

LINKING ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS TO HOFSTEDE'S CULTURAL DIMENSIONS: AN ANALYSIS OF AFRICAN STUDIES

France Aloyce Shayo

Faculty of Business Management, The Open University of Tanzania

<http://doi.org/10.35409/IJBMER.2023.3484>

ABSTRACT

Numerous institutions have implemented various policies to encourage entrepreneurship as a means of advancing economic development. However, different persons are affected differently by educational programs and entrepreneurship incentives. This study is a review of the literature to analyse the results from various studies on the determinants of entrepreneurial intention in Africa. The determinants of entrepreneurial intention from each country were correlated with Hofstede's national cultural characteristics after an examination of a total of nineteen studies from eight African nations. For entrepreneurial education to be specifically designed to meet diversity, it was important to determine whether one's entrepreneurial aspirations are consistent with their national culture. Findings imply that entrepreneurial intentions are highly influenced by cultural factors. As a result, this study suggests that entrepreneurship education should be specifically tailored to accommodate various ranges of motives. Additionally, it was discovered that although some cultural aspects hindered entrepreneurship, others supported it. People who work in restrictive cultures typically have different drivers of entrepreneurial ambitions than those who operate in supportive cultures. Since culture is immutable, universities' only choice is to adapt their entrepreneurship teaching to different cultural contexts.

Keywords: Paul Hammond Entrepreneurial intention, Entrepreneurial education, Cultural dimensions, University students.

1. INTRODUCTION

Universities around the world are increasingly becoming aware of the need for entrepreneurship education for their prospective graduate. This has been fuelled by the current trend of difficulty in finding direct entry into formal employment. Several studies that embarked on finding the motives behind entrepreneurial intentions came up with diverse findings such as self-assertion and financial independence (Muresan *et al.*, 2017); entrepreneurial alertness and financial security (Gelderen *et al.*, 2008); personal attitude, perceived behavioural control, and perceived relational support (Ambad & Damit 2016); attitude and entrepreneurial behaviour (Arango-Botero *et al.*, 2020) just to mention a few.

Given the variety of results, thorough analysis is necessary to identify trends, similarities, and differences that could assist researchers to narrow their focus. In addition, the analysis guides the entrepreneurship trainers to decide whether entrepreneurial training should be tailored to respond to the diversity and myriad of intentions. Despite some studies such as those of Moriano *et al.*, (2012), Liñán & Chen (2009), and Fitzsimmons & Douglas (2005) considering culture as among the factors that affect entrepreneurial intentions, the majority of entrepreneurial intention studies

such as Muresan *et al.*, (2017), Ambad & Damit (2016), Arango-Botero *et al.*, (2020) and Gelderen *et al.*, (2008) are not contextualized. Since culture is the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others, this study, therefore, argues that entrepreneurial intentions are cultural-specific as suggested by Bogatyreva *et al.*, (2019) and that entrepreneurial education and training must be tailored.

Hofstede *et al.*, (2004) observed two ways through which cultural influence could be used to explain entrepreneurial intentions. First, when culture changes economic and social institutions, it has a beneficial overall effect that makes them more conducive to entrepreneurship. As a result, people could find it easier to start their own businesses. Second, in cultures where starting a business is less common, people may turn to self-employment to achieve personal fulfilment. Hofstede's arguments have been supported by a myriad of studies. For instance, Tomal, & Szromnik (2022) in their attempt to explore the entrepreneurial intentions of students in selected European post-communist states, found that student responses differ significantly among the examined countries because of varying cultures. Other studies that found similar results include Moriano *et al.*, (2012), Swail *et al.*, (2014), Arshard *et al.*, (2019) and Farrukh *et al.*, (2019)

Contrary to many affluent countries, the majority of African nations usually have low levels of both income and employment (Francis and Webster, 2019). As a result, the ability of the impoverished in Africa to affect social dynamics, governmental decisions, and resource distribution is lacking. Additionally, it is said that low-income people lack access to education, training, and other resources that could help them raise their standard of living (Addae-Korankye, 2014). Consequently, college and university graduates may be more inclined to engage in entrepreneurial endeavours rather than looking to get a job in organizations due to such reasons as well as the lack of viable employment alternatives (Orlando *et al.*, 2022). It is behind this background that this study focuses on some selected African countries. While we acknowledge the role of culture in determining whether one would engage in entrepreneurship, the study aims to contextualize the motives behind one's intention to engage in entrepreneurship. Using Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions model and unlike previous entrepreneurial intention studies, the study provides a link between the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions and the six dimensions of national culture.

The remaining part of the paper is organized as follows; we provide a review of literature including an overview of Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Then, follows the methodology and results. The last section deals with a discussion of findings that in addition covers the conclusion, implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been enormous research on entrepreneurial intentions around the world. According to Dolhey (2019), there were at least 1,393 papers published from the year 2000 to 2018, most of which were from developed economies. This is an average of 73 articles per year worldwide. Extrapolating this figure from 2018 to the year 2023, it can be approximated to 1700 published articles to date. Interestingly, the majority of such studies conducted mostly focus on university and college students; using mainly the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). Africa is not an exception as Ngugi *et al.*,(2012); Hattab (2014); Mwiya, (2014); Amanamah *et al.*, (2018);

Adeyonu *et al.*, (2019); Magasi (2022); Ntare and Ojwang (2021) and Lopes *et al.*, (2023) all followed suit in their studies conducted in African nations.

Some scholars diverted from this mainstream thinking by making use of different theories. For instance, Ramoni (2016) used Human Capital Entrepreneurship (HCET) & trait theories while Maina (2011) used Social Learning Theory. Megibaru (2014) used Spillover and Institutional theories while some scholars such as Hattab (2014); Mwiya, (2014); and Amanamah *et al.*, (2018) combined TPB with other theories.

Notwithstanding the commonality of theories (largely TPB) and the population of the studies (university and college students), there have been inconsistent findings among scholars in Africa. For instance, Dzomonda *et al.*, (2015) studied the influence of psychological and contextual factors on the entrepreneurial intention of South African university students and found that needs for achievement, self-efficacy, readiness to take risk, institutional and family support tend to have a substantial bearing on one's intention to become an entrepreneur. Other studies from South Africa by Kalitanyi & Bbenkele (2018) found language knowledge to be a driver of entrepreneurial intention whereas Mothibi & Malebana (2019) found perceived behavioural control, attitude towards entrepreneurship and subjective norms. It is imperative to note that using Hofstede's (1980) framework, the culture of South Africa is moderate in power distance, individualistic, feminine, low preference for avoiding uncertainty, short-term orientation and indulgent.

Elsewhere in Nigeria, a study by Adeyonu *et al.*, (2019) involving undergraduate agricultural students established that personal attitudes towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived educational support were the main factors influencing students' entrepreneurial intentions. Another study from Nigeria by Ramoni, (2016), using Human Capital Entrepreneurship Theory (HCET) & trait theory suggested entrepreneurial education, innovativeness and risk-taking propensity to drive entrepreneurial intentions. Using Hofstede's (1980) framework, we found that the culture of Nigeria is high in power distance, collectivist, masculine, high preference for avoiding uncertainty, short-term orientation and indulgent.

