnaire items. Although the survey data were individual perceptions, the validity of the findings was not reduced by the potential generalization. A perception is a form of understanding and individual views in interpreting an event, which is stimulated by many factors (Devito, Birnholtz, & Hancock, 2017; Wuryaningrat, Katuuk, Kumajas, & Tuerah, 2021). Previous research explored the perception of respondents whose validity and ability to generalize were recognized. This includes Pimenta *et al.* (2022), which discussed practitioners' perceptions of the response and adjustment of companies to the new normal, and Wuryaningrat *et al.* (2021), where millennials' social perceptions in implementing new habit adaptations were discussed. Likewise, this research was an overview of the perceptions of Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs in social sustainability practices.

For further research, a sustainable business strategy framework in terms of social dimension may be developed for Gen Y and Gen Z entrepreneurs by strengthening the indicators of normative and instrumental motivators as well as the willingness to embed social sustainability. The indicators to be considered in preparing a socially sustainable business framework are strategies that focus on long-term orientation, an ethical obligation to do the right thing, the commitment of the board, appeasing shareholders, avoiding poor publicity, and increased new business. Consequently, this research can enable scholars, entrepreneurs, and policymakers to understand the factors that motivate Gen Y and Gen Z members to instil social

sustainability in their businesses and convert these motivators into business strategies. Finally, further research could compare the business practices of Gen Y and Gen Z, as well as others generations, to discover how they integrate social sustainability into their operations.

References

Abbasi, M. (2017). Towards socially sustainable supply chains – themes and challenges. *European Business Review*, *29*(3), 261–303. https://doi.org/ 10.1108/EBR-0 3-2016-0045

Agyabeng-Mensah, Y., Ahenkorah, E., Afum, E., Dacosta, E., & Tian, Z. (2020). Green warehousing, logistics optimization, social values and ethics and economic performance: The role of supply chain sustainability. *International Journal of Logistics Management*, *31*(3), 549–574. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJLM-10-2019-0275

Almahmoud, E & Doloi, H.K. (2015). Assessment of social sustainability in construction projects using social network analysis. *Facilities*, *33*(3/4), 152–176. https:// doi.org/10.1108/F-05-2013-0042

Al Marzouqi, A. H., Khan, M., & Hussain, M. (2020). Employee social sustainability: Prioritizing dimensions in the UAE's airlines industry. *Social Responsibility Journal*, *16*(3), 349–367. https://doi. org/10.11 08/SRJ-07-2018-0166

Badan Pusat Statistik. (2022). *Pengusaha di Indonesia Paling Banyak Lulusan SMA*. 2022.

Baggott, C. (2019). If we build it, they will come. *National Civic Review*, *3*(98), 30–33. https://doi. org/10.1002/ncr.262

Baid, V., & Jayaraman, V. (2021). Amplifying and promoting the "S " in ESG investing: The case for social responsibility in supply chain financing. *Managerial Finance*, 48(8), 1279–1297. https://doi. org/10.110 8/MF-12-2021-0588

Baliga, R., Raut, R., & Kamble, S. (2020). The effect of motivators, supply, and lean management on sustainable supply chain management practices and performance: Systematic literature review and modeling. *Benchmarking*, *27*(1), 347–381. https ://doi.org/10.1108/BIJ-01-2019-0004

Barhate, B., & Dirani, K. M. (2022). Career aspirations of generation Z: A systematic literature review. *European Journal of Training and Development*, *46*(1–2). https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-07-2020-0124

Basuki, Widyanti, R., & Rajiani, I. (2021). Nascent entrepreneurs of millennial generations in the emerging market of Indonesia. *Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review*, *9*(2), 151–165. https://doi. org/10.15678/EBER.2021.090210

Brønn, P. S., & Vidaver-Cohen, D. (2009). Corporate motives for social initiative: Legitimacy, sustainability, or the bottom line? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*(1), 91–109. https://doi.org/10. 1007/s10551-008-9795-z

Chan, K. S., & Siu, Y. F. P. (2015). Urban governance and social sustainability: Effect of urban renewal policies in Hong Kong and Macao. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, *4*(3), 330–342. https:// doi.org/10.1108/aeds-12-2014-0060

Chen, Y., & Chen, I. J. (2019). Mixed sustainability motives, mixed results: The role of compliance and commitment in sustainable supply chain practices. *Supply Chain Management*, *24*(5), 622–636. https://doi.org/10.1108/SCM-10-2018-0 363

