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ASSESSING THE RELEVANCE OF CULTURE IN THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTION MODEL: A COMPARATIVE STUDY IN JAPAN AND PAKISTAN.

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Abstract

This article analyzes the entrepreneurial intention model on three key dimensions of theory of planned behavior (TPB): personal attitude, perceived behavioralcontrol, and subjective norms. A comparative study was conducted using the samples of university students in Japan and Pakistan having different social structure and culture. Considering Hofstede's cultural characteristics of both countries, we hypothesize that personal attitude and perceived behavioral control would exert higher influence on entrepreneurial intentions in Japan than in Pakistan, and subjective norms would exert higher influence on entrepreneurial intentions in Pakistan than in Japan. Most of our hypotheses were supported in TPB model of entrepreneurial intentions indicating the generalization of the model across different cultures. The current study also contributes to the existing theory of TPB by providing insights about the association of culture and cognitions relevant to entrepreneurship. We discuss theoretical and practical implications and future research directions.

1. INTRODUCTION

The entrepreneurial activities vary among societies according to their ability to create and sustain them (Carter& Wilton, 2006; Chrisman, Chua, & Steir, 2002). According to past research, entrepreneurial characteristics and the cultural attributes are one of the most significant predictors of exploring entrepreneurial opportunities (Gartner and Shane 1995;Gürol and Atsan, 2006).Entrepreneurs are considered to be successful through their individual characteristics and the values in their society which help them to recognize and create opportunities in the market (Stevenson and Gumpert 1985).Entrepreneurship scholars are developing more understanding of the factors which are contributing towards entrepreneurial process (Markman, Balkin, & Baron, 2002). In this sense, the importance of cognitive variables on entrepreneurial decision making is highlighted by past research (Baron, 2004). Considering the success of cognitive approach in other fields, the entrepreneurship scholars believe that they have implications in entrepreneurship field (Baron, 2004).

Research scholars have emphasized on comparative studies for in depth understanding of the effect of cognitive factors and cultural values in entrepreneurial process (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). In fact, past research argued that the cognitive approach of measuring the entrepreneurial intentions needs further development for providing a clear association of culture and cognitions relevant to entrepreneurship (Hayton et al., 2002). For instance, past research found that cognitive scripts which were relevant to entrepreneurship were also related to cultural values in form of individualism and power distance suggesting a complex relationship between cultural values, cognitions and entrepreneurial characteristics (Mitchell et al., 2000).Regarding this issue, the current study will test the TPB cognitive model of entrepreneurship using samples from two different countries (Japan and Pakistan). Data thus obtained will be used to see the impact of personal attitude, perceived behavioral control and subjective norms on entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen, 1991, 2001). The role of culture has given special attention in this study while predicting the entrepreneurship intention model. No specific research comparing the effects of cultural differences on entrepreneurial intentions for these two countries has been found. The study will also reveal implications for the educators and policymakers.

Both of our comparative samples, Japan and Pakistan have different cultural settings and social structure. Nevertheless, some of the Hofstede's cultural dimensions are related in both countries (Hofstede,

2003). Power-distance (54 for Japan and 55 for Pakistan) scores are broadly equivalent for both countries (Hofstede, 2003). Masculinity is also quite high in both countries (95 for Japan and 50 for Pakistan). However, Japan scores substantially higher in individualism (46 for Japan vs. 14 for Pakistan), which would imply a culture more supportive of entrepreneurship comparatively to Pakistan. According to past research, individualism is strongly linked to entrepreneurial attitude (Hayton, et al., 2002). Therefore, in comparison with Pakistan, personal attitude and perceived behavioral control will have a higher influence on intentions in Japan. Collectivistic cultures play a significant role in the explaining the impact of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intentions (Ajzen, 2001; Begley & Tan, 2001; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004). Thus, subjective norms in Pakistan are expected to have a much higher effect over entrepreneurial intentions than in Japan (Begley & Tan, 2001). On the other hand, Japan also scores higher on uncertainty avoidance (92 for Japan vs.70 for Pakistan). It could be considered that in this dimension, Japanese culture is relatively more opposed to entrepreneurship comparatively to Pakistan.

