

The influence of organizational culture on the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons: the Serbian case*

*Predrag Mali, Bogdan Kuzmanović, Milan Nikolić, Siniša Mitić, Edit Terek Stojanović***

Abstract

The paper presents the results of the study of the influence of the dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. The respondents were employed persons. There were 540 respondents from 72 organizations. The moderating effect of the respondents' gender on the observed relationships was also examined. From all the dimensions of organizational culture, power distance has the greatest impact on the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons. Entrepreneurial intentions weaken when there is group collectivism in the organization and when there is an assertive environment in the organization.

Keywords: Organizational culture, Personal attitude, Entrepreneurial intentions, Employed persons, Serbia.

JEL Codes: L26, D23

1. Introduction

Previous research into entrepreneurial intentions mainly focuses on two groups of potential entrepreneurs: unemployed persons (mostly students) and employed persons in terms of their potential for internal entrepreneurship, or corporate entrepreneurship. Thus, in the reference (Schlaegel/Koenig 2014) it is stated that research into entrepreneurial intentions is mostly done with students as the re-

* Received: 12.11.19, accepted: 19.4.20, 1 revision.

** *Predrag Mali*, MSc in Economics, Dept. of Economic Policy and Development, University of Belgrade, Faculty of Economics, Belgrade, Serbia, Email: predragmali@yahoo.com. His basic fields of interest are entrepreneurship and organizational behavior.

Bogdan Kuzmanović, PhD in Technical Science, Full time professor, Dept. of Industrial Engineering and Management, University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Technical Science, Novi Sad, Serbia, Email: kbogdan@uns.ac.rs. His basic fields of interest are entrepreneurship and organizational behavior

Milan Nikolić, PhD in Technical Science, Full time professor, Dept. of Management, University of Novi Sad, Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin", Zrenjanin, Serbia, Email: mikaczr@sbb.rs. His basic fields of interest are organizational behavior and public relations.

Siniša Mitić, PhD in Technical Science, Dept. of Industrial Engineering and Management, University of Novi Sad, Faculty of Technical Science, Novi Sad, Serbia, Email: smitic@uns.ac.rs. His basic fields of interest are entrepreneurship and organizational behavior.

Edit Terek Stojanović, (corresponding author), PhD in Industrial Engineering/Engineering Management, Assistant professor, Dept. of Management, University of Novi Sad, Technical Faculty "Mihajlo Pupin", Zrenjanin, Serbia, Email: terekedita@gmail.com. Her basic fields of interest are public relations and organizational behavior.

spondents (65 % of such studies). Such studies are numerous, for example (Kwong/Thompson 2016; Shinnar/Giacomin/Janssen 2012; Mueller/Thomas, 2001; Espiritu-Olmos/Sastre-Castillo 2015; Tkachev/Kolvereid 1999; Altinay/Madanoglu/Daniele/Lashley 2012; Lütjhe/Franke, 2003). Perhaps the main reason for this situation is that, from the unemployed, students are the most accessible population to most researchers (researchers are often professors at universities).

Likewise, a large number of references deal with the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons, where these intentions are directed towards innovation and entrepreneurial behaviour within the existing organization, and hence the improvement of the business of the organization in which they are currently employed (corporate entrepreneurship). According to (Antončič/Hisrich 2001; Antončič 2007), intrapreneurial behaviour represents entrepreneurship within the existing organization. Internal (corporate) entrepreneurship is a significant topic in the literature, as well as its impact on organizational performance (Mohedano-Suanes/Benitez 2018). This is also evidenced by the fact that research in the field of corporate entrepreneurship has rapidly increased in recent years (Hornsby/Peña-Legazque/ Guerrero 2013).

However, the impression is that until now, there has not been enough research into entrepreneurial intentions among individuals who are already employed, with those entrepreneurial intentions being directed towards leaving the organization in which they are currently employed and opening their own companies. Accordingly, according to (Hormiga/Hancock/Valls-Pasola 2013), the study of entrepreneurial intentions among employees has so far been largely overlooked. Also, according to (Marshall/Gigliotti 2018), most researchers agree that entrepreneurs predominantly emerge from positions as employees in existing organizations rather than students, and that individuals who want to start entrepreneurial ventures do so mainly after following a career in paid employment positions. The same reference emphasizes the very small number of papers dealing with this issue.

It is especially interesting that employees are more likely to succeed as entrepreneurs than those who are unemployed. Employed people have experience in the profession, acquaintances with people from business circles, are familiar with real market and economic problems and shortcomings, they know the market needs better, and they know where to start and what to start. Some studies confirm the previous findings. For example, according to (Khotin 2016), when changes in Russia started in the 1990s, contrary to expectations, directors in state enterprises actually demonstrated entrepreneurial characteristics, becoming independent and willing to take risks. In fact, such directors had the best knowledge about the situation in their industry and were able to show their entrepreneurial preferences. Similarly, in the reference (Hormiga et al. 2013) it was

shown that innovative propensity among people who are already employed has a positive impact on entrepreneurial intentions for the establishment of one's own company, especially if the estimate is that the costs will not be high. According to (Miralles/Giones/Riverola 2016), individuals with entrepreneurial knowledge, that is, individuals with previous experience (experienced individuals of working age) have stronger entrepreneurial intentions. The research in India (Saraf 2015) showed that part-time work experience has a positive impact on entrepreneurial intentions. This is important because the assumption in this paper is that employees have more chances of becoming entrepreneurs.

This all suggests that it makes sense to examine the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons. Nevertheless, the question still arises as to why it is important to research the entrepreneurial intentions of people who are already employed. Perhaps it is precisely because of this question that research into the entrepreneurial intentions of employees has remained outside the focus of researchers. However, the answer to this question could be the following: researching the entrepreneurial intentions of employees is important because, in any case (as well as in encouraging the entrepreneurship of the unemployed), the end result is the self-employment and employment of others, through encouraging and launching entrepreneurship and starting new enterprises. In addition, there is also the release of job positions for other persons, who will fill the places that will be left in the organization when others have quit in order to establish their own companies.

The next question concerns what influences an employed individual to develop aspirations to establish his own business and jeopardize his existing security? It can be readily assumed that, as in the case of the influence on entrepreneurial intentions among unemployed persons, there is also a whole range of influencing factors and circumstances here. In this paper, attention is focused on examining the impact of organizational culture on the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons. A large number of studies examine the relationship between organizational culture and intentions to leave the organization, for example (Joo/Hahn/Peterson 2015; Harris/Mossholder 1996; Felfe/Yan/Six 2008; Cheng/Liou 2011). Almost all research in this field indicates the importance and impact of different aspects of organizational culture on the emergence of intentions to leave the organization. However, these studies only refer to the intention to leave the organization due to certain circumstances and dissatisfaction, while failing to examine the entrepreneurial intentions which may be behind the desire to leave the existing job.

The research in this paper was carried out in organizations in Serbia. One should bear in mind that some studies (Vukonjanski/Nikolić/Hadžić/Terek/Nedeljković 2012; Nikolić/Vukonjanski/Nedeljković/Hadžić/Terek 2013; Sajfert/Nikolić/Vukonjanski/Terek/Vulović 2017) show that in Serbia, employed people are of-

ten dissatisfied with their work, primarily due to low incomes, then inadequate leadership and organizational culture. This unfavourable situation actually masks the entrepreneurial potential of people who are already employed, perhaps not because of their entrepreneurial preferences and abilities, but rather because of dissatisfaction with the existing job. Therefore, in Serbia (and similar transition countries), it is particularly important to examine the entrepreneurial intentions of employees and the impacts on these intentions. Of course, similar research studies may have significance in other conditions and countries. In this paper, the research problem is precisely the impact of the dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. The moderating effect of the respondents' gender on the observed relationships was also studied.

In line with the foregoing, the main objective of this research is to examine the direction and intensity of the influence of particular dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. Practically speaking, the goal of the research is to determine whether and to what extent these individual dimensions of organizational culture motivate and encourage people who are already employed to leave the organization in which they work (the job they already have) and start their own entrepreneurial venture. Existing research suggests that the presence of such connections and impacts is realistic. The research is important in order to confirm and more closely determine the impacts on entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions among employed persons, and then, accordingly, to identify the directions and ways to encourage entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons. Also, the goal of the research is to examine the moderating effect of gender on the observed relationships.

2. Theory and hypothesis

2.1. *Individual entrepreneurial orientation*

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is a concept developed by Miller (1983), and it has three dimensions: risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness. The further popularization of this concept was carried out by Covin and Slevin (1989) in their concept of entrepreneurial strategic posture (ESP). Lumpkin and Dess (1996) then went on to form a five-dimensional model by introducing two new dimensions: autonomy and competitive aggressiveness.

It should be noted, however, that the original three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) are much more commonly used in research: risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness (Rauch/Wiklund/Lumpkin/Frese 2009; Lyon/Lumpkin/Dess 2000). These dimensions are considered to be the components of organizational behaviour, providing an insight into the entrepreneurial nature of

the organization (Bolton/Lane 2012). Thus, entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is widely used to indicate entrepreneurship in organizations and company performance (Gupta/Gupta, 2015; Reijonen/Hirvonen/Nagy/Laukkanen/ Gabrielsson 2015).

In recent years, the concept of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is often transposed from the organizational level to the individual level (individual entrepreneurial orientation – IEO) (Robinson, Stubberud, 2014). This is possible due to the essential similarity of these concepts. This is particularly relevant for the exploration of the impact of individual entrepreneurial orientation (in particular, three dimensions: risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness) on the entrepreneurial intentions of an individual. Many references, for example, (Bolton/Lane 2012; Koe 2016; Robinson/Stubberud 2014) confirm positive relationships between these dimensions and the entrepreneurial intentions of the individual. Likewise, risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness are important determinants in the process of launching entrepreneurial ventures on foreign markets (Muñoz-Bullón/Sánchez-Bueno/Vos-Saz 2015). In the following the three dimensions are discussed separately.

Brockhaus (1982), defines risk-taking as the estimated probability of receiving a reward, related to the successful outcome of a risky situation. According to (Espiritu-Olmos/Sastre-Castillo 2015), the tendency to take risks is a tendency to engage in situations that, if successful, may bring benefits and rewards. Risk-taking is a psychological variable that reflects a person's ability to accept calculated risks and challenges (Jain/Ali 2013). The same authors believe that risk taking is an inherent part of entrepreneurial intentions and behaviour.

According to (Van de Ven 1986), innovativeness is described as the development and implementation of new ideas, by people, who over time engage in interaction with others within an institutional context. The importance of innovativeness in entrepreneurship was also emphasized by Schumpeter (1934; 1965) and Drucker (1985).

Proactive behaviour can be defined as taking the initiative to improve current circumstances or create new opportunities (Crant 2000). Crant (1996) points out that proactive individuals seek change and opportunity and then take the initiative to turn such circumstances to their benefit. Therefore, proactivity is positively related to entrepreneurial intentions (Crant 1996). It is also very useful for existing organizations to have proactive individuals among their employees.

2.2. *Need for achievement*

Conceptually, the need for achievement appears in several theoretical models that attempt to explain entrepreneurial intentions. For example, Caird (1991) developed the General Enterprise Tendency Test, a psychometric instrument which

measures five key entrepreneurial features: calculated risk-taking, creativity tendency, high need for achievement, high need for autonomy, and internal locus of control.

Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner and Hunt (1991) note that "attitudes do not exist in isolation", which emphasizes the importance of the attitudes an individual forms about entrepreneurship, which are created under the influence of situational factors. One of the instruments that measures entrepreneurial attitudes is the EAO Scale (the Entrepreneurial Attitude Orientation Scale) (Robinson et al. 1991), which includes: achievement in business, self-esteem, personal control of business outcomes and innovation in business.

The Attitude Toward Enterprise (ATE) test (Athayde 2009) measures four constructs related to entrepreneurial attitudes: achievement, personal control, creativity and leadership. According to (Gibb 1993; Gibb 2000), the definition of a successful entrepreneur often involves a set of behaviours, supported by certain skills: creativity, autonomy (personal control), achievement, leadership and, to a slightly lesser degree, facing uncertainty. It is easy to see that the need for achievement appears as an element of all the aforementioned instruments and models, thus making it an integral part of this research

The need for achievement is a tendency for behaviour that makes an individual persistent in certain activities (Espiritu-Olmos/Sastre-Castillo 2015). McClelland (1961) confirmed that people with a high desire and ambition to be successful have greater potential to become entrepreneurs. The need for achievement is the guiding motive, which determines the degree of entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurs have a high need for achievement, which they fulfill through achieving business success (Çolakoglu/Gözükara 2016).

Entrepreneurial motivation is of paramount importance for the existence of entrepreneurial intentions and in turn entrepreneurial behavior (Carsrud/Brännback 2011). Values and motivation can play a stimulating role in moving from intention to action. They can also be important for overcoming obstacles in the process of starting a business venture (Fayolle/Liñán/Moriano 2014).

2.3. The theory of planned behaviour

The theory of planned behaviour – TPB (Ajzen 1991) is a model used to explain entrepreneurial intentions. The TPB model consists of three components (motivational factors, predictors) which anticipate the creation of (entrepreneurial) intentions: (1) Personal attitude, (2) Subjective norm and (3) Perceived behavioural control. The meaning of these components is as follows: (Eisen 1991; Liñán/Chen 2009)

1. Personal attitude (PA) reflects the degree to which a person considers it positive/negative to be an entrepreneur and own his/her own company.

2. Subjective norm (SN) measures the degree of social pressure (from society, the environment, and people from the immediate environment) which influences the decision to undertake or not undertake an entrepreneurial venture.
3. Perceived behavioural control (PBC) measures a person's perception of how easy or difficult it would be for him/her to become an entrepreneur. This component is very similar to self-efficacy (Bandura 1997) and estimated feasibility (Shapero/Sokol 1982).

In the expanded TPB, these components predict entrepreneurial intentions, and planned behaviour (such as entrepreneurship) is the result of entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen 1991). According to (Bird 1988), entrepreneurship is a typical example of planned behaviour caused by intentions.

The TPB model has been widely applied in research in the field of entrepreneurship, proving its efficiency and suitability for anticipating entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours (Karimi/Biemans/Lans/Chizari/Mulder 2016). The dominance of the TPB model in relation to some other models is highlighted by some other references (Autio/Keeley/Klofsten/Parker/Hay 2001; Krueger/Reilly/Carsrud 2000).

A positive attitude towards entrepreneurship, while enhancing the necessary knowledge and leading to a secure and sustainable entrepreneurial career, has a favorable impact on the development of entrepreneurial intentions (Roy/Akhtar/Das 2017). Assessed capacities positively influence entrepreneurial intentions (Tsai/Chang/Peng 2016). Research (Tatarko/Schmidt 2016) found that individual social capital has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intentions. These resources actually have an indirect impact: by reinforcing the estimated control of behaviour and attitudes towards entrepreneurship.

A study among students in Spain (Liñán/Urbano/Guerrero 2011) found that entrepreneurial intentions were also influenced by regional differences. More developed regions showed a higher level of social evaluation of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs, which reflects positively on perceived subjective norms and assessed behavioural control. The survey, in which the respondents were military officers from the Ukraine (Vinogradov/Kolvereid/Timoshenko 2013), found that in conditions when job opportunities are very low, subjective norms have a positive effect on entrepreneurial intentions. However, under the same conditions, the impact of personal attitudes and perceived behavioural control on entrepreneurial intentions remains unchanged. It is important to note here that support through subjective norms strengthens when there is no safe alternative, in other words, when there is nothing to lose.

2.4. Individual entrepreneurial orientation, need for achievement, the theory of planned behaviour and entrepreneurial intentions

The basic link between the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions, is that all of these constructs have a strong connection with the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals and entrepreneurship in general. Therefore, the impact of the organizational culture dimensions on all of these dimensions is examined simultaneously in this paper. In this way, a broader and more comprehensive picture of the impact of organizational culture on entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons is gained. Below are the links and influences of the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions on the entrepreneurial intentions dimensions.

Individual entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial intentions

Numerous studies show a positive relationship between risk-taking and entrepreneurial intentions. According to (Caliendo/Fossen/Kritikos 2014), the willingness to take risks certainly contributes to the decision to launch an entrepreneurial venture. Some authors, for example (Miner/Raju 2004; Rauch/Frese 2007), particularly emphasize the importance of risk-taking in explaining entrepreneurial intentions. The reference (Douglas/Shepherd 2002) examined the relationship between people's attitudes toward income, independence, risk-taking and work effort, on the one hand, and career and job choices, on the other. People who have greater risk tolerance and a greater desire to be independent certainly have stronger intentions for self-employment.

Research (Stewart/Roth 2001; Stewart/Roth 2004) shows that entrepreneurs are more prone to risk than managers. Finally, references suggesting that entrepreneurs are more likely to take risks than other people are numerous, for example (Begley/Boyd 1987; Brockhaus 1982; Hisrich 1990; Gürol/Atsan 2006; Korunka/Frank/Lueger/Mugler 2003).

Some research has found that entrepreneurs are more innovative than managers. Smith and Miner (1985) showed that entrepreneurs in successful businesses exhibit a much higher level of innovation than individuals in managerial positions. A greater degree of innovativeness among entrepreneurs than managers is confirmed by the reference (Stewart/Watson/Carland/Carland 1999). Also, numerous references confirm that entrepreneurs are more innovative than other people, for example (Buttner/Gryskiewicz 1983; Goldsmith/Kerr 1991; Tuunanen/Hyrsky 1997).

Proactive people have stronger entrepreneurial intentions than the rest of the population (Paul/Shrivatava 2016). A similar result was obtained in the refer-

ence (Usaci 2015), which states that attitudes toward learning, along with a proactive personality, are the most significant predictive factors for entrepreneurial behaviour. Becherer and Maurer (1999) showed that entrepreneurs who exhibit proactive behaviour also have a greater ability and inclination to accept and take advantage of business opportunities.

Need for achievement and entrepreneurial intentions

The need for achievement, as opposed to willingness to take risks, is significant not only for starting an entrepreneurial venture, but also for its long-term survival and development. Thus, according to (Brandstätter 2011), the motivation for achievement is good both for starting up and for the long-term success of the business. Socio cultural attributes such as family values and goals and motivation to start and sustain a private business influence the success of an entrepreneurial business (Toledo-López/Díaz-Pichardo/Jimenez-Castañeda/Sánchez-Medina 2012).

Furthermore, the need for achievement is a typical and very distinctive trait of an entrepreneur. Rezaei Zadeh, Hogan, O'Reilly, Cunningham and Murphy (2017) highlight motivation for achievement as one of the key entrepreneurial competencies. Accordingly, Shaver and Scott (1991) emphasize precisely motivation for achievement as a trait that distinguishes entrepreneurs from other business people. Research (Collins/Hanges/Locke 2004; Stewart/Roth 2007) shows that entrepreneurs have more motivation toward achievement than managers. Numerous references confirm the impact of the need for achievement on entrepreneurial intentions and actions, for example (McClelland 1961; Begley/Boyd 1987; Brockhaus 1982; Gürol/Atsan 2006; Robinson/Stimpson/Huefner/Hunt 1991).

The theory of planned behaviour and entrepreneurial intentions

Liñán, Rodríguez-Cohard and Rueda-Cantuche (2011) emphasize personal attitude and perceived behavioural control as the most important dimensions for explaining entrepreneurial intentions. A similar result was obtained in the reference (Liñán/Chen 2009). A similar result was also gained in the reference (García-Rodríguez/Gil-Soto/Ruiz-Rosa/Mamour Sene 2015) which outlines the results of a study in Spain and Senegal. Thus, in both countries personal attitude and assessed behavioural control dominate in terms of the influences on entrepreneurial intentions. The difference is that in Spain the influence of personal attitude (desire) dominates, while in Senegal it is the influence of assessed behavioural control (feasibility). This is due to differences in the degree of development of the two countries.

Likewise, according to (Moriano/Gorgievski/Laguna/Stephan/Zarafshani 2012), entrepreneurial intentions are largely influenced by attitudes towards entrepreneurship, followed by assessed behavioural control, while subjective norms have the weakest influence. The authors further emphasize that results like this occur in different cultures. In fact, it can be argued that most research indicates that attitudes toward entrepreneurship and assessed behavioural control have the strongest influence on entrepreneurial intentions, while the influence of subjective norms is slightly weaker. However, the importance of subjective norms and assessed behavioural control for entrepreneurial intentions is highlighted in the reference (Zhang/Wang/Owen 2015). Also, the positive albeit relatively weak influence of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intentions was confirmed in the reference (Roy/Akhtar/Das 2017).

2.5. Entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons

As explained in the introduction, existing research in the field of entrepreneurship has generally failed to address entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons in any great detail. However, papers that address this issue can be found. Some references examine the impact of various types of dissatisfaction (most often with low salaries) and other unfavourable situations in organizations on the development of entrepreneurial intentions among employees. According to (Werner/Gast/Kraus 2014), if employees are not satisfied with their working hours (they think that they should be more paid for their working hours or their working hours are not appropriate), then entrepreneurial intentions and the desire to establish their own company grow. The same thing happens if employees consider their current salary level to be unfair. Similarly, in a survey conducted among 322 respondents in Germany (Sorgner/Fritsch 2018), it was concluded that salaries, which are not at the expected level, are the main reason for employees leaving the organization and starting their own businesses. Shinnar and Young (2008) observed motivational factors for self-employment in the Hispanic immigrant population in the United States. One of the main factors was job dissatisfaction, caused by low wages, poor opportunities for advancement and a limited labour market. Those who decided to start an entrepreneurial venture were mainly among the elderly population, who had many years of work experience, as well as the necessary funds to start their own businesses.

Further, the reference (Minarcine/Shaw 2016) deals with the factors which motivate people to become entrepreneurs after a period of employment in companies where they worked for someone else (entrepreneurship is the second career for these people). The survey was conducted in the United States, and the respondents were individuals who worked in companies, and who had stable careers, but left their jobs to become entrepreneurs, as well as individuals who lost their jobs, but then went on to become entrepreneurs. The main reasons for the volun-

tary transition to entrepreneurship were: disagreement with the company's corporate policy, low job satisfaction, the rigidity and inflexibility of companies, the inability to progress, the unfavourable wage system and compensation. Some of the respondents started an entrepreneurial career in the same area/industry where they previously worked, while others moved into a completely different field. It was noted that the respondents who became entrepreneurs were creative and innovative.