In Ghana, Adu (2020) using the traits theory proposed that behavioural control, risk-taking ability and proactiveness mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial education and the entrepreneurial intentions of students. The traits theory claims that people with higher desires and ambitions to be successful (nAch) have a higher potential to become entrepreneurs. Accordingly, entrepreneurship develops because the individuals called entrepreneurs possessed certain specific traits or characteristics or competencies which make them capable of generating new ideas and creating a new venture. Amanamah *et al.*, (2018) in a similar study in Ghana suggested that exposure to other entrepreneurs and experienced networks, and dissatisfaction with previous jobs are significant predictors of student entrepreneurial intentions. Using Hofstede's (1980) framework, in terms of culture, Ghana ranks high in power distance, it is a collectivistic and feminine society with a high preference for uncertainty avoidance. It is also an indulgent society and has a short-term orientation.

The college environments and exposure to entrepreneurship experiences in Kenya were found to be antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions in a study by Maina (2011). Using Social Learning Theory, the study suggested the presence of mediation effect by self-efficacy and perceptions of desirability. Another study from Kenya was done by Ngugi *et al.*, (2012) who suggested that entrepreneurship courses tend to develop entrepreneurial intentions and the necessary abilities to be an entrepreneur. In addition, the study further concluded that having complete knowledge of

available opportunities and business networks makes university students more likely to establish businesses. The culture of Kenya is characterised by high power distance, collectivism, masculinity and a moderate preference for uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1980).

In an attempt to investigate the impact of entrepreneurship education on the entrepreneurial intentions of university students in Egypt, Hattab (2014) found entrepreneurship education and perceived desirability to be the best predictors of entrepreneurial intentions. There was, however, a lack of significant relationship with perceived feasibility or self-efficacy. A subsequent study by Sharaf *et al.*, (2018) suggested a significant effect of attitude toward behaviour on students' entrepreneurial intention, while there was insignificant effect of traits. The culture of Egypt according to Hofstede's (1980) framework is characterised by high power distance, collectivism and masculinity. In addition, it is a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented and highly restrained society.

Ntare, & Ojwang (2021) concluded in their study in Tanzania that unemployment, poverty, job security, self-enjoyment, interest in the entrepreneurship subject and self-efficacy were the important predictors of college students' engagement in entrepreneurial undertakings. There were other two subsequent studies by Mbwambo & Magoma (2022) and Magasi (2022). The former suggests that students' attitudes, perceived behavioural control, job security and innovativeness were significant predictors of students' intentions to take part in entrepreneurial activities. The latter posits that interpersonal traits, competency-based training, planning and focus, successful groups and government support are the important drivers of entrepreneurial intentions. Concerning the culture of Tanzania based on Hofstede's (1980) national culture dimensions, it is high in power distance, collectivistic and feminine. In addition, it is moderate in preference to uncertainty avoidance, has a short-term orientation and is a restrained society.

Students' attitudes and subjective norms were found to be necessary antecedents of university students' entrepreneurial intentions in Algeria while behavioural control had no significant effect (Mohammed *et al.*, 2017). Additionally, Messikh (2021) established that *attitude to entrepreneurship, parental influence (Social pressure), Self-efficacy, entrepreneurial education and government support are positively related to entrepreneurial intention among university students in Algeria. It is worthwhile noting that the Algerian culture is characterized by high power distance, collectivism, feminism, a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term orientation and non-indulgent (restraint).*

Tessema (2012) found in Ethiopia that entrepreneurship education significantly influenced students' entrepreneurial intentions. In addition, it was established that male management students have higher personal attraction towards entrepreneurial careers, subjective norms, self-efficacy and achievement needs than their female counterparts. Negash (2012) concluded in another study in Ethiopia that subjective norms, perceived self-efficacy, university environment, perceived educational support and students' attitude toward entrepreneurship were important predictors of entrepreneurial intentions. A subsequent study by Megibaru (2014) suggested taking entrepreneurship courses, role models, occupation, use of learning by doing approach, gender and family work, to be significant predictors of entrepreneurial intention. In terms of national culture according to Hofstede's (1980) dimensions, Ethiopia ranks high in power distance, collectivism, masculinity and preference for uncertainty avoidance. In addition, it is a short-term oriented and restrained society

2.1 Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture

Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions provide a framework for explaining how cultures differ among nations along with how business is conducted in different cultural settings. (Hofstede, 1980).

In a nutshell, the framework is used to evaluate the effects of each country's culture on a business environment as well as to assess the characteristics of culture. Unquestionably, Hofstede made a significant contribution to the domains of international business and management (Tung & Verbeke, 2010; Jackson, 2020; Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018), as noted in a number of studies. Jackson (2020) asserts that Hofstede's theory offered a solution to one of the key issues of the day: Are management concepts and practices relevant everywhere? In his work, Hofstede (1980) originally suggested four dimensions that characterise national cultures. Following subsequent studies by Chinese Culture Connection (1987) and World Values Survey (2017), two additional dimensions namely Long-Term Orientation (LTO) and Indulgence versus Restraint were added respectively. This study, therefore, takes on board the six dimensions of cultural dimensions.

The first dimension is the Power Distance Index (PDI) which measures the extent to which people in a particular culture accept that power is distributed unequally in their society or organization, and how comfortable they are with this distribution. In cultures with a high PDI, people accept and believe that institutional and organizational authority should be inequitably distributed (Darmawati and Herlina, 2019) and they may be more deferential to those in positions of authority. In contrast, cultures with a low PDI tend to have a more egalitarian distribution of power and authority, with less emphasis on hierarchy and more openness to democratic decision-making.

The second dimension according to Hofstede (1980) is the uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) which measures the degree to which individuals in a particular culture feel comfortable with ambiguity and uncertainty, and the extent to which they prefer to have clear rules and structures in place to help them cope with uncertainty. Cultures with a high UAI tend to have a strong need for structure, rules, and regulations to help them feel secure and minimize risk. People in this culture are also more emotional and motivated by inner nervous energy. In contrast, cultures with a low UAI tend to have more tolerance for ambiguity and may be more adaptive to change and ready to cope with uncertainties (Darmawati and Herlina, 2019). They tend to be open-minded to opinions different from what they are used to; they try to have as few rules as possible, and on the philosophical and religious level they are relativistic.

The third dimension of national culture according to Hofstede (1980) is individualism (IDV) versus collectivism (CLT). This dimension refers to the degree to which individuals are integrated into groups. Individualistic cultures tend to emphasize individual achievement, independence, and autonomy. People in these cultures tend to prioritize their own needs and goals over the needs and goals of the group. They value personal freedom and self-expression and may be less likely to conform to social norms and expectations. Collectivistic cultures, on the other hand, tend to emphasize group harmony, cooperation, and interdependence. People in these cultures tend to prioritize the needs and goals of the group over their own individual needs and goals. They value social harmony, and respect for authority and may be more likely to conform to social norms and expectations.