Chhetri, P., Hossain, M. I., & Broom, A. (2014). Examining the generational differences in consumption patterns in South East Queensland. *City, Culture and Society*, *5*(4), 1–9. https://doi. org/10.1016/j. ccs.2014.05.003

Cockayne, D. (2019). What is a startup firm? A methodological and epistemological investigation into research objects in economic geography. *Geoforum*, *107*, 77–87. https://doi.org/10.1016/ j.geoforum.2019.10.009

Collins, C. M., Linda, S., & Koning, M. A. S. (2007). Customers' values, beliefs on sustainable corporate performance, and buying behavior. *Psychology & Marketing*, *24*(6), 555–575. https://doi. org/10.1002/mar.20173

Devito, M. A., Birnholtz, J., & Hancock, J. T. (2017). Platforms, people, and perception: Using affordances to understand self-presentation on social media. *Proceedings of the ACM Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work, CSCW*, 740–754. https://doi.org/10.1145/2998181.2998 192

Donaldson, T., & Preston, L. E. E. E. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications author(s). *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(1), 65–91. https://doi.org/10.2307/258887

Fernandes, V., Kuzey, C., Uyar, A., & Karaman, A. S. (2022). Board structure policy, board diversity and social sustainability in the logistics and transportaion sector. International *Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPDLM-09-202 1-0415

Fernando, Y., Halili, M., Tseng, M.-L., Tseng, J. W., & Lim, M. K. (2022). Sustainable social supply chain practices and firm social performance: Framework and empirical evidence. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, *32*, 160–172. https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2022.04.020

Fontana, E., Atif, M., & Heuer, M. (2022). Implementing social sustainability through market pressures: An inter-organizational network analysis in the Pakistani apparel supply chain. *International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management*. https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPD LM-07-2021-0265

Ganguli, R., Padhy, S. C., & Saxena, T. (2022). The characteristics and preferences of gen Z: A review. *IUP Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *21*(2), 79–99.

Gauthier, J. F., Stangler, D., Penzel, M., Morelix, A., Arora, L., Ortmans, J., de la Tour, A., Goeldel, N., & Rigby, D. (2019). *Global startup ecosystem report 2019*. Retrieved from https://startupgenome.com/reports/global-startup-ecosystem-report-2019

Hair Jr., J. F., Sarstedt, M., Hopkins, L., & Kuppelwieser, V. G. (2014). Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM): An emerging tool in business research. *European Business Review*, *26* (2), 106–121. https://doi.org/10.1108/E BR-10-2013-0128

Hair Jr., J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results, and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning*, *46*(1–2), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2013.01.001

Hair Jr., J. F., Matthews, L. M., Matthews, R. L., & Sarstedt, M. (2017). PLS-SEM or CB-SEM: Updated guidelines on which method to use. *International Journal of Multivariate Data Analysis*, *1*(2), 107–123. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijmda.2017. 10008574

Hansson, S. O. (2010). Technology and the notion of sustainability. *Technology in Society*, *32*(4), 274–279.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techsoc.2010. 10. 003

Henseler, J. (2017). Bridging design and behavioral research with variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of Advertising*, *46*(1), 178–192. https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2017.1281780

Hess, N., & Jepsen, D. M. (2009). Career stage and generational differences in psychological contracts. *Career Development International*, *14*(3), 261–283. https://doi.org/10.1108/13620430910966433

Hsu, H. Y., & Wang, S. K. (2019). Using Google form to collect and analyze data data. *Science Scope*, *40*(8), 64–67.

Hussain, M., Khan, M., Ajmal, M., Sheikh, K. S., & Ahamat, A. (2019). A multi-stakeholders view of the barriers of social sustainability in healthcare supply chains: Analytic hierarchy process approach. *Sustainability Accounting, Management and Policy Journal*, *10*(2), 290–313. https://doi.org/10.1108/sampj-05-2018-0140

Kalyanasundaram, G. (2018). Why do startups fail? A case study based empirical analysis in Bangalore. *Asian Journal of Innovation and Policy*, *7*(1), 79–102. https://doi.org/10.7545/ajip.2018.7.1.079

Keeble, B. R. (1988). The brundtland report: "Our common future." *Medicine and War*, *4*(1), 17–25. https://doi.org/10.1080/07488008808408783

Kohli, A., & Hawkins, E. (2015). Motivators to adopt green supply chain initiatives. *International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management, 8*(4), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.4018/ijisscm.2015100101

Lau, F. X. Y. V. M. C. (2015). "LuXurY" hotel loyalty – A comparison of Chinese gen X and Y tourists to Macau. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 27*(7), 1685–1706.