In the reference (Lee/Wong/Foo/Leung 2011), research was carried out into why some individuals intend to leave the existing job and start an entrepreneurial venture. The respondents were IT professionals in Singapore. It was shown that work environments with an unfavourable innovation climate and/or lack of technical excellence have an impact on entrepreneurial intentions through low job satisfaction. As the sample consisted of IT experts in Singapore, it should be born in mind that they would have less tolerance for the stated organizational conditions.

In general, it can be concluded that certain adverse circumstances in organizations can reinforce the entrepreneurial intentions of employees. These unfavourable circumstances relate to various aspects of the functioning of organizations, for example: adverse working hours, perceived low incomes, unfulfilled promises, perceived bad company policies, poor technical equipment, low job satisfaction, poor organizational climate and suchlike. It should also be kept in mind that some employees abandon their existing jobs for reasons which are unrelated to job satisfaction or poor organizational commitment, but because of an emerging opportunity (Lee/Mitchell 1994), or for issues related to their daily lives (Lee/Maurer 1999).

2.6. Organizational culture and the GLOBE project

Culture is not something that an organization has, but what an organization is (Pacanowsky/O'Donnell-Trujillo 1982). Hofstede (1991) calls culture a software of mind that distinguishes the members of one organization from those of another. Managers need to understand the implications of diversity and the needed skills in order to be successful in their work and to make decisions at an acceptable and sensitive cultural degree (Javidan/House 2001). Due to globalization and increased interdependence among nations, there is a growing interest in understanding national and organizational culture (House/Javidan/Dorfman 2001).

Organizational culture permeates all the aspects of an organization (Azanza/Moriano/Molero 2013). It has a great impact on individuals, groups and organizational processes (Ivancevich/Matteson 2002), as well as on organizational effectiveness and performance (Kinicki/Kreitner 2006). Finally, organizational culture has a link to a number of organizational outcomes within the company (House/Hanges/Javidan/Dorfman/Gupta 2004). Numerous publications and

studies highlight the importance of organizational culture, its impact on employees, and the business performance of companies (Hofstede 1991, 2001; Deal/Kennedy 1982; Schein 1985; O'Reilly/Chatman/Caldwell 1991; House/Hanges/Javidan/Dorfman/Gupta 2004).

Organizational culture is one of the significant factors in employee job satisfaction (Moynihan Pandey 2007). According to (Judge/Thoresen/Bono/Patton 2001), factors related to organizational culture and personal determinants have the greatest influence on job satisfaction. In the context of this paper, it is logical to assume that satisfied employees will show a lower tendency to leave the organization, and therefore their entrepreneurial intentions will be less. This is another way to bring organizational culture into line with the entrepreneurial intentions of employees.

In this paper, organizational culture is measured by means of the GLOBE project dimensions. The GLOBE project (The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research Project) (House/Hanges/Ruiz-Quintanilla/Dorfman/Falkus/Ashkanasy 1999; House/Javidan/Hanges/Dorfman 2002; House/Hanges/Javidan/Dorfman/Gupta 2004) occupies a special place in studies of organizational and national culture. The specificity of the GLOBE project is that the dimensions of organizational culture (and national culture) are viewed in two ways: determining the real state ("state as it is") and determining the desirable state ("state as it should be"). In the GLOBE project, there are nine dimensions of organizational culture (and national culture): Uncertainty Avoidance, Future Oriented, Power Distance, Collectivism 1 (institutional), Humane Orientation, Performance Orientation, Collectivism 2 (in-group), Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness (Javidan/House/Dorfman 2004, p. 30; House/Hanges/Ruiz-Quintanilla/Dorfman/Falkus/Ashkanasy 1999). Some basic explanations of these dimensions and a brief description of the process of their development can also be found in the reference (Rajković/Nikolić/Ćočkalović/Terek/Božić 2020).

Based on the previous statements, it is clear that organizational culture influences all aspects of the business and all company processes. As a result, organizational culture can be considered as an excellent representative of the value systems, and overall life and work in organizations. Thus, examining the impact of a wide range of organizational aspects on the emergence of entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons, representatively and objectively, can be done through examining the influence of organizational culture dimensions. At the same time, there is no doubt that the GLOBE dimensions of organizational culture cover the theme of organizational culture in a comprehensive way, so these dimensions can be considered as an effective instrument in examining the impact of organizational culture on the entrepreneurial intentions of employed persons.

2.7. Organizational culture and intentions to leave the organization

Organizational culture influences employees' intentions to leave the organization, and this influence can be positive or negative. Practically, organizational culture can act to reinforce employees' intentions to leave the organization, but it can also serve to reduce employees' intentions to leave the organization. This topic is the subject of numerous research studies. The references (Joo et al. 2015) point to the importance of developing an appropriate organizational culture. This establishes organizational support, which reduces intentions to leave the organization. Meta analysis (Ghapanchi/Aurum 2011) of the intentions to leave the job among IT professionals showed that organizational factors are often the cause of leaving the organization. Also, organizational culture has a significant impact on the intention to leave the organization in the fitness industry (Macintosh/Doherty 2010).

The difference between the existing organizational culture and the desired organizational culture (perceived at the individual level) influences organizational commitment and optimism regarding the future of the organization. However, achieving a good match between current and desirable organizational culture does not necessarily involve high job satisfaction, involvement, or high intentions to remain in the organization (Harris/Mossholder 1996). Perceived favourable conditions do not seem to have a strong impact, while perceived unfavourable circumstances are more likely (and probable) to have an effect personal (dis)satisfaction, and even result in the increased desire to leave the job.

From the individual dimensions of organizational culture, the focus is mostly on collectivism, but also on power distance. Thus, research in Germany, Romania and China (Felfe et al. 2008) showed that collectivism is associated with dedication, with this tie being stronger in collectivist countries. Furthermore, dedication affects various individual outcomes, including turnover intentions. A similar result was obtained in a study involving nurses of Asian origin who worked in hospitals in the United States (Cheng/Liou 2011). These nurses were more collectivist-oriented. As such, they showed a higher degree of acceptance of the goals and values of the organization, they were more satisfied with their work environment and, finally, had a weaker intention to leave the organization. In the paper (Liu/Loi/Ngo 2018), it was found that power distance may indicate an increase in the intention to leave the organization. Also, according to the same reference, organizational social exchange affects the intention to leave the job, with the mediation of normative dedication.

A significant number of studies focus on examining the impact of perceived organizational support on intentions to abandon work. Meta analysis, based on 131 independent samples (Chiaburu/Lorinkova/Van Dyne 2013), showed that the support of leaders and associates, and organizational support have a favourable

impact on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and intentions to leave the organization (decreasing intentions to quit).

Organizational culture and perceived organizational support were shown to have a statistically significant and negative impact on intentions to leave the organization in research carried out in the Indian pharmaceutical industry (Panchamia/Pestonjee 2017). Similarly, in a study conducted among workers employed in three Chinese companies (Ngo/Loi/Foley/Zheng/Zhang 2013), the perception of the organizational context (organizational support, fairness, job security), along with the mediation of organizational identification, was linked to attitudes about work (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, intentions to stay in the organization).

Similar relations exist in healthcare organizations. According to (Roy/van der Weijden/de Vries 2017), organizational support is very important for reducing the intention to leave work among doctors in health care organizations. Also, in the study (Cho/Johanson/Guchait 2009), where the respondents were employed in health care in the United States, it was shown that perceived organizational support and perceived support of the superior reduce the intentions to quit.

It is important to emphasize that the above mentioned research studies examine the impacts of organizational culture on intentions to leave the organization, whereby these intentions are of a general type and are not necessarily related to the launch of an entrepreneurial venture.

Based on the aforementioned, two hypotheses are set. These hypotheses derive from the possible influence of individual dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. All of the organizational culture dimensions cannot be expected to have statistically significant impacts (it is neither realistic, nor affirmative in the scientific sense). Consequently, in the formulation of the hypotheses, the adjective individual is used for the influence of the dimensions of organizational culture. Hence, the hypotheses refer to the assumption that some of the organizational culture dimensions have statistically significant impacts. It is very important to determine which dimensions have a statistically significant impact, and what the strength and direction of these impacts are. Hence, the hypotheses are:

H1: There is statistically significant influence of individual dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions.

H2: There is a statistically significant predictive effect of individual dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimen-

sions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions.

Since the moderator (the respondents' gender) is introduced into the analysis of the observed relationships, the third hypothesis, which relates to this part of the research, is presented in the paper:

H3: There is a moderating effect of the respondents' gender on the relation between the dimensions of organizational culture and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions.

It should be noted that these hypotheses are based on theoretical assumptions, formed in accordance with the existing literature on the influence of organizational culture on employees' intentions to leave the organization, but also in accordance with logical assumptions. By setting hypotheses and testing them, this paper can be said to have a hypotheses testing approach. In this regard, the real relationships between the observed independent and dependent variables are examined, and an analysis and explanation of these relationships is then given through a discussion of the obtained results.

3 Method

3.1 Survey instruments (measures)

Individual entrepreneurial orientation was measured using the Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation instrument (IEO) (Bolton/Lane 2012). The questionnaire consists of 10 items, which make up 3 dimensions. The respondents evaluated the dimensions on a seven-point Likert scale: 1. Risk-taking, 2. Innovativeness and 3. Proactiveness.

The achievement dimension from the Attitude Toward Enterprise (ATE) Test (Athayde 2009) was used to measure the need for achievement. The dimension consists of 4 items. The respondents made their evaluations on a seven-point Likert scale.

The theory of planned behaviour dimensions were measured using the Entrepreneurial Intention Questionnaire (EIQ) (Liñán/Chen 2009). The questionnaire consists of 20 items, which make up 4 dimensions. The respondents evaluated the dimensions on a seven-point Likert scale: Personal attitude, 2. Subjective norm, 3. Perceived behavioural control and 4. Entrepreneurial intentions. The first three dimensions relate to personal attitudes, desires, opportunities and skills for engaging in entrepreneurship; they represent the motivational factors and antecedents which influence entrepreneurial behaviour (Ajzen 1991; Liñán 2004; Liñán/Chen 2009). The fourth dimension (entrepreneurial intentions) measures the degree of firm entrepreneurial intentions.

Organizational culture was measured using the GLOBE project instrument for measuring national and organizational culture (House et al. 1999; House/Javidan/Hanges/Dorfman 2002; House/Hanges/Javidan/Dorfman/Gupta 2004). The first part of the alpha questionnaire was used to measure the organizational culture, the state of "as is". This questionnaire consists of 34 items, which make up 9 dimensions. The respondents rated the dimensions on a seven-point Likert scale: 1. Uncertainty Avoidance, 2. Future Oriented, 3. Power Distance, 4. Collectivism 1 (Institutional), 5. Humane Orientation, 6. Performance Orientation, 7. Collectivism 2 (In group), 8. Gender Egalitarianism and 9. Assertiveness.