The economic situation of both countries is also very different (Garnitz, Nerb, & Wohlrabe, 2015). Japanese economy is comparatively very strong and the unemployment rate is very low while Pakistan has recently moved from frontier economy to emerging markets where economic institutes are relatively weak with the high unemployment rate (Garnitz, et al., 2015). Research scholars consider that economic institutions are important antecedents to foster entrepreneurship in countries (Stenholm, Acs, & Wuebker, 2013). However, interestingly in Japan where the economic situation is far better has lower entrepreneurship rate comparatively to Pakistan where entrepreneurship rate is quite high (Kelley, Singer, & Herrington, 2012).Therefore, the impact of the economic situation on entrepreneurship in both countries is considered neutral in this study.

2. ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS AND THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOR

According to past research, intentions play a significant role in decisions of the individual to start a business(Zhao, Hills, & Siebert, 2005).Entrepreneurship is a process that occurs gradually over time (Kyrö & Carrier, 2005). In this regard, entrepreneurial intentions will be the first step towards starting some business (Lee & Wong, 2004). In fact, performing the entrepreneurial behaviour is much dependent on the entrepreneurial intentions (Fayolle et al., 2006; Kolvereid, 1996b). Past research also considered intentions as one of the important predictors of entrepreneurial behaviour (Ajzen, 1991, 2001). Certain factors like habits, beliefs, values and wants contribute to the creation of entrepreneurial behaviour (Bird, 1988; Lee &Wong, 2004). The cognitive factors which influence the entrepreneurial behaviour are called as motivational antecedents (Ajzen, 1991). Moreover, situational factors also influence the intentions of starting a venture (Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991). For instance, social pressures, time constraints, the influence of other people, and task difficulties are some of the factors affect the entrepreneurial intentions (Lee & Wong, 2004).

Researchers have identified different sets of measurements to measure the cross-cultural entrepreneurial intentions (Chandler &Lyon, 2001; Krueger et al. 2000; Kolvereid and Isaksen, 2006). In this sense, entrepreneurship intention questionnaire (EIQ) was developed based on the theory of planned behavior considering psychology and entrepreneurship literature to overcome the shortcomings of previous instruments of entrepreneurial intentions (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). According to the theory of planned behaviour, three motivational factors including personal attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control lead the person to carry out entrepreneurial behaviour.

Personal attitude refers to the person's positive and negative evaluation of himself for being an entrepreneur (Ajzen, 2001; Autio et al., 2001). Instead of only focusing on personal liking and disliking it evaluates the advantages and disadvantages to start a business. Subjective norms include the social pressure to start or not starting a business (Ajzen, 2001; Liñán, & Chen, 2009).Perceived behavioural control is close to self-efficacy which means a person with ease or difficulty to become an entrepreneur (Ajzen, 2002; Liñán, & Chen, 2009). It does not include only the feeling but also evaluate the feasibility of becoming an entrepreneur (Ajzen, 2002; Liñán, & Chen, 2009).

3. THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

In an entrepreneurial context, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB)with three motivational factors including personal attitude, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control is increasingly used focusing on entrepreneurial intentions (Shapero, 1982;Bird,1988:Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). According to TPB, intention to carry out certain behaviour depends on the personal attitude of the person towards that behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).Crant, (1996) found that the intention to start a business depends on the personal attitude of the individual. Similar studies found that personal attitude is relevant for individuals with entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger et al.2000;Liñán, 2004;Robinson et al.1991).

According to the theory of planned behaviour, values shared by the people within the culture are also one of the motivational antecedents to entrepreneurship intentions. Subjective norms mean the social pressure to start a business which includes support from family, friends and colleagues (Ajzen, 2001; Begley & Tan, 2001; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004) Therefore, supportive cultures are perceived to be helpful in the entrepreneurial process (Etzioni, 1987). In this sense, in collectivist cultures, subjective norms play a significant role in explaining the entrepreneurial intentions comparatively to individualistic cultures (Begley & Tan, 2001; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004).