Law, K. M. Y., & Gunasekaran, A. (2012). Sustainability development in high-tech manufacturing firms in Hong Kong: Motivators and readiness. *International Journal of Production Economics*, *137*(1), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2012.01.022

Lee, S. Y. (2008). Drivers for the participation of small and medium-sized suppliers in green supply chain initiatives. *Supply Chain Management*, *13*(3), 185–198. https://doi.org/10.1108/13598540810871235

León-Bravo, V., Caniato, F., & Caridi, M. (2021). Sustainability assessment in the food supply chain: Study of a certified product in Italy. *Production Planning and Control*, *32*(7), 567–584. https://doi.org/10.1080/09537287.2020.1744761

Liu, Z., Zhu, L., Roberts, R., & Tong, W. (2019). Toward clinical implementation of next-generation sequencing-based genetic testing in rare diseases: Where are we? *Trends in Genetics*, *35*(11), 852–867. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tig.2019.08.006

Maloni, M. J., & Brown, M. E. (2006). Corporate social responsibility in the supply chain: An application in the food industry. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *68*(1), 35–52. https://doi.org/10.1007/s105510 06-9038-0

Mani, V., Agrawal, R., & Sharma, V. (2015). Supply chain social sustainability: A comparative case analysis in Indian manufacturing industries. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *189*, 234–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.03.219

Mani, V., Agrawal, R., & Sharma, V. (2016). Impediments to social sustainability adoption in the supply chain: An ism and micmac analysis in indian manufacturing industries. *Global Journal of Flexible Systems Management*, *17*(2), 135–156. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40171-015-010 6-0

Martin, C. A. (2005). From high maintenance to high productivity: What managers need to know about Generation Y. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, *37*(1), 39–44. https://doi.org/10.1108/0019 785 0510699965

Mat Zain, N. H., Johari, S. N., Abdul Aziz, S. R., Ibrahim Teo, N. H., Ishak, N. H., & Othman, Z. (2021). Winning the needs of the gen Z: Gamified health awareness campaign in defeating COVID-19 Pandemic. *Procedia Computer Science*, *179*, 974–981. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2021. 01.087

Moktadir, M. A., Rahman, T., Rahman, M. H., Ali, S. M., & Paul, S. K. (2018). Drivers to sustainable manufacturing practices and circular economy: A perspective of leather industries in Bangladesh. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *174*, 1366–1380. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.11.063

Narimissa, O., Kangarani-Farahani, A., & Molla-Alizadeh-Zavardehi, S. (2020). Evaluation of sustainable supply chain management performance: Dimensions and aspects. *Sustainable Development*, *28*(1), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.10 02/sd.1959

Nielsen. (2015). *Global trust in advertising survey*. Retrieved from https://www.niel sen.com/wp-content/uploads/sites/3/201 9/04/global-trust-in-advertising-report-sept-2015-1.pdf

Paulraj, A., Chen, I. J., & Blome, C. (2017). Motives and performance outcomes of sustainable supply chain management practices: A multi-theoretical perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *145*(2), 239–258. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2857-0

Pimenta, M. L., Cezarino, L. O., Piato, E. L., da Silva, C. H. P., Oliveira, B. G., & Liboni, L. B. (2022). Supply chain resilience in a Covid-19 scenario: Mapping capabilities in a systemic framework. *Sustainable Production and Consumption*, *29*, 649–656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.spc.2021.10.02

Rueda, X., Garrett, R. D., & Lambin, E. F. (2017). Corporate investments in supply chain sustainability: Selecting instruments in the agri-food industry. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *142*, 2480–2492. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro. 2016.11.026

Sajjad, A., Eweje, G., & Tappin, D. (2015). Sustainable supply chain management: Motivators and barriers. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, *24*(7), 643–655. https://doi.org/10. 1002/bse.1898

Sarstedt, M., Ringle, C. M., & Hair Jr., J. F. (2022). Partial least squares structural equation modeling. In *Handbook of Market Research*. https://doi.org/ 10.1007/978-3-319-57413-4_15

Satyro, W. C., de Almeida, C. M. V. B., Pinto, M. J. A., Contador, J. C., Giannetti, B. F., de Lima, A. F., & Fragomeni, M. A. (2022). Industry 4.0 implementation: The relevance of sustainability and the potential social impact in a developing country. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *337*, 130456. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2022. 130456

Shrivastava, P. (1995). Ecocentric management for a risk society. *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(1), 118–137. https://doi.org/10.2307/ 258889

Simangunsong, E. (2018a). Generation-Z buying behaviour in Indonesia: opportunities for retail businesses. *Mix: Jurnal Ilmiah Manajemen*, *8*(2), 243–253. https://doi.org/10.22441/mix.2018. v8i2.004

Simangunsong, E. (2018b). Responsible purchasing in Indonesia: Identification of drivers and barriers. *International Journal of Business and Society*, *19*(2), 387–400.