3.2 Participants and data collection

The research was conducted in companies in Serbia. This includes medium and large enterprises. The sample consists of production, service and public companies. The respondents were employed in these enterprises, and were of mixed gender, age, level of education (minimum secondary school) and position in the organization. A number of questionnaires were distributed in each company. The respondents then completed the questionnaires. Some of the questionnaires were filled in during interviews with the respondents, and in some cases the questionnaires were left for the respondents to complete when they had the opportunity and time for this activity. A total of 680 questionnaires were distributed, out of which 582 questionnaires were returned (filled in). Out of these 582 questionnaires, 42 questionnaires were rejected due to incomplete responses. Thus, in the statistical analysis, a total of $N = 540$ completed questionnaires were used, and the final sample consisted of 540 examinees. Compared to the initial number of distributed questionnaires, the percentage of those which were successfully completed was 79.4 %. In addition, the number of companies covered by the survey is 72.

4 Results

4.1. Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics for the observed dimensions are shown in Table 1. Table 1 lists the names of the dimensions, the abbreviations for each dimension, the mean value and standard deviation for each dimension, as well as Cronbach's alpha (α) for each dimension. The Cronbach's alpha values are in the range from $\alpha=0.710$ to $\alpha=0.954$.

Table 1 Descriptive statistics for the observed dimensions

Names of dimensions and items	Abbr.	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.	α
Risk-taking	RT	540	1,00	7,00	4,596	1,491	0,798
Innovativeness	IN	540	1,00	7,00	4,869	1,309	0,848
Proactiveness	PR	540	1,00	7,00	5,770	1,136	0,820
Achievement	ACH	540	1,00	7,00	5,217	1,191	0,866
Personal attitude	PA	540	1,00	7,00	4,557	1,420	0,906
Subjective norm	SN	540	1,00	7,00	5,074	1,309	0,807
Perceived behavioural control	PBC	540	1,00	7,00	4,234	1,326	0,898
Entrepreneurial intention	EI	540	1,00	7,00	3,323	1,619	0,954
Uncertainty Avoidance	OC1	540	1,00	7,00	4,032	1,144	0,715
Future Oriented	OC2	540	1,00	7,00	4,280	1,456	0,728
Power Distance	OC3	540	1,00	7,00	4,452	1,247	0,719
Collectivism 1 (Institutional)	OC4	540	1,00	7,00	4,262	1,003	0,723
Humane Orientation	OC5	540	1,00	7,00	4,692	1,401	0,845
Performance Orientation	OC6	540	1,00	7,00	4,130	1,390	0,816
Collectivism 2 (In group)	OC7	540	1,00	7,00	4,820	1,220	0,832
Gender Egalitarianism	OC8	540	1,00	7,00	3,825	,856	0,710
Assertiveness	OC9	540	1,00	7,00	4,431	1,362	0,821

4.2. Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis was used to identify the effects of the dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions (risk-taking, innovativeness, proactiveness), the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions, (personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial intentions) among employees in organizations in Serbia. The results are shown in Table 2. In this case, Pearson's correlation was used, and the statistically significant correlations were indicated as follows: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

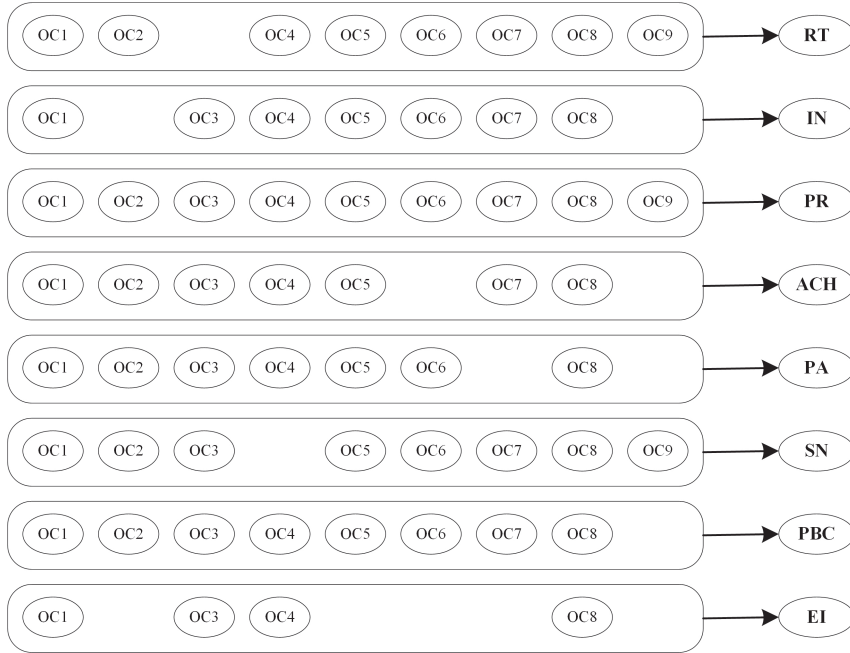
Table 2 Correlation coefficients between the organizational culture dimensions and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions

	RT	IN	PR	ACH	PA	SN	PBC	EI
OC1	,110*	,135**	,106*	,137**	,155**	,135**	,194**	,135**
OC2	,089*	,052	,163**	,090*	,119**	,130**	,130**	,034
OC3	,077	,100*	,156**	,251**	,122**	,093*	,191**	,205**
OC4	,203**	,159**	,154**	,190**	,109*	,083	,173**	,087*
OC5	,212**	,147**	,155**	,123**	,118**	,249**	,160**	,064
OC6	,154**	,140**	,109*	,059	,095*	,155**	,122**	,031
OC7	,162**	,116**	,222**	,156**	,081	,208**	,085*	-,023
OC8	,189**	,109*	,093*	,148**	,100*	,142**	,168**	,127**
OC9	,104*	,059	,175**	,034	,037	,153**	,063	-,043

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$.

For the purpose of clarity, the results of the correlation analysis are presented in a chart (Figure 1).

Figure 1 Graphical representation of the results of the correlation analysis



4.3. Regression analysis

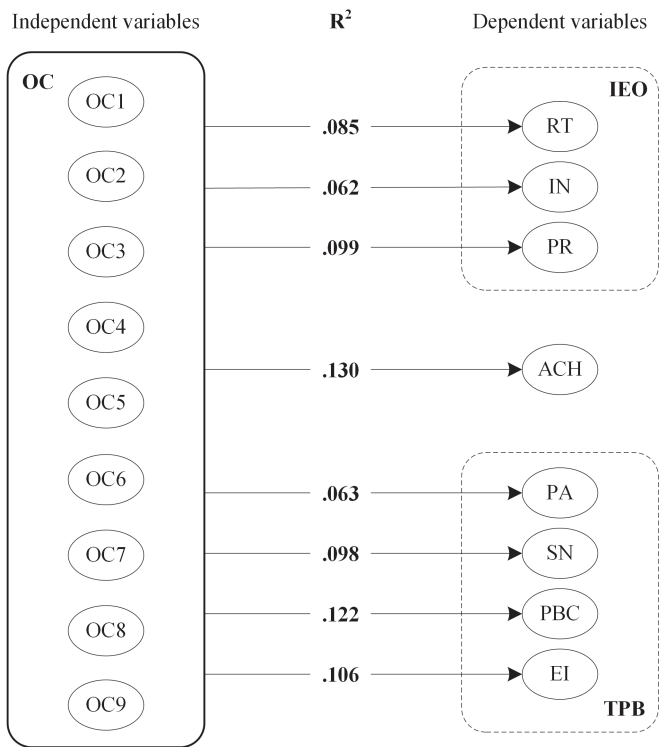
Regression analysis was used to determine the predictive effects of the dimensions of organizational culture (independent variables) on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions (risk-taking, innovativeness, proactiveness), the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions (personal attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavioural control, entrepreneurial intentions) among employees in organizations in Serbia (dependent variables). The results are shown in Table 3. (Statistically significant predictive effects are indicated in bold font.)

Table 3 Regression analysis (independent variables: organizational culture dimensions; dependent variables: individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions)

Dep.	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	Indep. OC5 β	OC6	OC7	OC8	OC9	R ²	F	Sig.
RT	-,003	-,044	,092	,118	,188	,038	-,029	,125	-,057	0,085	5,496	,000
IN	,072	-,076	,127	,084	,108	,146	-,054	,046	-,081	0,062	3,898	,000
PR	-,041	,073	,191	,018	,017	-,135	,262	,000	,076	0,099	6,481	,000
ACH	,046	,051	,249	,117	,072	-,097	,172	,066	-,142	0,130	8,838	,000
PA	,100	,124	,141	,009	,133	,066	-,078	,044	-,159	0,063	3,929	,000
SN	,015	,031	,144	-,140	,242	-,002	,118	,069	-,028	0,098	6,395	,000
PBC	,129	,085	,206	,079	,189	,095	-,197	,095	-,129	0,122	8,196	,000
EI	,144	,053	,198	,057	,163	,114	-,245	,093	-,174	0,106	6,950	,000

For the purpose of clarity, the results of the regression analysis (the values of the corrected determination indexes) are presented in a chart (Figure 2).

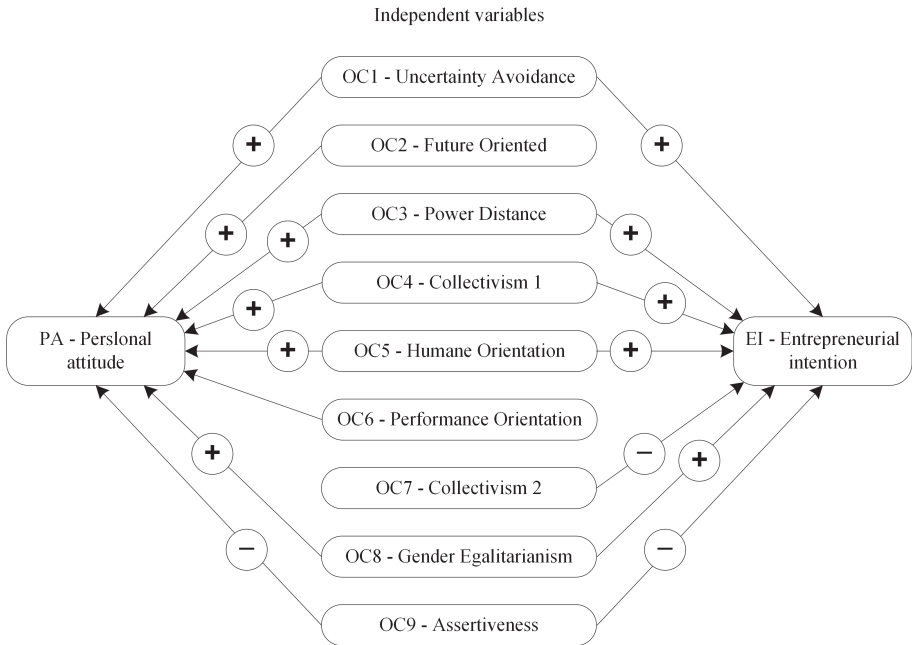
Figure 2 Graphical representation of the regression analysis results (the values of the corrected determination indexes)



Based on the results of the correlation and regression analysis, the integrated influences of the organizational culture dimensions on two particularly important

dimensions can be derived: PA – Personal Attitude and EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions. Such integrated influences are given in Figure 3, showing statistically significant influences, both positive and negative.