However, regarding the pattern of relationship in the entrepreneurial intention model, traditionally weak role of subjective norms is one of the important concerns (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). This alleged weakness is not so clear in the entrepreneurship. Some of the scholars working on TPB entrepreneurial intention model simply omitted the subjective norms (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003; Veciana et al., 2005), while others could not find any significant relationship (Autio et al., 2001; Krueger et al., 2000). Comparative studies in different culture settings can be helpful in explaining the role of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intentions (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). Considering our sample

characteristics, we have included the subjective norms in the model to explore the clearer role of subjective norms in the TPB model of entrepreneurship.

Entrepreneurial intentions also include behavioural intentions, self-prediction and desire to start a business (Armitage and Conner, 2001).Perceived behavioural control explains the perceived ability to become an entrepreneur (Kolvereid, 1996). According to Davidson, (1995), perceived behavioural control is one of the most important factors influencing the person to start a business. Moreover perceived behavioural control is a concept similar to self-efficacy and successfully applied to new venture creation (Meyer et al. 1993).

3.1 Cultural Considerations in Hypothesis Development

The entrepreneurship literature is full of discussions about the characteristics of the entrepreneurs (Autio et al., 2001; Chen, Greene, & Crick, 1998; Erikson, 1999; Fayolle, Gailly, & Lassas-Clerc, 2006). Entrepreneurship scholars now turn their attention to see the impact of culture on entrepreneurial characteristics (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002; Mcgrath & MacMillan, 1992; Mitchell, Smith, Seawright, & Morse, 2000; Mueller & Thomas, 2001; Mueller et al., 2002). The rate of entrepreneurship is different across countries according to their social and economic development, despite the fact, some cultural values at the individual level are associated with the entrepreneurial characteristics (McGrath, Macmillan, Yang, & Tsai, 1992).

According to past research, cultural variables are one of the most important factors in the entrepreneurial development process (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002; Mcgrath et al., 1992). Culture is defined as peculiar values of groups or societies in an underlying system (Mueller & Thomas, 2001). Therefore, cultural factors motivate people to engage in the certain type of behaviors. National culture also influences the entrepreneurship levels both through the values of the society and institutes who represents the culture of the country (Ahlstrom & Bruton, 2002; Dickson, 2004). Although past research found the link between national culture and entrepreneurial process, how culture influence the entrepreneurial behaviour is less explored in the literature (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002; Zahra, Jennings, & Kuratko, 1999). Entrepreneurship scholars widely used Hofstede cultural dimensions to explore the link between national culture and entrepreneurial activity (e.g., Busenitz & Lau, 1996; Mitchell et al., 2002; Mitchell, Smith, Seawright, & Morse, 2000). However, there are two alternative forms in which this influence can be seen (Hofstede et al., 2004). First, culture can shape the economic institutions and make them favourable for the people to start a business. Second, dissatisfied individuals through self-employment would gain personal realization (Hofstede et al., 2004).

Several studies in the past examined the relationship between national culture and individual characteristics including values, beliefs and cognitions (Mueller & Thomas, 2000; Thomas & Mueller, 2000; Mitchel et al., 2000). There are two common approaches used by researchers to examine the association between culture and entrepreneurial characteristics. Some of the researchers examined the questions how national culture is related to entrepreneurial characteristics(Thomas & Mueller, 2000; Mitchel et al., 2000). Others tried to examine the difference between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs across different cultures (Baum et al., 1993; McGrath et al., 1992b; McGrath & MacMillan, 1992). Researchers found that motivational factors in form of recognition, need for independence, learning, need for escape, need for approval, need for personal development are the characteristics of entrepreneurs across cultures.(Shane et al., 1991).Past research also examined the relationship between cognitive factors and cultural values involved in the entrepreneurial process (Mitchell et al., 2000). Mitchell et al. (2000) found that cognitive factors including personal attitudes involved in the venture creation process were related to individualism and power distance. Additionally, past research while comparing entrepreneurs with non-entrepreneurs found that entrepreneurs are usually high in power distance, individualism and masculinity (McGrath et al., 1992) and these characteristics of entrepreneurs were usually consistent across different cultures.