The fourth dimension of culture according to Hofstede (1980) is Masculinity (MAS) versus femininity. This dimension measures the degree to which a society values traits that are traditionally associated with masculinity or femininity. Masculine cultures tend to value assertiveness, competitiveness, and achievement. People in these cultures are expected to be ambitious and focus on their careers, often at the expense of personal relationships and work-life balance. There is also a greater emphasis on status and power. Feminine cultures, on the other hand, tend to value cooperation, modesty, and caring for others. People in these cultures are expected to prioritize their relationships and family life over their careers, and there is a greater emphasis on quality of life and work-life balance. There is also less emphasis on status and power and more emphasis on consensus-building and egalitarianism. Women in feminine countries have the same modest, caring values as men. In the masculine countries, women are somewhat assertive and competitive, but not as much as men, hence these countries show a gap between men's values and women's values.

Long-Term Orientation (LTO) versus short-term orientation is the fifth dimension of national culture which was found in a study among students in 23 countries around the world, using a questionnaire designed by Chinese scholars. It was designed by a team of Asian researchers (Chinese Culture Connection, 1987). Long-Term Orientation refers to a society that values perseverance, thrift, and a focus on the future. People from such cultures are more likely to engage in behaviours that will benefit them in the long term, such as investing in education and training, saving for retirement, and taking a strategic approach to business. In general, these societies place a greater emphasis on planning and the future, and they tend to be more conservative and risk-averse. On the other hand, Short-Term Orientation refers to a society that values immediate gratification, social norms, and traditions. People from such cultures are more likely to engage in behaviours that provide immediate rewards, such as spending money on leisure activities or taking short-term risks. These societies tend to place a greater emphasis on the present and the past, and they may be more open to change and experimentation.

Indulgence versus restraint is the sixth and new dimension. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2001), it refers to the extent to which a society allows or restrains gratification of basic human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Based on their upbringing, this dimension is described as the degree to which people attempt to control their own desires and impulses. Indulgent societies place a high value on leisure time, having fun, and enjoying life. People from these cultures are more likely to engage in behaviours that provide immediate pleasure, such as eating rich foods, drinking alcohol, and engaging in sexual activity. In general, these societies tend to be more open and accepting of different lifestyles and values, and they may be more tolerant of unconventional behaviour. In contrast, restrained societies place a greater emphasis on social norms, self-discipline, and self-restraint. People from this culture are more likely to engage in behaviours that are in line with traditional values and norms, such as avoiding excessive indulgence in food or drink and maintaining a sense of discipline and self-control. In general, these societies tend to be more conservative and less accepting of deviant behaviour.

3. METHODOLOGY

The aim of this study is not primarily to determine the extent of research conducted but to assess and synthesise available research findings both quantitatively and qualitatively. It, therefore, follows both narrative and systematic reviews. According to Collins & Fauser (2005), narrative reviews would be strengthened by the use of systematic review techniques, and systematic reviews would subsequently gain from the narrative reviews' advantages in terms of presentation. The objective is to make sure that all reviews are explicit, transparent, clearly articulated, and repeatable by interested readers. The combination of two analytical methods is particularly important to this study as it involves both objective searches for studies and their underlying constructs followed by a subjective discussion on how the entrepreneurial intention constructs are reflected in one's national culture.

The review involved targeted internet keyword searches in prominent electronic databases, including Taylor & Francis, Google Scholar, Emerald, Springerlink and Sage. Several keywords were utilized in the search, which included 'entrepreneurial intention, Hofstede's dimensions, cultural dimensions, entrepreneurial behaviour and university students. The review comprised wide-ranging journal publications that were empirical research that used and tested conceptual models and theories. The review included full-length journal articles only, hence articles that were only available as abstracts were excluded from further analysis as some facts could not be reliably established.

To be included in the study, articles had to meet the following criteria: be (i) published in English language (ii) available in full-length (iii) focus on determining entrepreneurial intentions in an African country (iv) empirically analysed (v) involves college or university students (vi) must have been done in a single country (vii) must have been done in a country that has Hofstede's scores in at least three dimensions. (viii) There must be at least two studies from a particular country focusing on entrepreneurial intention by college and university students.

This study's primary focus is on studies conducted on college students (both undergraduate and graduate). This decision is justified by the fact that younger people are eager to work for themselves as opposed to old age. Although Indarti (2004) suggested a lack of significant influence of age on entrepreneurial intentions, most study findings are in favour of the fact that the younger generation is more enthusiastic to establish their own business than the older generation (Blanchflower *et al.*, 2001; Grilo and Irigoyen, 2006). In addition, Kelley *et al.*, (2011) found that the 24-35 age group has the highest population across practically all geographic regions when it comes to the age distribution of entrepreneurs. Therefore, assessing the entrepreneurial ambitions of university students may have some beneficial implications for the development of future potential entrepreneurs.

This study works by identifying the motives for entrepreneurial intentions that were established by past studies in particular countries, searching for the country's cultural dimension as per Hofstede's (1980) model. Then, the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions are linked with the country's cultural dimensions. Hofstede's cultural dimensions for the counties in which studies were conducted were retrieved from Hofstede's insight website (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison>)

4. FINDINGS

This study was designed to establish whether there exists a link between entrepreneurial intention and one’s national culture. Nineteen (19) studies from eight (8) African countries were reviewed and the findings were summarized as shown in Table 1. In addition, cultural dimensions for each of the eight countries were retrieved from Hofstede’s Insight website. The findings of the study are summarized in Table 1

Table 1: Summary of Findings

S/ N	Author	Findings (Factors that drive Entrepreneurial intention)	Country	Country’s Hofstede’s Cultural Orientation
1	Dzomonda, <i>et al.</i> , (2015)	Needs for achievement, self-efficacy, readiness to take risk, institutional and family support	South Africa	South Africa is a moderate power distance society, individualist society, feminine, low preference for avoiding uncertainty, short-term orientation, indulgent society
2	Kalitanyi & Bbenkele (2018)	Language		
3	Mothibi & Malebana (2019)	Perceived behavioural control, attitude towards entrepreneurship and subjective norms.		
4	Adeyonu <i>et al.</i> , (2019)	Personal attitude towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived educational support	Nigeria	High in power distance, collectivistic, masculine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, indulgent society
5	Ramoni (2016)	Entrepreneurial education, innovativeness and risk-taking propensity.		
6	Adu <i>et al.</i> , (2020)	Behavioural control, risk-taking ability, pro-activeness	Ghana	High in power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, indulgent society
7	Amanamah <i>et al.</i> , (2018)	Exposure to other entrepreneurs, experienced network and dissatisfaction with the previous job		
8	Maina (2011)	The college environments and exposure to entrepreneurship experiences, self-efficacy and perceptions of desirability.	Kenya	High in power distance, collectivistic, masculine, moderate preference for uncertainty avoidance.
9	Ngugi <i>et al.</i> , (2012)	Entrepreneurship education, knowledge about available opportunities and business networks		
10	Megibaru (2014)	Entrepreneurship education, role model, occupation, learning by	Ethiopia	High in power distance, collectivistic, masculine,