Figure 3 The integrated influences (correlation and regression analyses) of the organizational culture dimensions on the dimensions PA – Personal Attitude and EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions (statistically significant influences)



4.4 The respondents' gender as a moderator of the observed relationships

The total sample (N = 540 subjects) was divided into two groups: men (M) and women (F). The sample consisted of: 285 men (52.8%) and 255 women (47.2%). First of all correlation analysis was carried out between the organizational culture dimensions and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions for each group separately. The results of the correlation analysis are given in Table 4. In this case, Pearson's correlation was used, and statistically significant correlations were indicated as follows: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. (Pairs with moderating effects are indicated in bold.)

Table 4 Correlation coefficients between the organizational culture dimensions and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions for men (M) and women (F).

GEN		RT	IN	PR	ACH	PA	SN	PBC	EI
M	OC1	,159**	,215**	,111	,125*	,229**	,175**	,222**	,118*
	OC2	,152*	,125*	,235**	,117*	,193**	,204**	,178**	,045
	OC3	,049	,075	,160**	,193**	,044	,065	,176**	,205**
	OC4	,216**	,193**	,169**	,233**	,164**	,106	,215**	,120*
	OC5	,241**	,187**	,180**	,202**	,216**	,262**	,186**	,090
	OC6	,143*	,171**	,090	,064	,259**	,255**	,179**	,088
	OC7	,181**	,145*	,225**	,184**	,231**	,266**	,146*	,031
	OC8	,210**	,107	,167**	,181**	,150*	,153**	,218**	,169**
	OC9	,117*	,075	,195**	,078	,130*	,210**	,082	-,006
F	OC1	,056	,051	,101	,150*	,080	,090	,166**	,156*
	OC2	,017	-,030	,075	,062	,039	,043	,077	,026
	OC3	,109	,129*	,152*	,320**	,220**	,127*	,214**	,210**
	OC4	,190**	,123	,138*	,144*	,053	,058	,128*	,056
	OC5	,185**	,104	,129*	,041	,028	,237**	,144*	,049
	OC6	,173**	,106	,139*	,061	-,073	,038	,069	-,019
	OC7	,143*	,084	,221**	,130*	-,082	,140*	,020	-,077
	OC8	,181**	,113	,028	,132*	,092	,137*	,146*	,115
	OC9	,100	,041	,163**	-,004	-,033	,090	,067	-,061

*p<0.05; **p<0.01.

The examination of the moderating effects of the respondents' gender in relation to the organizational culture dimensions and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions was carried out using hierarchical regression analysis. The results of these tests are given in Table 5. In this table, only those results for pairs where there is a moderating effect are shown: R square change and F-change values in these cases, as well as the correlations of given pairs for both relevant groups (men and women).

Table 5 Hierarchical regression analysis (R square change, F-change and relevant correlations) of the moderating effects of the respondents' gender in relation to the organizational culture dimensions and individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions (only results with a moderating effect)

Number	Independent	Dependent	R square change	F-change	Correlations	
					Men N _M = 285	Women N _F = 255
1	OC3	ACH	0,006	3,383	,193**	,320**
2	OC3	PA	0,009	4,821	,044	,220**
3	OC5	PA	0,008	4,220	,216**	,028
4	OC6	PA	0,025	14,323	,259**	-,073
5	OC6	SN	0,010	5,725	,255**	,038
6	OC7	PA	0,022	12,601	,231**	-,082
7	OC8	PR	0,006	3,156	,167**	,028

5 Discussion

5.1 Discussion of the results of the descriptive statistics

From the dimensions of organizational culture, dimensions OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) and OC5 – Humane Orientation have the highest average scores. It is obvious that the expressed collectivist national culture in Serbia (Vukonjanski et al. 2012) is also manifested through the organizational culture. In Serbian society, but also organizations, loyalty to the community, altruism, and understanding and support among the members of the collective are highly valued. What is slightly inconsistent with these results is the above average value for the dimension OC3 – Power Distance. However, this is not a surprise: power distance also typically appears as a highly expressed dimension of the Serbian national culture (Vukonjanski et al. 2012). This result is very significant for further analysis of the research results.

Dimension OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism has the lowest average value from the dimensions of organizational culture. Here one should bear in mind that one of the items of this dimension is: In my organization, physically demanding tasks are most often performed by men/women. It is customary for such jobs to be performed by men, so the low value of this dimension is probably due in large part to the low scores for this item. Nevertheless, it should be acknowledged that gender equality in Serbian organizations is still not at a high level. The other dimensions of organizational culture have slightly above average scores, which can be considered as a relatively good result. This is particularly true for the average score of dimension OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance, which is the lowest after the OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism dimension. Consequently, in Serbian orga-

nizations, the avoidance of uncertainty is not as high as might have been expected.

5.2 Discussion of the results of the correlation analysis (checking hypothesis H1)

Table 2 shows that in the majority of cases, the organizational culture dimensions have a statistically significant and positive influence on the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. From the dimensions of organizational culture, the OC5 – Humane Orientation dimension has the strongest impact. An organizational culture which nurtures consideration for others, friendliness and generosity, obviously has a positive effect on the confidence of employees and gives them a certain degree of security. This in turn reflects positively on all the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions with the exception of EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions. It should be noted that the OC5 – Humane Orientation dimension has a slightly weaker correlation (but statistically significant) with the PA – Personal Attitude dimension. This means that people's orientation makes entrepreneurship an acceptable option precisely because of these good relationships, thus highlighting both the satisfaction and security that arise from such relationships. It is therefore logical that the OC5 – Humane Orientation dimension has the strongest correlation with the dimension of SN – Subjective Norm.

The next dimension in terms of impact strength is OC3 – Power Distance. Power distance has the least effect on RT – Risk-taking, because under high power distance conditions people rarely make decisions involving risk. However, power distance encourages employees to be proactive and in particular motivates them to achieve. Simply, people have the need to prove themselves in such conditions and fight against the power distance through their own achievements. Likewise, in conditions of high power distance, some people experience the need to gain a higher degree of power through their achievements. Furthermore, what is very important is that power distance significantly and positively affects EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions. In fact, from all the dimensions of organizational culture, OC3 – Power Distance has the greatest impact on entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, in conditions of expressed power distance, employees have intensified intentions to start their own businesses in order to "save" themselves from such high power distance. It is particularly interesting that the correlation between OC3 – Power Distance and EI – Entrepreneurial intentions is significantly stronger than that between OC3 – Power Distance and PA – Personal Attitude. There is a greater influence here on intention than on attitude. So, power distance works in a very specific way: it exerts a strong influence so that people intend to leave the organization and start their own businesses even if they do

not have a strong desire for entrepreneurship and do not consider the entrepreneurial call so attractive.

Similar effects of power distance have been confirmed in other studies. In the paper (Liu, Loi, Ngo, 2018), it was found that power distance may indicate an increase in intentions to leave the organization. Some references (Asrar-ul-Haq/Kuchinke 2016; Chou/Sibley/Liu/Lin/ Cheng 2015; Suar/Tewari/Chaturbedi 2006) show that an authoritarian style of leadership, which is closely related to power distance, also leads to increased intentions to leave the organization. However, it should be borne in mind that these references refer to situations where although employees want to leave the organization, their reasons for doing so are not necessarily related to starting an entrepreneurial venture.

The third dimension in terms of impact strength is OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional). Emphasizing collective loyalty and interests, as well as encouraging team work, positively reflects on the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. In such circumstances, people are encouraged to take risks, turn towards innovativeness, focus on achievement, and have increased perceptions of their own abilities (a statistically significant and positive correlation with the dimension PBC – Perceived Behavioural Control). There is also a statistically significant but poor correlation with the dimension EI – Entrepreneurial intentions. It is interesting that the dimension OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional) has the smallest influence on the SN – Subjective Norm dimension, which is also the weakest correlation achieved by the SN – Subjective Norm dimension. Obviously, in conditions which promote collective interests and collective loyalty, there is no room for strong support for members of the collective to leave it and start their own businesses.

It should be noted that dimensions OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance and OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism have statistically significant impacts on the EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions dimension. This can be explained in the following way: the conditions for avoiding uncertainty (regularity, consistency, simple jobs without stress, well-defined jobs) and pronounced gender equality give employees a certain sense of security. This feeling makes people start to think and believe that this is a normal state and that all jobs are just as safe, simple and stress free. It is in such cases that entrepreneurial ambitions may emerge: why not open my own company, when it's so easy...? Of course, the reality is different, but in favourable conditions, people begin to develop such perceptions. The impact of OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism is particularly interesting because, similar to OC3 – Power Distance, there is a stronger impact on entrepreneurial intentions than on attitude. There may be a more complex impact here: if there are more women in managerial positions and if women are more stimulated in the organization, this in turn may stimulate men to want to open their own com-

panies, and also other women who are not in leadership positions. This can happen even when attitudes towards entrepreneurship are not particularly favourable.

The dimension of SN – Substantive Norm is under the greatest influence of the organizational culture dimensions. Organizational culture, as a reflection of social relations and occurrences in the organization, appears to significantly shape the support an individual can expect for some of his ambitions and actions, including those related to entrepreneurship. It is precisely the EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions dimension which is under the weakest influence of the dimensions of organizational culture. This could be expected given that other dimensions (individual entrepreneurial performances) can be directed towards something other than entrepreneurship, whereby proactivity and the need for achievement, for example, can be focused on the current jobs held by the respondents. However, the items which make up the EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions dimension are explicit and relate solely to the firm resolution to open one's own company. It should be emphasized that the respondents are employed persons, so strong entrepreneurial intentions are unlikely, as are strong and direct impacts of organizational culture precisely on direct entrepreneurial intentions. However, it has been shown that certain dimensions of organizational culture have such influences on entrepreneurial intentions.

Based on the aforementioned, it may be concluded that there is a statistically significant influence of individual dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. Thus, hypothesis H1 was confirmed.

5.3 Discussion of the results of the regression analysis (checking hypothesis H2)

Table 3 shows the results of the regression analysis used to examine the predictive effects of the dimensions of organizational culture on the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. It is easy to see that dimensions OC3 – Power Distance, then OC5 – Human Orientation have the strongest predictive effect, with dimension OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional) also exerting a strong influence. In this section, the results of the regression analysis are consistent with those of the correlation analysis, so the explanations are similar. It should be noted that the OC5 – Humane Orientation dimension has a statistically significant and positive predictive effect on the EI – Entrepreneurial intentions dimension. The explanation is similar for (previously described) the impact of dimensions OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance and OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism: in a people-oriented working environment, employees feel encouraged and have a

stronger sense of security, and therefore their perceptions of other jobs and also entrepreneurship are similarly positive.

However, the regression analysis also showed strong predictive effects of two other dimensions: OC9 – Assertiveness and OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group). In addition, these two dimensions achieve statistically significant, but negative predictive effects, which relate particularly to the dimension OC9 – Assertiveness. In the correlation analysis, although these two dimensions showed a negative impact on entrepreneurial intentions, this impact was not statistically significant. In the regression analysis, due to the effect of a large number of independent variables, the predictive effect of the OC9 – Assertiveness and OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) dimensions on the EI – Entrepreneurial intentions dimension proved to be negative. An assertive organizational environment (the existence of a larger number of employees who are persistent, ambitious, full of confidence, mentally strong, decisive, stable) can create feelings of inferiority among some employees. They then begin to doubt their ability to fight in such a way, and also, because of the existence of such an environment, they may perceive entrepreneurial work with increased fear of failure. While avoiding uncertainty, gender equality, institutional collectivism and humane orientation create a (apparent) sense of security which encourages people to take up entrepreneurial ventures, in the case of assertiveness, the opposite occurs.