Based on the mentioned literature above some tentative predictions can be made about both samples. Pakistan is much less individualistic than Japan and is among the more collectivistic countries in the world (Hofstede, 2003;Mcgrath et al., 1992). According to past research, subjective norms play a significant role in the explaining the entrepreneurial intentions in collectivistic cultures than individualistic cultures (Ajzen, 2001; Begley & Tan, 2001; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004).Thus, one should expect that subjective norms in Pakistan would exert a much higher effect over entrepreneurial intentions than in Japan (Begley & Tan, 2001). The role of power distance in entrepreneurial behaviour is confusing among the researchers (Shane, 1993; Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002). Entrepreneurs when compared with non-entrepreneurs reported to score high on power distance (McGrath et al., 1992b). In fact, some researchers consider power distance as of the personal characteristics of the entrepreneurs regardless of whether the culture is low or high on entrepreneurship (Mcgrath et al., 1992). Busenitz and Lau (1996) argue that cultures high on power distance would be favourable for entrepreneurial activities. However, Mueller et al. (2002) shared the view that cultures low on power distance will be more favourable to entrepreneurial activity. Considering the broadly equivalent score of power distance in both samples, it could be categorized as the characteristic of both samples.

Entrepreneurship rate is very low in Japan comparatively to Pakistan (Garnitz, et al., 2015).This would be indicating that the motivational intention antecedents for entrepreneurial intentions are different in each culture (Ajzen, 1991; Kolvereid, 1996a). In this sense, the entrepreneurial intention could be more closely linked to the personal attitude among Pakistani respondents, whereas in Japan perceived behaviors control would be a relatively stronger influence.(Ajzen, 1991; Kolvereid, 1996a).However, Japan is high on individualism comparatively to Pakistan (Hofstede, 2003). According to past research, individualism is strongly linked to entrepreneurial attitude (Hayton, et al., 2002). Japan is also categorized among the collectivistic societies in the world, however in our sample, it is more individualistic compared to Pakistan (Hofstede, 2003). Therefore, in comparison with Pakistan personal attitude will have a higher influence on intentions among Japanese students than Pakistani students. Regarding the effect of higher uncertainty avoidance in Japan, entrepreneurship would be considered uncertain as a career choice and, therefore would be discouraged socially (Busenitz & Lau,

1996;Garnitz, et al., 2015; Mueller et al., 2002). High uncertainty avoidance would feel people insecure about uncertain situations. (Hofstede, 1991).In this sense, perceived behavioral control can be affected. However, in entrepreneurship intention model, perceived behavioral control is a wider concept than self-efficacy and includes the measure of controllability of the behavior in long term. Therefore, considering Japan's scores on long-term orientation (Hofstede, 2003) which is the indication of consistent behaviour, perceived behavioral control would exert stronger influence in Japanese comparatively with Pakistan. Additionally, perceived behavioral control is likely to be influenced by human capital including job experience and education (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). In this sense it would exert higher influence in Japan in comparison with Pakistan.

Hypothesis 1: Personal attitude towards starting a business will have a higher influence on entrepreneurial intentions in Japan than Pakistan.
Hypothesis 2: Subjective norms will have a higher influence on entrepreneurial intentions in Pakistan than Japan.
Hypothesis 3: Perceived behavioral control will have a higher influence on entrepreneurial intentions in Japan than Pakistan.

4. METHOD

To test our hypothesis, we administrated the questionnaire to undergraduate university students in Japanese and Pakistani universities as described below. Samples of students are very common in the entrepreneurship literature and considered by entrepreneurship scholars as a proxy for real entrepreneurs (Autio et al., 2001; Fayolle et al., 2006).

4.1 Japanese Sample

Participants were recruited from a management class in a public university located in Osaka, Japan. They were offered extra credit in return for participation in the study. All participants were told that participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. About 90 percent of the students who attended the class agreed to participate in this study, resulting in a sample size of 131, which included 74.5 percent males and 25.95 percent females with an average age of 22.07 (SD=2.07). Over 90 percent of the participants had part-time work experience.