		doing, gender and family work expectation		high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, restrained society
11	Tessema (2012)	Entrepreneurship education and gender, subjective norms, self-efficacy and need for achievement		
12	Negash (2012)	Subjective norms, perceived self-efficacy, university environment, perceived educational support and student's attitude toward entrepreneurship		
13	Magasi (2022)	Interpersonal traits, competency-based training, planning and focus, successful groups and government support.	Tanzania	High in power distance, collectivistic, feminine, moderate preference to uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, restrained society
14	Ntare & Ojwang (2021)	Unemployment, poverty, job security, self-enjoyment, entrepreneurship subject and self-efficacy		
15	Mbwambo & Magoma (2022)	students' attitude, perceived behavioural control, job security and innovativeness		
16	Mohammed <i>et al.</i> , (2017).	Students' attitudes and subjective norms	Algeria	High in power distance, collectivistic, feminine, High preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, Restraint society
17	Messikh (2021)	<i>Attitude, parental influence (Social pressure), Self-efficacy, entrepreneurial education and government support</i>		
18	Hattab (2014)	Entrepreneurship education and intentions and perceived desirability	Egypt	High in power distance, collectivistic, masculine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, highly restrained society
19	Sharaf <i>et al.</i> , (2018)	Attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviour.		

Source: Synthesized from Review of Literature (2023)

5. DISCUSSION

This section attempts to provide views on how could the entrepreneurial intention dimensions in table 1 (3rd column) reflect the students' national culture (table 1, 5th column). Starting with South Africa, three studies by Dzomonda, *et al.*, (2015) Kalitanyi & Bbenkele (2018) and Mothibi & Malebana (2019) found that needs for achievement, self-efficacy, readiness to take risk were the motives behind entrepreneurial intentions. Other factors were institutional and family support,

language, perceived behavioural control, attitude towards entrepreneurship and subjective norms. Regarding South African culture, it is characterised by moderate power distance, individualist society, feminine, low preference for avoiding uncertainty, short-term orientation, and indulgent society. Based on the first dimension of power distance, it means that people in South Africa to a larger extent accept a hierarchical order. Hierarchy in an organization is seen as reflecting inherent inequalities, centralization is popular, subordinates expect to be told what to do and the ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat. As per Nair and Pandey (2006), due to their self-confidence and lack of faith in outside causes, entrepreneurs are sometimes seen as having an internal locus of control. It is therefore not surprising that university and college students in South Africa aspire to engage in entrepreneurship to fulfil their need for achievement so as to assure themselves of sitting at the higher hierarchies in society. This desire pushes them to have higher expectations and confidence in doing so (self-efficacy) and they are ready to take risks by engaging in entrepreneurship. In addition, they perceive it to be easy to do so (perceived behavioural control) and have a positive attitude towards it. They believe that once they engage in entrepreneurship they will attain their need for achievement hence peers will admire and respect them (subjective norms). Language is seen as an important tool through which entrepreneurs will get to communicate with various stakeholders.

Individualism is the second cultural dimension of South Africa. According to Assmann and Ehrl (2021), an individualistic society exhibits significant inclinations for independence, personal fulfilment, encouragement of change, and deviation from the status quo. Individualism can be characterized as a preference for a weak social framework in which individuals are expected to take care of themselves primarily. In individualist cultures, management is the management of people, hiring and promotion choices are expected to be made only based on merit, and the employer-employee relationship is based on mutual benefit. Additionally, Mueller and Thomas (2001) argue on the fact that individualistic cultures foster strong entrepreneurial values that promote self-reliance and independent action. In addition, people in this culture are more innovative and tend to adopt the latest technology. Individualistic people benefit more from their position as entrepreneurs in society. Individualism emphasizes freedom and rewards one's achievements with social values emphasizing personal initiative and achievement.

Based on the individualistic nature of South Africa, it is correct to say that students in this country engage in entrepreneurship in pursuit of individual achievement. In addition, self-efficacy and readiness to take risks are characteristics that are closely connected to the individualism culture. This is because individuals are confidently eager to assume the risk since they have the inner drive for individual achievement. Because of their strong desire for independence and personal accomplishment, people in individualistic societies like South Africa tend to have positive attitudes towards entrepreneurship and they see it as an easy task to undertake (perceived behavioural control). Because of the individualistic culture, there is a high desire for personal success and therefore, university students in South Africa are eager to engage in entrepreneurship in order to command respect from peers (subjective norms).

The third cultural dimension of South Africa is feminism. A Feminine society is one where quality of life is the sign of success. It has little link to entrepreneurial intentions as the three studies didn't show any gender differences in terms of entrepreneurial intentions. This is in line with Shneor *et al.*, (2013) who found that regardless of sex, Turkish students exhibit significantly higher levels of entrepreneurial intentions and self-efficacy. That being the case, it is precise to suggest that

whether a society is feminist or masculine, the factors that drive entrepreneurship remain the same as long as the entrepreneurial activity is likely to improve the quality of life.

The fourth dimension of South African culture is a low preference for avoiding uncertainty. According to Hofstede (1980), uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid them. It can be recalled that among the factors that were found to drive EI is the readiness to take risk (Dzomonda *et al.*, 2015). One can therefore conclude the presence of a close link between uncertainty avoidance as a cultural dimension and one's intention to engage in entrepreneurship. This means that students in societies that have low preference for avoiding uncertainty are likely to be risk-takers which is among the personal qualities of entrepreneurs. The cultural element of low preference for avoiding risk is also linked to other determinants of entrepreneurial intentions namely perceived behavioural control and attitude towards entrepreneurship. It is expected that people from a society that does not avoid risky undertakings will have positive attitude towards entrepreneurship and will perceive it to be interesting and easy to establish (perceived behavioural control).

The fifth dimension of South African culture is short-term orientation. A short-term orientation culture according to Hofstede (1980) means that in South Africa the culture is more normative than pragmatic. They show a high regard for traditions, a low propensity to invest in the future and concentrate on getting things done quickly. This cultural element is inconsistent with perseverance which is an entrepreneurial trait related to the continued pursuit of goals despite adversity and hardships (Van Gelderen, 2012; Muehlfeld *et al.*, 2017 & Santos *et al.*, 2020). This cultural dimension of South Africa does not link with any of the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions mentioned by university students. Further studies could unveil other entrepreneurial intention variables which may link with this culture.