When it comes to the statistically significant negative predictive effect of the OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) dimension, the explanation is logical: the rise in group collectivism (the loyalty of employees towards the organization, the loyalty of the organization towards employees, the employees' pride in working in the organization) makes the subsequent reduction in entrepreneurial intentions understandable. The dimensions OC9 – Assertiveness and OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) also have a negative predictive effect on the dimensions of PA – Personal Attitude and PBC – Perceived Behavioural Control (where the predictive effect of OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) on PA – Personal Attitude is negative, but not statistically significant). The explanations here are similar to those for the negative impact of these two dimensions on the EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions dimension. Such results for the dimension OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) are similar to those of some other studies. For example, according to (Felfe et al. 2008; Cheng/Liou 2011), collectivism in organizations directly and indirectly affects a reduction in intentions to leave the job. Also, this result may be considered similar to the results gained in studies which show that organizational support reduces intentions to leave the organization (Chiaburu et al. 2013; Panchamia/Pestonjee 2017; Roy et al. 2017; Cho/Johanson/Guchait 2009). It should be noted that the aforementioned studies deal with intentions to leave the organization, without considering the wish to start an entrepreneurial venture.

According to Table 3, the corrected R^2 determination indexes have slightly lower, but statistically significant values, ranging from 0.062 to 0.130. Observed according to individual dependent variables (the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions), those dimensions under the strongest predictive effect of the organizational culture dimension are ACH – Achievement, PBC – Perceived Behavioural Control, as well as EI – Entrepreneurial intentions. On the other hand, the dimensions IN – Innovativeness, PA – Personal Attitude and RT – Risk-taking are under the weakest predictive effect of the dimensions of organizational culture.

On this basis, it may be concluded that there is a statistically significant predictive effect of individual dimensions of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. This confirmed the H2 hypothesis.

By integrating the results of the correlation and regression analyses, conclusions about the impacts of organizational culture on two particularly important dimensions can be drawn: PA – Personal Attitude and EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions (Figure 3). Most of the dimensions of organizational culture, especially OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance, OC2 – Future Oriented, OC3 – Power Distance and OC5 – Humane Orientation, have a positive influence on the PA – Personal Attitude dimension, while OC9 – Assertiveness has a negative impact. Although the OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) dimension has a negative impact, which is not statistically significant, it may point to a certain impact tendency. A large number of organizational culture dimensions, in particular OC3 – Power Distance, OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance, OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism, OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional) and OC5 – Humane Orientation, have a positive influence on the EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions dimension, while dimensions OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) and OC9 – Assertiveness have negative impacts.

5.4 Discussion of the moderating effects of gender (checking hypothesis H3)

Tables 4 and 5 show the results of examining the moderating effects of the respondents' gender in the relationship between the organizational culture dimensions and the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. In general, the moderating effect of the respondents' gender is manifested by the fact that in some cases the correlations are stronger among men, and in other cases stronger among women (in the case of OC3 – Power Distance). Thus, a general conclusion cannot be drawn as to whether organizational culture has a greater influence on the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions among men or women.

The moderating effect is not so strong, but there are some important relationships, which are described below.

High OC3 – Power Distance among women causes a more powerful influence on ACH – Achievement and PA – Personal attitude. Increased power distance among men results in a decline in security, and a lack of willingness and self-confidence, making the impact on the need for achievement positive, but significantly lower than it is among women. Higher power distance is caused by the same EI – Entrepreneurial Intention among both women and men. Thus, the phenomenon of entrepreneurial intentions is expressed among men, even if they do not have the desire to get engaged in entrepreneurship. It can be said that men are more likely to endure power distance, because they are ready to open their own companies even if they do not believe in entrepreneurial ventures. On the other hand, in conditions of increased power distance, women honestly believe entrepreneurship to be a good option.

With the exception of the impact of the OC3 – Power Distance dimension, there is a stronger influence of the dimensions of organizational culture on the dimensions of ACH – Achievement and PA – Personal Attitude among men (with the note that although for dimension ACH – Achievement the moderating effect is not statistically significant, there is a tendency). In particular, in the case of a good and favourable organizational culture, which is oriented towards people, performances and group collectivism (dimensions OC5 – Humane Orientation, OC6 – Performance Orientation and OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group)), men feel encouraged and gain self-confidence, so they have a stronger need for achievement and a more favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship. On the contrary, women in such conditions are more satisfied and have less need for achievement, and entrepreneurial work is less attractive to them: they are socially fulfilled in their current jobs. It can also be assumed here that women can be more inspired by other sources, and that they do not have such a great need for an organizational culture to support them. Of course, this does not mean that women, in general, have a lower need for achievement than men, but that the need for achievement in women is less dependent on a supportive organizational culture and the organizational environment itself. Women can find motivation for achievement in other aspects of life outside the organization, such as: family, friends, personal ambitions, etc. At the same time, men find motivation for achievement, to a greater extent than women, in an organizational setting and context. Hence, when it comes to the dimensions of ACH – Achievement and PA – Personal Attitude, the difference lies in the impact of power distance: the need for achievement and attitudes towards entrepreneurship among women grow with increasing power distance, while for men the need for achievement and attitudes towards entrepreneurship increase with the strengthening of other dimensions of organizational culture.

There is a tendency whereby the impact of organizational culture on SN – Subjective Norm and PBC – Perceived Behavioural Control is considerably stronger among men, especially in the case of the OC6 – Performance Orientation dimension. Interestingly, this does not apply again in the case of increased power distance, when women receive stronger support for engaging in entrepreneurship and have improved perception of their abilities. These relationships are not statistically significant, but they show that, in such conditions, there is a greater understanding for women in the environment and hence a greater need to protect them from increased power distance. On the other hand, due to the increased power distance among men, there is a fall in self-confidence, and they are less likely to perceive their abilities than women.

The impact of OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism should also be noted. This dimension has a stronger impact among men, especially in the PR – Proactiveness dimension. Men seem to be more motivated when women are in better positions: they may be more relaxed but also want to prove themselves.

Finally, it can be said that the moderating effect of the respondents' gender on the observed relationships exists in a number of cases. The previous discussions and conclusions indicate that the H3 hypothesis is partially confirmed.

6 Conclusion

From the dimensions of organizational culture, the dimension OC5 – Humane Orientation has the most powerful influence on the individual entrepreneurial orientation dimensions, the achievement dimension and the theory of planned behaviour dimensions. However, this dimension does not have a statistically significant correlation with EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions (the regression analysis showed a statistically significant predictive effect on EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions, which is set out below).

The next dimension in terms of impact strength is OC3 – Power Distance. From all the dimensions of organizational culture, power distance has the greatest impact on entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, unfavourable conditions, expressed through a high power distance, intensify entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons. At the same time, power distance also has a statistically significant correlation with the dimension of PA – Personal Attitude, but this correlation is considerably lower than that of EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions. The phenomenon is that power distance has a greater impact on intentions than on attitudes: people develop entrepreneurial intentions because of the power distance, even if they do not have a particularly favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship.

Organizational culture, in general, has the greatest influence on the dimension of SN – Substantive Norm. Thus, organizational culture, as a representation of the

interpersonal relationships and values in the organization, significantly influences the support the members of the organization receive, including support for eventual entrepreneurial ambitions. SN – Subjective Norm has the weakest correlation with the dimension OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional), which means that collective interests and collective loyalty cannot at the same time involve support for leaving this collective.

The dimensions OC1 – Uncertainty Avoidance, OC8 – Gender Egalitarianism and OC4 – Collectivism 1 (Institutional) all have statistically significant effects on the dimension EI – Entrepreneurial Intentions. However, the regression analysis showed that the OC5 – Humane Orientation dimension also has a statistically significant and positive predictive effect on entrepreneurial intentions, while the dimensions OC9 – Assertiveness and OC7 – Collectivism 2 (In group) have a statistically significant and negative predictive effect on entrepreneurial intentions.

Thus, organizational culture influences employees' entrepreneurial intentions in many ways. Intentions are intensified in two cases: a) when there is a very unpleasant atmosphere in the organization due to the high power distance, and employees want to leave the organization; b) when there are certain perceived favourable conditions in the organization (avoidance of uncertainty, gender equality, institutional collectivism, people orientation), which make employees feel secure and encouraged in the general sense, but also stimulate entrepreneurial ventures. Intentions weaken in two cases: a) when there is a pronounced group collectivism in the organization, and employees do not want to leave the organization because of loyalty and good interpersonal relationships; b) when there is an assertive environment in the organization, which makes employees in the organization feel insecure and discouraged, in general terms, but also for entrepreneurial ventures.

The conclusions on the moderating effects of the respondents' gender on the observed relationships could be summarized in the following way. A favourable (collectivist and socially oriented) organizational culture makes women more satisfied and they consequently have less need for achievement, as well as weaker attitudes towards entrepreneurship. The same conditions for men mean result in a greater sense of security and self-confidence, so the desire for achievement and attitudes towards entrepreneurship are stronger than among women. Men are therefore more motivated by favourable conditions in the organization, while this is not so important for women. However, extremely unfavourable conditions, expressed through a high power distance, discourage men, while for women this increases the need for achievement and the development of more positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship. Support for women's entrepreneurship strengthens in cases of high power distance. In case of high power distance, entrepreneurial intentions are equal, which means that men are then ready to start

their own businesses even if they do not have a particularly favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship. It may be said that employed men generally want to be entrepreneurs, but they need courage to do this, while employed women do not generally want to be female entrepreneurs, unless they are "forced to do so" due to certain very unfavourable conditions, for example high power distance.

The limitation of the research is that it was conducted in organizations in Serbia, and therefore the obtained results and conclusions are primarily valid for the conditions in Serbia. However, it can be assumed that similar relationships exist in other transition countries in the region, but also wider. In any case, it would be beneficial to conduct such research in other countries, in order to broaden the study of entrepreneurial intentions among employed persons.

The hypotheses were tested: the first two were confirmed and the third was partially confirmed. The theoretical significance of the research stems from the fact that two validated hypotheses, namely those relating to the initial, theoretical assumption of the existence of the influence of organizational culture on individual entrepreneurial orientation, the need for achievement, the theory of planned behaviour and entrepreneurial intentions. In this way, the presence of relationships between the observed independent and dependent variables was verified and confirmed. The practical implications of the research can take two directions (recommendations). On the one hand, leaders and managers should continuously work on improving the organizational culture in their organizations, and above all on the balance of power distance. On the other hand, state institutions, which are engaged in stimulating and improving entrepreneurship, must also consider the employed population as potential entrepreneurs. In that sense, it would be important to provide adequate attention to employees, to organize training and provide financial support for employed persons, in order to encourage this population to launch entrepreneurial ventures.

Acknowledgement

This paper was supported by the Provincial Secretariat for Science and Technological Development, Autonomous Province of Vojvodina, project number: 142–451–2139/2019–01.

7 References

- Ajzen, I. (1991): Theory of planned behavior, in: *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 2, 179–211.
- Altınay, L./Madanoglu, M./Daniele, R./Lashley, C. (2012): The influence of family tradition and psychological traits on entrepreneurial intention, in: *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 2, 489–499.
- Antončič, B./Hisrich, R.D. (2001): Intrapreneurship: Construct refinement and cross-cultural validation, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 16, 5, 495–527.