4.2 Pakistani Sample

Participants were recruited from a management class in a public university located in Islamabad, Pakistan. Extra credit was given in return for participation in the study. All participants were told that participation in the study was anonymous and voluntary. About 90 percent of the students who attended the class agreed to participate in this study, resulting in a sample size of 120, which included 75.0 percent males and 25.0 percent females with an average age of 21.19 (SD= 1.32).

4.3 Dependent Variables

Entrepreneurial intentions have been measured with five items using a Likert scale. Researchers have used mixed self-prediction and interest items to measure the entrepreneurial intentions Chen et al. (1998) and Zhao et al. (2005). We used the pure intention scale used in EIQ for measuring entrepreneurial intentions.(Armitage& Conner, 2001; Liñán, & Chen, 2009).

The examples of the items include "I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur, my professional goal is to become an entrepreneur."

4.4 Independent Variables

Aggregate attitude scale is used to measure the personal attitude. Earlier researchers used belief based measure of personal attitude (Kolvereid,1996b; Fayolle et al.,2006). According to Ajzen (1991, 2001), beliefs are the antecedents of attitudes suggesting the use of an aggregate measure of personal attitude. For this reason, we choose an aggregate measure of personal attitude including 5 items used in the EIQ (Liñán, & Chen, 2009; Autio et al. (2001). The examples of the items include "A career as entrepreneur is attractive for me, among various options I would rather be an entrepreneur"

According to Ajzen (1991), subjective norms also need aggregate measures. Based on entrepreneurial intention questionnaire, we used the three reference groups including family, friends and colleagues including three items to measure subjective norms by asking about the approval for starting the business from family, friends and colleagues (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). The sample item includes "If you decided to create a firm, would your family approve that decision."

The previous research measured perceived behavioural control through specific self-efficacies (Chenet al., 1998; Zhao et al., 2005). We used an aggregate measure of perceived control behaviour used in entrepreneurial intention questionnaire (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). The examples of the items include "to start a firm and keep it working would be easy for me, I am prepared to start a viable firm."

4.5 Control Variables

To avoid confounding and following the past research on cognition and cultural values on entrepreneurial characteristics,we control for Age, Gender and Job experience (Chenet al., 1998; Liñán, & Chen, 2009; Zhao et al., 2005).

5. RESULTS

As a preliminary analysis, we tested the reliability of the variables measured in both samples. Reliability coefficient for each variable is also shown in the correlation matrix when available.

Tables 1 and 2 present means, standard deviations and correlations of personal attitude, subjective norms, perceived control behavior and entrepreneurial intentions for both Japanese and Pakistani samples respectively. As seen in Table 1 and Table 2, some correlations are above 0.5 and raise concerns about multicollinearity. However, we have conducted Variance Inflation Factor test (VIF) for multicollinearity. All the VIF scores are below 10 for both samples indicating that there is no multicollinearity in our regression models (Terjesen, & Hessels, 2009).

To test our hypothesis about the impact of personal attitude, subjective norms and perceived control behavior on entrepreneurial intentions, we conducted multiple regressions for both samples. The results of the multiple regressions offered the support for most of our hypothesis in both Japanese and Pakistani samples shown in table 3 and table 4 respectively. In Japanese sample, the personal attitude of students towards starting a business (coefficient: 0.41, p-value< .01) was found to have a stronger influence on entrepreneurial intentions

comparatively to Pakistani students (coefficient: 0.25, *p*-value<.05). Perceived behavioral control in Japanese sample (coefficient: 0.58, *p*-value < .01) were also found to have a stronger influence on entrepreneurial intentions comparatively to Pakistani sample (coefficient: 0.44, *p*-value< .01) confirming our hypothesis.

Table1 1: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix Japanese Sample)

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Age	22.07	2.07							
2	Gender	0.74	0.44	0.05						
3	Job Experience	2.14	1.35	0.24	-0.08					
4	Entrepreneurial Intentions	3.59	1.46	0.00	0.47**	0.02	(0.97)			
5	Subjective Norms	4.5	0.97	0.03	0.21*	0.09	0.42**	(0.71)		
6	Personal Attitude	4.27	1.31	0.09	0.33**	0.04	0.65**	0.52**	(0.93)	
7	Perceived Behavioral Control	3.28	1.13	0.04	0.31**	0.04	0.69**	0.32**	0.47**	(0.92)

Note: Reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal when applicable.