Indulgence is the sixth dimension of South African culture. According to Hofstede (2001), people in indulgent societies typically show readiness to follow their impulses and inclinations when it comes to having fun and enjoying life. They have a cheerful disposition and a propensity towards optimism. Additionally, they value leisure time more, behave in any way they desire, and spend money however they please. This cultural dimension is linked to the need for achievement factor. This is because people in this society are likely to undertake entrepreneurial activities as paid employment would not realise sufficient amount of income to finance their indulgent expenditures. Because of this indulgence culture, they tend to be highly influenced by peer groups (subjective norms).

In Nigeria, Adeyonu *et al.*, (2019) and Ramoni (2016) found that personal attitudes towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived educational support are drivers of entrepreneurial intentions by university students. Other drivers are entrepreneurial education, innovativeness and risk-taking propensity. Concerning the Nigerian culture according to Hofstede (1980), it is high in power distance, collectivistic, masculine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, indulgent and short-term oriented. According to the first dimension of power distance, it may be inferred that hierarchy and positions in the society are accepted to a greater extent by Nigerians. Organizational hierarchy is perceived as reflecting innate inequities, centralization is preferred, employees expect to be given instructions, and the ideal boss is a kind despot.

Risk-taking propensity which was suggested by Ramoni (2016) as one of the drivers for entrepreneurial intentions in Nigeria was said by Antoncic *et al.*, (2018) to be moderated by power

distance culture in its relationship with entrepreneurial intention. It can be argued therefore that there exists an indirect link between power distance and entrepreneurial intention by Nigerian university students. The other entrepreneurial intention drivers such as perceived educational support, innovativeness, personal attitudes towards entrepreneurship and subjective norms do not seem to have a direct link to the power distance cultural dimension.

The second cultural dimension of Nigeria is a collectivist society. According to Hofstede (1980), people are born into extended families or clans in collectivistic cultures, which provide protection in return for loyalty. Group affiliation is the foundation of social identity. Compared to personal effort, belonging is given more weight. Individual initiative is therefore not highly appreciated, and deviation in thought or action is usually met with punishment. Group decisions are regarded as being better than individual decisions in collectivistic cultures. According to Farrukh *et al.*, (2019), subjective norms mediated the relationship between collectivism and entrepreneurial intentions. It can be concluded therefore that collectivist cultural orientation in Nigeria is indirectly linked to subjective norms as one of the entrepreneurial intention drivers for university students to engage in entrepreneurship. The remaining drivers of entrepreneurial intentions in Nigeria do not seem to have a link with the collectivist cultural dimension. For example, in a collectivist society, people would not have much desire for personal initiatives, hence impairing innovativeness and risk-taking propensity.

The third cultural dimension of Nigeria is masculinity. According to Hofstede (1980) in masculine societies, people live to work. Managers are expected to be decisive and assertive. Equity, competitiveness, and performance are prioritized, and problems are addressed by physical confrontation. Characteristics which are associated with masculinity culture are not supportive of entrepreneurial activities, we conclude the lack of a close link between masculinity cultural dimension in Nigeria. This finding is consistent with that of Shneor *et al.*, (2013) who found lack of gender differences in the relationship between entrepreneurial intentions and self-efficacy in Turkey.

The fourth dimension of Nigerian culture is a high preference for avoiding uncertainty. This cultural element is inconsistent with the findings by Ramoni (2016) who suggested risk-taking as among the factors pushing entrepreneurial intentions in Nigeria. Unlike in South Africa, this cultural dimension of Nigeria is not supportive of entrepreneurship as risk-taking propensity is an important trait of entrepreneurs. In addition, innovativeness which was suggested by Ramoni (2016) does not link well with a high preference for uncertainty avoidance hence one can confidently conclude the absence of a link between the preference for avoiding uncertainty and university students' entrepreneurial intention in Nigeria.

The fifth dimension of Nigerian culture is short-term orientation. Like South Africa, this cultural element is non-consistent with perseverance which is an important trait for entrepreneurs (Van Gelderen, 2012, Muehlfeld *et al.*, 2017; Santos *et al.*, 2020). This cultural dimension does not link with any of the drivers of entrepreneurial intention by Nigerian university students. In addition, education is regarded in Nigeria as one of the drivers of entrepreneurial intention as suggested by Ramoni (2016) and Adeyonu *et al.*, (2019). It is known that educational training requires a long-term commitment of time and resources, which contradicts the short-term cultural orientation of Nigeria. Additionally, short-term orientation means risk-averse and lack of innovativeness which

are obstacles to entrepreneurial action.

The sixth dimension of Nigerian culture is indulgence. This has a similar link to subjective norms as was the case in South Africa. Because of this indulgence culture, they tend to be highly influenced by peer groups (subjective norms) as socialization is an important aspect of life. They are likely to engage in entrepreneurial actions as employment salary may not suffice to finance their indulgent expenditures.

In Ghana, factors that were found to drive entrepreneurial intentions by university students are behavioural control, risk-taking ability, pro-activeness, exposure to other entrepreneurs, having experienced network and dissatisfaction with the previous job (Adu *et al.*, 2020 and Amanamah *et al.*, 2018). On the other end, according to Hofstede (1980), the country's culture is characterized by high power distance, collectivism, femininity, a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term orientation and indulgence. The fact that Ghana's culture is high power distance, indicates that people are aspiring to move to higher hierarchies as the society accepts the idea that there exist classes in the society. To achieve their desire, it is expected that most university students will opt for entrepreneurship. Another driver of entrepreneurial intention in Ghana was found to be proactiveness (Adu *et al.*, 2020). This is supported by Crant (1996) who suggested a strong association between entrepreneurial intentions and proactive personality. This driver could be linked to Ghana's cultural dimension of high preference for uncertainty avoidance as people who are risk averse are likely to be proactive rather than passive in making entrepreneurship decisions. Since they prefer to avoid uncertainty, people in this culture tend to associate themselves with experienced entrepreneurs and networks, which is also a reflection of a collectivist culture. As a result, they see entrepreneurship undertaking as an easy activity to initiate (perceived behavioural control). Concerning femininity, short-term orientation and indulgence, there is no evidence to suggest a link between these cultural dimensions and entrepreneurial intentions in Ghana.