- Antončič, B. (2007): Intrapreneurship: A comparative structural equation modeling study, in: *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, 107, 3, 309–325.
- Asrar-ul-Haq, M./Kuchinke, K.P. (2016): Impact of leadership styles on employees' attitude towards their leader and performance: Empirical evidence from Pakistani banks, in: *Future Business Journal*, 2, 54–64.
- Athayde, R. (2009): Measuring Enterprise Potential in Young People, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33, 2, 481–500.
- Autio, E./Keeley, R.H./Klofsten, M./Parker, G.G.C./Hay, M. (2001): Entrepreneurial intent among students in Scandinavia and in the USA, in: *Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies*, 2, 2, 145–160.
- Azanza, G./Morianio, J.A./Molero, F. (2013): Authentic leadership and organizational culture as drivers of employees' job satisfaction, in: *Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 29, (2013), 45–50.
- Bandura, A. (1997): *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Becherer, R.C./Maurer, J.G. (1999): The proactive personality disposition and entrepreneurial behaviour among small company presidents, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 37, 1, 28–36.
- Begley, T.M./Boyd, D.P. (1987): Psychological characteristics associated with performance in entrepreneurial firms and smaller businesses, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 2, 1, 79–93.
- Bird, B. (1988): Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: The case for intentions, in: *Academy of Management Review*, 13, 3, 442–453.
- Bolton, D.L./ Lane, M.D. (2012): Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation: development of a measurement instrument, in: *Education + Training*, 54, 2/3, 219–233.
- Brandstätter, H. (2011): Personality aspects of entrepreneurship: A look at five meta-analyses, in: *Personality and Individual Differences (Special Issue on Personality and Economics)*, 51, 3, 222–230.
- Brockhaus, R.H. (1982): The psychology of the entrepreneur. In C.A. Kent, D.L. Sexton, and K.H. Vesper, eds., *Encyclopedia of entrepreneurship*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Buttner, E.H./Gryskiewicz, N. (1993): Entrepreneurs' problem-solving styles: An empirical study using the Kirton adaption/innovation theory, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 31, 1, 22–31.
- Caird, S. (1991): Testing enterprise tendency in occupational groups, in: *British Journal of Management*, 2, 4, 177–186.
- Caliendo, M./Fossen, M./Kritikos, A.S. (2014): Personality characteristics and the decisions to become and stay self-employed, in: *Small Business Economics*, 42, 4, 787–814.
- Carsrud, A./Brännback, M. (2011): Entrepreneurial Motivations: What do we Still Need to Know?, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 49, 1, 9–26.
- Cheng, C./ Liou, S. (2011): Intention to leave of Asian nurses in US hospitals: does cultural orientation matter?, in: *Journal of Clinical Nursing*, 20, 13–14, 2033–2042.
- Chiaburu, D.S./Lorinkova, N.M./Van Dyne, L. (2013): Employees' Social Context and Change-Oriented Citizenship A Meta-Analysis of Leader, Coworker, and Organizational Influences, in: *Group & Organization Management*, 38, 3, 291–333.

- Cho, S./Johanson, M.M./Guchait, P. (2009): Employees intent to leave: A comparison of determinants of intent to leave versus intent to stay, in: *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28, 3, 374–381.
- Chou, W.J./Sibley, C.G./Liu, J.H./Lin, T.T./Cheng, B.S. (2015): Paternalistic Leadership Profiles A Person-Centered Approach, in: *Group & Organization Management*, 40, 5, 685–710.
- Çolakoğlu, N./Gözükara, I. (2016): A comparison study on personality traits based on the attitudes of university students toward entrepreneurship. 5th International Conference on Leadership, Technology, Innovation and Business Management, in: *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 229, (2016), 133–140.
- Collins, C.J./Hanges, P./Locke, E.A. (2004): The relationship of need for achievement to entrepreneurship: A meta-analysis, in: *Human Performance*, 17, 1, 95–117.
- Crant, J.M. (2000): Proactive Behavior in Organizations, in: *Journal of Management*, 26, 3, 435–462.
- Crant, J.M. (1996): The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 34, 3, 42–49.
- Deal T.E./Kennedy, A.A. (1982): *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Douglas, E.J./Shepherd, D.A. (2002): Self-employment as a career choice: attitudes, entrepreneurial intentions, and utility maximization, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26, 3, 81–90.
- Drucker, P. (1985): *Innovation and entrepreneurship: Practice and principles*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Espíritu-Olmos, R./ Sastre-Castillo, M.A. (2015): Personality traits versus work values: Comparing psychological theories on entrepreneurial intention, in: *Journal of Business Research*, 68, 7, 1595–1598.
- Fayolle, A./Liñán, F./Moriano, J.A. (2014): Beyond entrepreneurial intentions: values and motivations in entrepreneurship, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 10, 4, 679–689.
- Felfe, J./Yan, W./Six, B. (2008): The Impact of Individual Collectivism on Commitment and Its Influence on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Turnover in Three Countries, in: *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 8, 2, 211–237.
- García-Rodríguez, F.J./Gil-Soto, E./Ruiz-Rosa, I./Mamour Sene, P. (2015): Entrepreneurial intentions in diverse development contexts: a cross-cultural comparison between Senegal and Spain, in: *International Entrepreneurship Management Journal*, 11, 3, 511–527.
- Ghapanchi, A.H./Aurum, A. (2011): Antecedents to IT personnel's intentions to leave: A systematic literature review, in: *Journal of Systems and Software*, 84, 2, 238–249.
- Gibb, A. (1993): The enterprise culture and education, in: *International Small Business Journal*, 11, 3, 11–34.
- Gibb, A. (2000): SME policy, academic research and the growth of ignorance: Mythical concepts, myths, assumptions, rituals and confusions, in: *International Small Business Journal*, 18, 3, 13–35.
- Goldsmith, R.E./Kerr, J.R. (1991): Entrepreneurship and adaption-innovation theory, in: *Tech-novation*, 11, 6, 373–382.

- Gupta, V.K./ Gupta, A. (2015): Relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and firm performance in large organizations over time, in: *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 13, 1, 7–27.
- Gürol, Y./Atsan, N. (2006): Entrepreneurial characteristics amongst university students: Some insights for entrepreneurship education and training in Turkey, in: *Education and Training*, 48, 1, 25–38.
- Harris, S.G./ Mossholder, K.W. (1996): The Affective Implications of Perceived Congruence with Culture Dimensions during Organizational Transformation, in: *Journal of Management*, 22, 4, 527–547.
- Hisrich, R.D. (1990). Entrepreneurship/intrapreneurship, in: *American Psychologist*, 45, 2, 209–222.
- Hofstede, G. (2001): *Culture's Consequences, Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. Thousand Oaks CA: Sage Publications.
- Hofstede, G. (1991): *Cultures and organizations: software of the mind*. London, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Hornsby, J./Peña-Legazque, I./Guerrero, M. (2013): Guest editorial: the role of corporate entrepreneurship in the current organizational and economic landscape, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 9, 3, 295–305.
- Hormiga, E./Hancock, C./Valls-Pasola, J. (2013): The relationship between employee propensity to innovate and their decision to create a company, in: *Management Decision*, 51, 5, 938–953.
- House, R.J./Hanges, P.J./Javidan, M./Dorfman, P.W./Gupta, V. (2004): *Leadership, culture, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- House, R.J./Javidan, M./Hanges, P./Dorfman, P. (2002): Understanding Cultures and Implicit Leadership Theories Across the Globe: An Introduction to Project GLOBE, in: *Journal of World Business*, 37, 1, 3–10.
- House, R.J./Javidan, M./Dorfman, P. (2001): Project GLOBE: An Introduction, in: *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50, 4, 489–505.
- House, R. J./Hanges, P. J./Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A./Dorfman, P. W./Falkus, S. A./Ashkanasy, N. M. (1999): Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project Globe. In W. H. Mobley, M. J. Gessner and V. Arnold (Ed.), *Advances in Global Leadership* 2 ed. (171–233) Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Ltd.
- Ivancevich, J.M./Matteson, M.T. (2002): *Organizational Behavior and Management*, 6th Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Jain, R./Ali, S.W. (2013): A Review of facilitators, barriers and gateways to entrepreneurship: Directions for future research, in: *South Asian Journal of Management*, 20, 3, 122–163.
- Javidan, M./House, R.J./Dorfman, P.W. (2004): A Nontechnical Summary of GLOBE Findings. In R.J. House, P.J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P.W. Dorfman, and V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies* (29–48). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Javidan, M./House, R.J. (2001): Cultural Acumen for the Global Manager: Lessons from Project GLOBE, in: *Organizational Dynamics*, 29, 4, 289–305.

- Joo, B.K./Hahn, H.J./Peterson, S.L. (2015): Turnover intention: the effects of core self-evaluations, proactive personality, perceived organizational support, developmental feedback, and job complexity, in: *Human Resource Development International*, 18, 2, 116–130.
- Judge, T.A./Thoresen, C.J./Bono, J.E./Patton, G.K. (2001): The Job Satisfaction – Job Performance Relationship: a Qualitative and Quantitative Review, in: *Psychological Bulletin*, 127, 376–407.
- Karimi, S./Biemans, H.J.A./Lans, T./Chizari, M./Mulder, M. (2016): The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education: A Study of Iranian Students' Entrepreneurial Intentions and Opportunity Identification, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 54, 1, 187–209.
- Khotin, L. (2016): Old and New Entrepreneurs in Today's Russia, in: *Problems of Post-Communism*, 43, 1, 49–57.
- Kinicki, A./Kreitner, R. (2006): *Organizational behavior: key concepts, skills and best practices*, 2nd Edition, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Koe, W.L. (2016): The relationship between Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation (IEO) and entrepreneurial intention, in: *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 6, 1, 2–11.
- Korunka, C./Frank, H./Lueger, M./Mugler, J. (2003): The entrepreneurial personality in the context of resources, environment, and the startup process – A configurational approach, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28, 1, 23–42.
- Krueger, N.F., Jr./Reilly, M.D./Carsrud, A.L. (2000): Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15, 5–6, 411–432.
- Kwong, C./Thompson, P. (2016): The When and Why: Student Entrepreneurial Aspirations, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 54, 1, 299–318.
- Lee, L./Wong, P.K./Foo, M.D./Leung, A. (2011): Entrepreneurial intentions: The influence of organizational and individual factors, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26, 1, 124–136.
- Lee, T.W./Maurer, S.D. (1999): The effects of family structure on organizational commitment, intention to leave and voluntary turnover, in: *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 11, 4, 493–513.
- Lee, T.W./Mitchell, T.R. (1994): An alternative approach: The unfolding model of voluntary employee turnover, in: *Academy of Management Review*, 19, 1, 51–89.
- Liñán, F./Rodríguez-Cohard, J.C./Rueda-Cantuche, J.M. (2011): Factors affecting entrepreneurial intention levels: a role for education, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7, 2, 195–218.
- Liñán, F./Urbano, D./Guerrero, M. (2011): Regional variations in entrepreneurial cognitions: Start-up intentions of university students in Spain, in: *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development An International Journal*, 23, 3–4, 187–215.
- Liñán, F./Chen, Y.W. (2009): Development and Cross-Cultural Application of a Specific Instrument to Measure Entrepreneurial Intention, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33, 3, 593–617.
- Liñán, F. (2004): Intention-based models of entrepreneurship education, in: *Piccola Impresa/ Small Business*, 3, 11–35.
- Liu, Y./Loi, R./Ngo, H. (2018): Linking organizational social exchange to intention to leave: Does normative commitment matter?, in: *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2017.1423097.
- Lumpkin, G.T./Dess, G.G. (1996): Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance, in: *The Academy of Management Review*, 21, 1, 135–172.