** p<0.01

*p<0.05

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Matrix (Pakistani Sample)

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Age	21.19	1.32	1						
Gender	0.75	0.43	0.2	1					
Job Experience	0.64	0.64	-0.2	-0.34	1				
Entrepreneurial Intentions	4.91	1.04	-0.11	0.27**	-0.02	(0.86)			
Subjective Norms	5.26	1.11	-0.15	0.22*	0.13	0.51**	(0.76)		
Personal Attitude	5.35	0.98	-0.2	0.11	0.09	0.49**	0.49**	(0.82)	
Perceived Behavioral Control	4.98	0.98	0.09	0.22*	0.11	0.57**	0.49**	0.38**	(0.82)

Note: Reliabilities are in parentheses on the diagonal when applicable.

** p<0.01

*p<0.05

Table 3: Regression Analysis (Japanese Sample)

Model	1		2	
	Estimate	t value	Estimate	t value
(Intercept)	2.96	2.37	0.27	0.29
Age	-0.03	-0.57	-0.05	-1.37
Gender	1.6**	5.96**	0.61	3.08
Job Experience	0.08	0.86	0.02	0.27
Personal Attitude			0.41**	5.32
Subjective Norms			0.09	0.93
Perceived Control Behavior			0.58**	7.15
R Squared	0.20		0.63	

*** p<0.001, ** p>0.01, *p<0.05

Table 4: Regression Analysis (Pakistani Sample)

Model	1		2	
	Estimate	t value	Estimate	t value
(Intercept)	6.57**	3.67	0.41	0.28
Age	-0.08	-0.92	-0.01	-0.14
Gender	0.54*	2.14	0.13	0.72
Job Experience	-0.13	-0.94	-0.07	-0.68
Personal Attitude			0.25*	2.59
Subjective Norms			0.23*	2.45
Perceived Behavioral Control			0.44**	4.5
R Squared	0.039		0.52	

** p>0.01, *p<0.05

For Pakistani Sample, subjective norms (coefficient: 0.23, *p*-value< .05) were found to have significant positive relationship with entrepreneurial intentions. However, subjective norms were not found to be significant with entrepreneurial intentions in a Japanese sample. Subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention are significantly correlated in a Japanese sample. Past research argued that subjective norms are likely to be influenced by demographics and human capital (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). It is possible that subjective norms also influence the entrepreneurial intention in Japan but are possibly influenced by other determinants in the multiple regression analysis.

We have also conducted the null hypothesis significance test of the difference between two correlations coefficients in two Independent samples (Meng, Rosenthal, Rubin, 1992). The difference between correlations coefficients was significant for personal attitude (Z= 1.87, *p*-value<.05) and for perceived behavioral control (Z= 2.64, *p*-value<.01). However, the difference between correlations coefficients was not significant for subjective norms in both Pakistani and Japanese sample.

6. DISCUSSION

The theory of planned behaviour is widely used in the context of entrepreneurship and received strong empirical support (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). However, researchers urge morecomparative studies with cultural consideration son TPB and entrepreneurial process for its generalizability (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). Our study fills this gap by comparing the two countries with different cultures and social structure and more specifically comparing South and East Asian countries. The results of both samples provide insights for future discussions about the theory of planned behavior and consideration of certain issues on its implications across different cultures. For instance, subjective norms were not found to besignificantly related to entrepreneurial intentions in a Japanese sample. Cross-sectional nature of data may be one the reasons for its non-significance. However, Some researchers in past also could not find the relationship between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intentions (Liñán, Chen, 2009; Autio et al., 2001; Krueger et al., 2000). In fact, they have found that subjective norms are influenced by demographics and human capital (Liñán, Chen, 2009). Most of the Japanese students have job experience in our sample, may be the influential reason of non-significance of subjective norms and entrepreneurial intentions. Though Japan is less collectivistic than Pakistan in our sample, broadly it is considered as a collectivist country (Hofstede, 2003) Therefore, it is possible that subjective norms also influence the entrepreneurial intentions in Japan but are possibly influenced by other determinants in the multiple regression analysis. The indirect effects of subjective norms could be an interesting avenue for future research for a better explanation of the results (Liñán, Chen, 2009).Additionally, there may be measurement issues of subjective norms or may be subjective norms are not important in predicting entrepreneurial intentions (Autio et al., 2001; Krueger et al., 2000). Moreover, cultural differences should be considered while measuring and predicting the impact of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intentions. Japan is much individualistic than Pakistan and may be subjective norms are not important in the explanting the relationship on entrepreneurial intentions in Japan (Ajzen, 2001; Begley & Tan, 2001; Kristiansen & Indarti, 2004).