In Kenya, Maina (2011) and Ngugi *et al.*, (2012) found self-efficacy (SE), exposure to entrepreneurship experience and college environment to be the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions. Other drivers were perceptions of desirability, entrepreneurship education, knowledge of available opportunities and business networks. In terms of culture, Kenya's culture is characterized by high power distance, collectivism, masculinity and a preference for uncertainty avoidance. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's cognitive assessment of his or her capacity to mobilize the resources, activity, and motivation needed to control the events in their life (Chen, *et al.*, 1998). Being among the drivers of entrepreneurship, SE means that people typically avoid circumstances in which they anticipate having little personal control and choose those in which they anticipate having strong control. For this reason, people choose their job routes based on how they perceive their abilities (Naktiyok *et al.*, 2010). This self-efficacy driver of entrepreneurial intention in Kenya is closely linked to Kenya's preference for opportunity avoidance cultural dimension. This is because university students will engage in entrepreneurship after careful assessment of their entrepreneurial capabilities and available resources. Likewise, exposure to entrepreneurial experience and entrepreneurial education are other factors which university students in Kenya regard as important drivers for entrepreneurial intention. These are similarly linked to the cultural dimension of a high preference for uncertainty avoidance as they will be unwilling to take much risk. They will prefer to be educated and invest in areas they are experienced with to avoid risky investments. Also, familiarization with the available opportunities

and attachment to business networks are said to be important antecedents of entrepreneurial intention in Kenya. This is because people in low-risk-taking societies tend to avoid investing in areas they do not have experience. While dependence on networks as drivers of entrepreneurial intention is a typical nature of a collectivist society like Kenya, the remaining two cultural dimensions namely between masculinity, power distance and the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions in the country.

In Ethiopia, Megibaru (2014), Tessema (2012) and Negash (2012) found entrepreneurship education, role model, occupation, learning by doing, gender and family work expectation as drivers of entrepreneurial intention by university students. Other drivers include subjective norms, self-efficacy, need for achievement, university environment, perceived educational support and students' attitude toward entrepreneurship. According to Hofstede (1980), Ethiopia's culture is high in power distance, collectivist society, masculine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented and restrained. Several drivers of entrepreneurial intention are linked to the collectivist nature of Ethiopian culture. For instance, reliance on role models, family work expectations, and perceived educational support are reflections of a collectivist culture where people depend on each other's support, unlike individualism. In addition, the need for achievement and occupation are typically reflective of the high-power distance cultural dimension as people will struggle to achieve higher levels in society's hierarchy. Certain occupations may not be attractive enough to make people tolerate low status in high power distance societies. On the other end, self-efficacy means that university students in Ethiopia will engage in entrepreneurship after careful assessment of personal abilities and availability of resources. This is closely linked to the Ethiopian cultural dimension of a high preference for uncertainty avoidance. Other entrepreneurial intention drivers such as the university environment do not exhibit any link with the cultural dimensions of Ethiopia.

In Tanzania, Magasi (2022), Ntare and Ojwang (2021) and Mbwambo and Magoma (2022) established interpersonal traits, competency-based training, planning and focus, successful groups and government support as determinants of entrepreneurial intentions by college and university students. Other factors include unemployment, poverty, job security, self-enjoyment, entrepreneurship subject, self-efficacy, students' attitudes, perceived behavioural control and innovativeness. On the other hand, Hofstede (1980) suggests the Tanzanian culture to be high in power distance, collectivistic, feminine, moderate preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term orientation and restrained. Looking at the entrepreneurial intention drivers, it is evident that they are mainly linked to the country's culture. For instance, interpersonal traits, reliance on successful groups and government support reflect Tanzania's collectivist culture. Furthermore, reliance on risk avoidance measures like competence-based training, planning and focus, job security, self-employment and self-efficacy are typical indicators of a society which have a low risk-taking propensity (preference for uncertainty avoidance) culture like Tanzania. Since the country's culture is short-term oriented, entrepreneurial engagement is based on short-term investment which limits innovativeness as one of the drivers of entrepreneurial intentions in Tanzania. In addition, since the culture is both restrained (non-indulgent) and short-term, innovativeness is typically impaired. Unemployment and poverty are drivers of entrepreneurial intention because they are a result of short-term-oriented and restrained societies like Tanzania. That means college and university students in the country will attempt to engage in entrepreneurship as an alternative means to deal with poverty and unemployment. They are therefore unlikely to have long-term

plans because the country's culture is short-term oriented. They are also non-indulgent hence they can hardly inject enough funds into business start-ups.

In Algeria, Mohamed *et al.*, (2017) and Messikh (2021) propose students' attitudes and subjective norms, *parental influence (Social pressure)*, *self-efficacy*, *entrepreneurial education and government support* as important drivers of entrepreneurial intention by university students. On the other hand, the country is characterised by the following culture; high power distance, collectivistic, feminism, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term orientation and restraint (non-indulgent). Close reflection on the drivers suggests close links with the country's culture. For instance, dependence on parental influence, subjective norms and government support reflect the Algeria's collectivist culture. Likewise, reliance on risk reduction measures such as self-efficacy and entrepreneurial education reflects a society that has a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, a typical Algerian culture. Additionally, in a restrained society, entrepreneurial opportunities and financial resources are likely to be limited hence dependence on government support is inevitable.

In Egypt, Hattab (2014) and Sharaf *et al.*, (2018) suggested entrepreneurship education, perceived desirability and attitude towards entrepreneurial behaviour as important drivers of university students' entrepreneurial intention. Meanwhile, Egypt's culture is high in power distance, collectivistic, masculine, high preference for uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented and non-indulgent. It is expected therefore that, in a society that is high in power distance, people would engage in entrepreneurship as an avenue for independence and achievement. Just like it is in Egypt, they tend to have a positive attitude towards venturing into entrepreneurial undertakings. Secondly, since the Egyptian culture is collectivistic, perceived desirability must be a true driver for entrepreneurial intention as it reflects social norms and attitudes toward income, risk, work effort and independence (Fitzsimmons & Douglas, 2011). Likewise, because the country has a high preference for uncertainty avoidance, it is not surprising to have a dependence on entrepreneurial education as one of the drivers of entrepreneurial intention. This is because when one is educated tends to increase the likelihood of success in entrepreneurial engagement (Dickson *et al.*, 2008; Millan *et al.*, 2014).

5.1 Conclusion

The study aimed to find out whether entrepreneurial intentions are consistent with one's national culture so that entrepreneurial education could be tailor-made to address the diversity of national culture. Findings suggest a linkage of most cultural dimensions with drivers of entrepreneurial intentions. For instance, in South Africa, the entrepreneurial intention drivers were mostly linked to indulgence, power distance, preference for uncertainty avoidance and individualism cultural dimensions. Short-term orientation and feminism did not indicate linkage with any of the drivers for entrepreneurial intention. In Nigeria, most of the entrepreneurial intention drivers were connected to the country's culture. For instance, most drivers of entrepreneurial intention were reflected in power distance, collectivism, preference for uncertainty avoidance and indulgence. In Ghana, the entrepreneurial intention drivers were linked to three among the six Hofstede's cultural dimensions namely power distance, preference for uncertainty avoidance and individualism. In Kenya, there was a linkage between the drivers of entrepreneurial intention with two of the four dimensions of culture. These are individualism and preference to avoid uncertainty. (Note: Kenya lacks data on the long-term orientation and indulgence dimension of national culture). In Ethiopia,

the majority of entrepreneurial intention drivers were linked to collectivism and high-power distance cultural dimensions. In Tanzania, all the entrepreneurial intention drivers were found to have a linkage with collectivism, short-term orientation, high preference for uncertainty avoidance and restraint dimensions. In Algeria, the entrepreneurial intention drivers are linked to collectivism, high preference for uncertainty avoidance and restraint cultural dimensions. Finally, in Egypt, the entrepreneurial intention drivers were found to have a linkage with high power distance, collectivism and high preference for uncertainty avoidance.