Srisathan, W. A., Ketkaew, C., Jitjak, W., Ngiwphrom, S., & Naruetharadhol, P. (2022). Open innovation as a strategy for collaboration-based business model innovation: The moderating effect among multigenerational entrepreneurs. *PLoS ONE*, *17*(6), e0265025. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal. pone.0265025

Starik, M., & Rands, G. (1995). Weaving an integrated web: Multilevel and multisystem perspectives of ecologically sustainable organizations. *The Academy of Management Review*, *20*(4), 908–935.

Sudusinghe, J. I., Pradeepa Jayaratne, R., & Kumarage, A. S. (2018). UN SDGs shaping sustainable supply chains: The case of apparel manufacturers in developing countries. *Proceedings of the 2018 IEEE International Conference on Service Operations and Logistics, and Informatics, SOLI 2018*, *July*, 102–107. https://doi.org/10.1109/ soli.2018.8476697

Tate, W. L., Ellram, L. M., & Kirchoff, J. F. (2010). Corporate social responsibility reports: A thematic analysis related to supply chain management. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, *46*(1), 19–44. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-493X. 2009.03184.x

Taylor, K. M., & Vachon, S. (2018). Empirical research on sustainable supply chains: IJPR's contribution and research avenues. *International Journal of Production Research*, *56*(1–2), 950–959. https://doi.org/10.1080/00207543.2017.140 2139

Tjiptono, F., Khan, G., Yeong, E. S., & Kunchamboo, V. (2020). Generation Z in Malaysia: The four 'E' generation. In Gentina, E., & Parry, E. (Eds.) *The new generation Z in Asia: Dynamics, differences, digitalisation (The changing context of managing people)*, Emerald Publishing Limited, Bingley, pp. 149–163. https://doi.org/10.1108/978-1-80043-22 0-820201015

Travaillé, D., & Naro, G. (2017). Management control facing the challenges of overall performance: A study carried out with management controllers. Society and Business Review, *12*(2), 175–199. https://doi.org/10.1108/SBR-11-2016-0065

Tseng, M. L., Tran, T. P. T., Ha, H. M., Bui, T. D., & Lim, M. K. (2021). Sustainable industrial and operation engineering trends and challenges Toward Industry 4.0: A data driven analysis. *Journal of Industrial and Production Engineering*, *38*(8), 581–598. https://doi.org/10.1080/21681015.2021.1950227

Vanpoucke, E., Quintens, L., & Van Engelshoven, M. (2016). The role of motivation in relating green supply chain management to performance. *Supply Chain Management: An International Journal*, *21*(6), 732–742. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/SCM-05-2016-0143

Venkatesh, V. G., Zhang, A., Deakins, E., & Mani, V. (2020). Drivers of sub-supplier social sustainability compliance: An emerging economy perspective. *Supply Chain Management*, *25*(6), 655–677. https://doi.org/10.1108/SCM-07-2019-0251

Walker, H., Di Sisto, L., & McBain, D. (2008). Drivers and barriers to environmental supply chain management practices: Lessons from the public and private sectors. *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, *14*(1), 69–85. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pursup.2008.01.007

World Economic Forum. (2019). *ASEAN youth: Technology, skills and the future of work*. Retrieved from https://www.weforum.org/reports/asean-youth-technology-skills-and-the-future-of-work

Wuryaningrat, N. F., Katuuk, D. A., Kumajas, L. I., & Tuerah, I. J. C. (2021). Millennials' social perceptions when implementing new habit adaptations in North Sulawesi. *Society*, *9*(2), 539–556. https://doi. org/10.33019/society.v9i2.313

Yıldızbaşı, A., Öztürk, C., Efendioğlu, D., & Bulkan, S. (2021). Assessing the social sustainable supply chain indicators using an integrated fuzzy multi-criteria decision-making methods: A case study of Turkey. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, *23*, 4285–4320. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-020-00774-2

Zainee, I. A., & Puteh, F. (2020). Corporate social responsibility impact on talent retention among Generation Y. *Revista de Gestao*, *27*(4), 369–392. https://doi.org /10.1108/REGE-06-2019-0070