- Lüthje, C./Franke, N. (2003): The 'making' of an entrepreneur: testing a model of entrepreneurial intent among engineering students at MIT, in: *R&D Management*, 33, 2, 135–147.
- Lyon, D./Lumpkin, G.T./Dess, G.G. (2000): Enhancing entrepreneurial orientation research: operationalizing and measuring a key strategic decision making process, in: *Journal of Management*, 26, 5, 1055–85.
- Macintosh, E.W./Doherty, A. (2010): The influence of organizational culture on job satisfaction and intention to leave, in: *Sport Management Review*, 13, 2, 106–117.
- Marshall, D.R./Gigliotti, R. (2018): Bound for entrepreneurship? A career-theoretical perspective on entrepreneurial intentions, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-018-0523-6>
- McClelland, D.C. (1961): *The achieving society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Miller, D. (1983): The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms, in: *Management Science*, 29, 7, 770–791.
- Minarcine, S./Shaw, C. (2016): Motivations for entrepreneurship, in: *International Journal of the Academic Business World*, 10, 2, 47–56.
- Miner, J.B./Raju, N.S. (2004): Risk propensity differences between managers and entrepreneurs and between low and high growth entrepreneurs: A reply in a more conservative vein, in: *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 1, 3–13.
- Miralles, F./Giones, F./Riverola, C. (2016): Evaluating the impact of prior experience in entrepreneurial intention, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 12, 3, 791–813.
- Mohedano-Suanes, A./Benitez, D.G. (2018): Intrapreneurs: Characteristics and Behavior. (pp. 109–119), In: Tur Porcar A., Ribeiro Soriano D. (eds) *Inside the Mind of the Entrepreneur*. Contributions to Management Science: Springer, Cham.
- Moriano, J.A./Gorgievski, M./Laguna, M./Stephan, U./Zarafshani, K. (2012): A Cross-Cultural Approach to Understanding Entrepreneurial Intention, in: *Journal of Career Development*, 39, 2, 162–185.
- Moynihan, D.P./Pandey, S.K. (2007): Finding workable levers over work motivation: Comparing job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment, in: *Administration & Society*, 39, 7, 803–832.
- Mueller, S.L./Thomas, A.S. (2001): Culture and entrepreneurial potential: A nine country study of locus of control and innovativeness, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 16, 1, 51–75.
- Muñoz-Bullón, F./Sánchez-Bueno, M.J./Vos-Saz, A. (2015): Nascent entrepreneurs' personality attributes and the international dimension of new ventures, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 11, 3, 473–492.
- Ngo, H./Loi, R./Foley, S./Zheng, X./Zhang, L. (2013): Perceptions of organizational context and job attitudes: The mediating effect of organizational identification, in: *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 30, 1, 149–168.
- Nikolić, M./Vukonjanski, J./Nedeljković, M./Hadžić, O./Terek, E., (2013): The impact of internal communication on job satisfaction dimensions and the moderating role of LMX, in: *Public Relations Review*, 39, 5, 563–565.

- O'Reilly, C.A. III/Chatman, J./Caldwell, D.F. (1991): People and Organizational Culture: A Profile Comparison Approach to Assessing Person-Organization Fit, in: *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 3, 487–516.
- Pacanowsky, M./O'Donell-Trujillo, N. (1982): Communication and organizational culture, in: *The Western Journal of Speech Communication*, 46, 2, 115–130.
- Panchamia, J./Pestonjee, D.M. (2017): Impact of Cultural Ethos and Structural Organicity on Turnover Intention: Evidence from the Indian Pharmaceutical Industry, in: *Metamorphosis*, 16, 1, 33–44.
- Paul, J./Shrivatava, A. (2016): Do young managers in a developing country have stronger entrepreneurial intentions? Theory and debate, in: *International Business Review*, 25, 6, 1197–1210.
- Rajković, J./Nikolić, M./Čockalo, D./Terek, E./Božić, S. (2020): National culture and the entrepreneurial intentions of students in Serbia, in: *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 25, 1, 101–138.
- Rauch, A./Wiklund, J./Lumpkin, G.T./Frese, M. (2009): Entrepreneurial orientation and business performance: an assessment of past research and suggestions for the future in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 33, 3, 761–787.
- Rauch, A./Frese, M. (2007): Let's put the person back into entrepreneurship research: a meta-analysis on the relationship between business owners' personality traits, business creation, and success, in: *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*, 16, 4, 353–85.
- Reijonen, H./Hirvonen, S./Nagy, G./Laukkanen, T./Gabrielsson, M. (2015): The impact of entrepreneurial orientation on B2B branding and business growth in emerging markets, in: *Industrial Marketing Management*, 51, 35–46.
- Rezaei Zadeh, M./Hogan, M./O'Reilly, J./Cunningham, J./Murphy, E. (2017): Core entrepreneurial competencies and their interdependencies: insights from a study of Irish and Iranian entrepreneurs, university students and academics, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 13, 1, 35–73.
- Robinson, S./Stubberud, H.A. (2014): Elements of entrepreneurial orientation and their relationship to entrepreneurial intent, in: *Journal of Entrepreneurship Education*, 17, 2, 1–12.
- Robinson, P.B./Stimpson, D.V./Huefner, J.C./Hunt, H.K. (1991): An attitude approach to the prediction of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 15, 4, 13–31.
- Roy, A./van der Weijden, T./de Vries, N. (2017): Relationships of work characteristics to job satisfaction, turnover intention, and burnout among doctors in the district public-private mixed health system of Bangladesh, in: *BMC Health Services Research*, 17, 421.
- Roy, R./Akhtar, F./Das, N. (2017): Entrepreneurial intention among science & technology students in India: extending the theory of planned behavior, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 13, 4, 1013–1041.
- Sajfert, D./Nikolić, M./Vukonjanski, J./Terek, E./Vulović, M. (2017): The impact of leaders' ethical behavior on certain individual and organizational effects: the Serbian case, in: *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 22, 4, 444–483.
- Saraf, N. (2015): What Determines Entrepreneurial Intention in India?, in: *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation in Emerging Economies*, 1, 1, 39–55.
- Schein, E.H. (1985): *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Schlaegel, C./ Koenig, M. (2014): Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intent: A Meta-Analytic Test and Integration of Competing Models, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 38, 2, 291–332.
- Schumpeter, J.A. (1934): *The theory of economic development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Press.
- Schumpeter J.A. (1965): *Economic Theory and Entrepreneurial History*. In: H.G. Aitken (ed.) *Explorations in enterprise*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Shapero, A./Sokol, L. (1982): Social dimensions of entrepreneurship. In C.A. Kent, D.L. Sexton, & K.H. Vesper (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of entrepreneurship* (pp. 72–90). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Shaver, K.G./Scott, L.R. (1991). Person, Process, Choice: The Psychology of New Venture Creation, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 27, 2, 23–45.
- Shinnar, R.S./Giacomin, O./Janssen, F. (2012): Entrepreneurial Perceptions and Intentions: The Role of Gender and Culture, in: *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 36, 3, 465–493.
- Shinnar, R.S./Young, C. (2008): Hispanic immigrant entrepreneurs in the Las Vegas metropolitan area: Motivations for entry into and outcomes of self-employment, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 46, 2, 242–262.
- Smith, N.R./Miner, J.B. (1985): Motivational considerations in the success of technologically innovative entrepreneurs: Extended sample findings. In J. Hornaday, E. Shile, J. Timmons, and K. Vesper, eds., *Frontiers of entrepreneurship research*. Wellesley, MA: Babson College.
- Sorgner, A./Fritsch, M. (2018): Entrepreneurial career paths: occupational context and the propensity to become self-employed, in: *Small Business Economics*, 51, 1, 129–152.
- Stewart, W.H./Roth, Ph.L. (2007): A Meta-Analysis of Achievement Motivation Differences between Entrepreneurs and Managers, in: *Journal of Small Business Management*, 45, 4, 401–421.
- Stewart, W.H./Roth, Ph.L. (2004): Data quality affects meta-analytic conclusions: A response to Miner and Raju (2004) concerning entrepreneurial risk propensity, in: *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 1, 14–21.
- Stewart, W.H./Roth, Ph.L. (2001): Risk propensity differences between entrepreneurs and managers: A meta-analytic review, in: *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 1, 145–153.
- Stewart, W.H./Watson, W.E./Carland, J.C./Carland, J.W. (1999): A Proclivity for Entrepreneurship: A Comparison of Entrepreneurs, Small Business Owners, and Corporate Managers, in: *Journal of Business Venturing*, 14, 2, 189–214.
- Suar, D./Tewari, H.R./Chaturbedi, K.R. (2006): Subordinates' Perception of Leadership Styles and Their Work Behaviour, in: *Psychology and Developing Societies*, 18, 1, 95–114.
- Tatarko, A./Schmidt, P. (2016): Individual social capital and the implementation of entrepreneurial intentions: The case of Russia, in: *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 19, 1, 76–85.
- Tkachev, A./Kolvereid, L. (1999): Self-employment intentions among Russian students, in: *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development An International Journal*, 11, 3, 187–215.
- Toledo-López, A./Díaz-Pichardo, R./Jimenez-Castañeda, J.C./Sánchez-Medina, P.S. (2012): Defining success in subsistence businesses, in: *Journal of Business Research*, 65, 12, 1658–1664.

- Tsai, K.H./Chang, H.C./Peng, C.Y. (2016): Refining the linkage between perceived capability and entrepreneurial intention: roles of perceived opportunity, fear of failure, and gender, in: *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 12, 4, 1127–1145.
- Tuunanen, M./Hyrsky, K. (1997). Innovation preferences among Finnish and U.S. entrepreneurs, in: *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 3, 1, 1–11.
- Usaci, D. (2015): Predictors of professional entrepreneurial intention and behavior in the educational field. *PSIWORLD 2014*, in: *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 187, (2015), 178–183.
- Van de Ven, A.H. (1986): Central problems in the management of innovation, in: *Management Science*, 32, 5, 590–607.
- Vinogradov, E./Kolvereid, L./Timoshenko, K. (2013): Predicting entrepreneurial intentions when satisfactory employment opportunities are scarce, in: *Education + Training*, 55, 7, 719–737.
- Vukonjanski, J./Nikolić, M./Hadžić, O./Terek, E./Nedeljković, M. (2012): Relationship between GLOBE organizational culture dimensions, job satisfaction and leader-member exchange in Serbian organizations, in: *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 17, 3, 333–368.
- Werner, A./Gast, J./Kraus, S. (2014): The effect of working time preferences and fair wage perceptions on entrepreneurial intentions among employees, in: *Small Business Economics*, 43, 1, 137–160.
- Zhang, P./Wang, D.D./Owen, C.L. (2015): A Study of Entrepreneurial Intention of University Students, in: *Entrepreneurship Research Journal*, 5, 1, 61–82.