5.2 Study Implications

Based on the above findings, it is therefore suggested that entrepreneurial intentions to a large extent are culturally dependent and thus, entrepreneurship education should be tailor-made to address these diversities of drivers. It has been revealed further that, some cultural dimensions are prohibitive while others are supportive of entrepreneurial actions. Those countries which operate under those prohibitive cultures tend to have different drivers of entrepreneurial intentions unlike those which operate under supportive cultures. While culture is static, the only option available to universities is to customize the entrepreneurial training to address the diversity of intentions as they are mainly culturally dependent.

5.3 Study limitations

The current study is subject to some limitations. Firstly, similar to the previous studies in the literature, the study focused on intentionality. Intentions may not turn into actual behaviours in the future (Gelard and Saleh, 2011). Secondly, the study assumed foreign students did not participate in the selected studies; and if they did, they had been assimilated into the culture of the host countries. Thirdly, a small sample size was used, (19 studies from 8 African countries). Lastly, the lack of long-term orientation and indulgence scores for Kenya and the lack of long-term orientation scores for Ethiopia may have hampered the findings.

5.4 Areas for Further Research

The current study is based on some selected African countries. Future studies could extend to countries outside Africa. Secondly, future studies could limit themselves to a few cultural dimensions but increase the number of countries instead of applying all six dimensions of Hofstede to a few countries.

REFERENCE

- Addae-Korankye, A. (2014). Causes of poverty in Africa: A review of the literature. *American International Journal of Social Science*, 3(7), 147-153.
- Adeyonu, A., Balogun, O., & Obaniyi, K. (2019). Factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions of undergraduate agricultural students in Nigeria. *Yuzuncu Yil University Journal of Agricultural Sciences*, 29(4), 669-676.
- Adu, I. N., Boakye, K. O., Suleman, A. R., & Bingab, B. B. B. (2020). Exploring the factors that mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intentions among undergraduate students in Ghana. *Asia Pacific Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, 14(2), 215-228.
- Amanamah, R. B., Acheampong, A. U. G. U. S. T. I. N. E., & Owusu, E. K. (2018). An exploratory

-
- study of entrepreneurial intention among university students in Ghana. *International journal of scientific & technology research*, 7(1), 140-148.
- Ambad, S. N. A., & Damit, D. H. D. A. (2016). Determinants of entrepreneurial intention among undergraduate students in Malaysia. *Procedia economics and finance*, 37, 108-114.
- Antoncic, J. A., Antoncic, B., Gantar, M., Hisrich, R. D., Marks, L. J., Bachkirov, A. A., ... & Kakkonen, M. L. (2018). Risk-taking propensity and entrepreneurship: The role of power distance. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 26(01), 1-26.
- Arango-Botero, D., Arias, M. L., Montoya, M. H., & Valencia-Arias, A. (2020). Determinants of entrepreneurial intention among engineering students based on structural equation modelling. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 28(4), 2623-2644.
- Arshad, M., Farooq, O., & Farooq, M. (2019). The effect of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on entrepreneurial intentions: The moderating role of collectivist orientation. *Management Decision*, 57(3), 649-668.
- Assmann, D., & Ehrl, P. (2021). Individualistic culture and entrepreneurial opportunities. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 188, 1248-1268.
- Beugelsdijk, S., & Welzel, C. (2018). Dimensions and dynamics of national culture: Synthesizing Hofstede with Inglehart. *Journal of Cross-cultural Psychology*, 49(10), 1469-1505.
- Blanchflower, D. G., Oswald, A., & Stutzer, A. (2001). Latent entrepreneurship across nations. *European Economic Review*, 45(4-6), 680-691.
- Bogatyreva, K., Edelman, L. F., Manolova, T. S., Osiyevskyy, O., & Shirokova, G. (2019). When do entrepreneurial intentions lead to actions? The role of national culture. *Journal of Business Research*, 96, 309-321.
- Chen, C. C., Greene, P. G., & Crick, A. (1998). Does entrepreneurial self-efficacy distinguish entrepreneurs from managers? *Journal of business venturing*, 13(4), 295-316.
- Chinese Culture Connection (1987). The Search for culture-free dimensions of culture: The Chinese culture connection. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 18(2), 143-164.
- Collins, J. A., & Fauser, B. C. (2005). Balancing the strengths of systematic and narrative reviews. *Human reproduction update*, 11(2), 103-104.
- Crant, J. M. (1996). The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Management*, 29(3), 62-74.
- Darmawati, B., & Herlina, A. (2019, October). Bugis Cultural Taxonomy: An Overview of Hofstede's Cultural Dimension. In *6th International Conference on Community Development (ICCD 2019)* (pp. 108-110). Atlantis Press.
- Dickson, P. H., Solomon, G. T., & Weaver, K. M. (2008). Entrepreneurial selection and success: does education matter? *Journal of small business and enterprise development*, 15(2), 239-258.
- Dolhey, S. (2019). A bibliometric analysis of research on entrepreneurial intentions from 2000 to 2018. *Journal of Research in Marketing and Entrepreneurship*.
- Dzomonda, O., Fatoki, O., & Oni, O. (2015). The effect of psychological and contextual factors on the entrepreneurial intention of university students in South Africa. *Corporate Ownership & Control*, 13(1), 1297-1303.
- Farrukh, M., Lee, J. W. C., Sajid, M., & Waheed, A. (2019). Entrepreneurial intentions: The role of individualism and collectivism in perspective of theory of planned behaviour. *Education+ Training*.
-

-
- Fitzsimmons, J. R., & Douglas, E. J. (2005, June). Entrepreneurial attitudes and entrepreneurial intentions: a cross-cultural study of potential entrepreneurs in India, China, Thailand and Australia. In *Babson-Kauffman Entrepreneurial Research Conference* (pp. 1-19).
- Fitzsimmons, J. R., & Douglas, E. J. (2011). Interaction between feasibility and desirability in the formation of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of business venturing*, 26(4), 431-440.
- Francis, D., & Webster, E. (2019). Poverty and inequality in South Africa: Critical reflections. *Development Southern Africa*, 36(6), 788-802.
- Gelard, P., & Saleh, K. E. (2011). Impact of some contextual factors on entrepreneurial intention of university students. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(26), 10707.
- Grilo, I., & Irigoyen, J. M. (2006). Entrepreneurship in the EU: to wish and not to be. *Small business economics*, 305-318.
- Hattab, H. W. (2014). Impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions of university students in Egypt. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 23(1), 1-18.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organization: do American theories apply abroad? *Organizational dynamics*, 9(1), 42-63.
- Hofstede, G. H., & Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviours, institutions and organizations across nations*. sage.
- Hofstede, G., Noorderhaven, N. G., Roy, A., Thurik, L. M. U., & Alexander, R. M. (2004). 8. Culture's role in entrepreneurship: self-employment out of dissatisfaction. *Innovation, entrepreneurship and culture: The interaction between technology, progress and economic growth*, 162-203.
- Indarti, N. (2004). Factors affecting entrepreneurial intentions among Indonesian students. *Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis*, 19(1), 57-70.
- Jackson, T. (2020). The legacy of Geert Hofstede. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 20(1), 3-6.
- Kalitanyi, V., & Bbenkele, E. (2018). Cultural values as determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among university students in Cape Town-South Africa. *Journal of Enterprising Communities: People and Places in the Global Economy*, 12(4), 437-453.
- Kelley, D., Bosma, N. S., & Amorós, J. E. (2011). Global entrepreneurship monitor 2010 executive report. Babson College, Universidad del Desarrollo and London Business School, Babson Park, MA,
- Liñán, F., & Chen, Y. W. (2009). Development and cross-cultural application of a specific instrument to measure entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 33(3), 593-617.
- Liñán, F., Rodríguez-Cohard, J. C., & Rueda-Cantúche, J. M. (2011). Factors affecting entrepreneurial intention levels: a role for education. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 7, 195-218.
- Lopes, J. M., Suchek, N., & Gomes, S. (2023). The antecedents of sustainability-oriented entrepreneurial intentions: an exploratory study of Angolan higher education students. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 391, 136236.
- Magasi, C. (2022). The influence of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions: Perception of higher business education graduates. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science* (2147-4478), 11(2), 371-380.
- Maina, R. W. (2011). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among Kenyan college graduates.

-
- KCA Journal of Business Management*, 3(2).
- Mbwambo, H., & Magoma, A. (2022). Nexus between Entrepreneurial Motivation and Entrepreneurial Intention. *African Journal of Applied Research*, 8(1), 240-252.
- Megibaru, S. (2014). Socio-demographic determinants for entrepreneurial intention of university students: the case of the University of Gondar graduating students. *Ethiopian Journal of Business and Economics (The)*, 4(1), 50-82.
- Messikh, A. (2021). The Entrepreneurial Intention of Algerian Women (a Sample Study of Skikda University Female Students). *JWEE*, (3-4), 134-150.
- Millan, J. M., Congregado, E., Roman, C., Van Praag, M., & Van Stel, A. (2014). The value of an educated population for an individual's entrepreneurship success. *Journal of business venturing*, 29(5), 612-632.
- Mohammed, B. S., Fethi, A., & Djaoued, O. B. (2017). The influence of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control on entrepreneurial intentions: Case of Algerian students. *American Journal of Economics*, 7(6), 274-282.
- Moriano, J. A., Gorgievski, M., Laguna, M., Stephan, U., & Zarafshani, K. (2012). A cross-cultural approach to understanding entrepreneurial intention. *Journal of career development*, 39(2), 162-185.
- Mothibi, N. H., & Malebana, M. J. (2019). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions of secondary school learners in Mamelodi, South Africa. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 25(2), 1-14.
- Muehlfeld, K., Urbig, D., & Weitzel, U. (2017). Entrepreneurs' exploratory perseverance in learning settings. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 41(4), 533-565.
- Mueller, S. L., & Thomas, A. S. (2001). Culture and entrepreneurial potential: A nine country study of locus of control and innovativeness. *Journal of business venturing*, 16(1), 51-75.
- Muresan, I. C., Chiciudean, G. O., Arion, F. H., Poruțiu, A., & Harun, R. (2017, December). Students' attitudes and intentions towards rural tourism entrepreneurship. In *Balkan Region Conference on Engineering and Business Education* (Vol. 2, No. 1, pp. 86-91).
- Mwiya, B. M. K. (2014). The impact of entrepreneurship education on the relationships between institutional and individual factors and entrepreneurial intention of university graduates: Evidence from Zambia. *Doctoral thesis*, University of Wolverhampton
- Nair, K. R. G., & Pandey, A. (2006). Characteristics of entrepreneurs: an empirical analysis. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 15(1), 47-61.
- Naktiyok, A., Nur Karabey, C., & Caglar Gulluce, A. (2010). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention: the Turkish case. *International entrepreneurship and management journal*, 6, 419-435.
- Negash, E. (2012). *An investigation of higher education student's entrepreneurial intention in Ethiopian universities: technology and business fields in focus* (Doctoral dissertation, Jimma University).
- Ngugi, J. K., Gakure, R. W., Waithaka, S. M., & Kiwara, A. N. (2012). Application of Shapero's model in explaining entrepreneurial intentions among university students in Kenya. *International Journal of Business and Social Research (IJBSR)*, 2(4), 125-148.
- Ntare, P. C., & Ojwang, E. (2021). An Assessment of Entrepreneurial Intention Among College Students in Tanzania. *African Journal of Applied Research*, 7(2), 30-43.
- Orlando, B., Tortora, D., Riso, T., Di Gregorio, A., & Del Giudice, M. (2022). Entrepreneurial

-
- intentions and high-status seeking in career expectations: a portrait of talents in emerging countries. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(11), 2339-2372.
- Ramoni, S. A. (2016). Determinants of entrepreneurial intention among Nigerian university graduates. *World Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(1), 45-59.
- Santos, G., Marques, C. S., & Ferreira, J. J. (2020). Passion and perseverance as two new dimensions of an Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation scale. *Journal of Business Research*, 112, 190-199.
- Sharaf, A., El-Gharbawy, A., & Ragheb, M. A. (2018). Factors that influence entrepreneurial intention within university students in Egypt. *Open Access Library Journal*, 5(10), 1-14.
- Shneor, R., Metin Camgöz, S., & Bayhan Karapinar, P. (2013). The interaction between culture and sex in the formation of entrepreneurial intentions. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 25(9-10), 781-803.
- Swail, J., Down, S., & Kautonen, T. (2014). Examining the effect of ‘entre-tainment’ as a cultural influence on entrepreneurial intentions. *International Small Business Journal*, 32(8), 859-875.
- Tessema G. D. (2012). Impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial intentions of business and engineering students in Ethiopia. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 3(2), 258-277.
- Tomal, M., & Szromnik, A. (2022). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions of university students in selected post-communist countries in Europe: investigating cross-cultural differences. *Journal of Business Economics and Management*, 23(1), 60-81.
- Tung, R. L., & Verbeke, A. (2010). Beyond Hofstede and GLOBE: Improving the quality of cross-cultural research. *Journal of international business studies*, 41, 1259-1274.
- Van Gelderen, M. (2012). Perseverance strategies of enterprising individuals. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 18(6), 630-648.
- Van Gelderen, M., Brand, M., Van Praag, M., Bodewes, W., Poutsma, E., & Van Gils, A. (2008). Explaining entrepreneurial intentions by means of the theory of planned behaviour. *Career development international*, 13(6), 538-559.