Secondly, thepersonal attitude in our sample showed stronger influence on Japanese sample in comparison with Pakistani sample. Entrepreneurship rate is very high in Pakistan compared to Japan which is an indication of the strong and high attitude of the people of Pakistan towards business (Garnitz, et al., 2015).However, Japan is high on individualism comparatively to Pakistan which may have an effect on entrepreneurial attitude on Japanese students in comparison with Pakistani students (Hofstede, 2003).Therefore, cultural consideration is important while predicting the attitude towards starting a business and its impact on entrepreneurship (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). For instance, Japanese students may have a strong attitude towards business but because it is socially discouraged in the society, therefore they are not pursuing it even in the presence of knowledge, skills and abilities (Hofstede, 2003). Institutional variables should also be taken into consideration while exploring the impact of personal attitude on entrepreneurial characteristics. According to past research people in countries with low GDP, low technological sophistication and unstable political environmentare likely to take high risks in starting a business for their survival (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). For instance, Pakistan is in top countries on the list of high brain drain and immigration entrepreneurship because of the unstable environment (Erdağ, 2016). Therefore, an institutional variable may be powerful in the explaining the high entrepreneurship rate in Pakistan. More in-

depth understanding of the role of personal attitude on entrepreneurial intentions across culture is needed (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). The cross-sectional data of our study has limitations to explain the role of attitude on intentions. Therefore future research with larger samples and longitudinal studies could be able to explain this complex relationship.

6.1 Practical Implications

The research scholars around the world are now emphasizing on the entrepreneurial education (Kuratko, 2005).In Asian countries, lack of entrepreneurial education may be one of the factors for moderate entrepreneurship rate in comparison with countries higher in entrepreneurship (Zhang, Duysters & Cloodt, 2014). Institutional variables play important role in fostering entrepreneurial education, innovation and risk-taking (e.g., Furman, Porter, & Stem, 2002). Considering results of such studies, special attention should be given to the effect of cognitions and cultural values in entrepreneurial education (Kuratko, 2005). Contents should be introduced into the curriculum to increase the personal attitude, subjective norms and behavioural control towards entrepreneurship. The second important implication is for the decision-makers in the countries. Considering the relevance and the complex role of culture, cognitions and entrepreneurial characteristics in entrepreneurship literature, entrepreneurship-friendly policies and legal reforms for ease of starting a business should be introduced for the promotion of the entrepreneurship in the countries (Minniti, 2008).

6.2 Limitations and Future Research

Our research is not without limitations. First, our samples as business undergraduate students may not be able to fully generalize the characteristics of the real entrepreneurs. Student samples are very common and relevant in measuring the entrepreneurial intentions (Autio et al., 2001; Fayolle et al., 2006).However, in comparative studies, it is very difficult to find the fully compared samples (Liñán, & Chen, 2009). Secondly, our study is cross-sectional which may not be able to fully generalize the results to other cultures.Future research could replicate the results of this study from other countries using longitudinal studies.

Additionally, future research could consider developing an individual measure of cultural values relevant to entrepreneurship (Hayton et al., 2002).Moreover, the cognitive approach of measuring the entrepreneurial intentions based on TPB needs further development for providing aclear association of culture and cognitions relevant to entrepreneurship (Hayton et al., 2002). For instance, past research found that cognitive scripts which are relevant to entrepreneurship are also related to individualism and power distance suggesting a complex relationship between cultural values and cognitions (Mitchell et al., 2000). Therefore future research should consider developing a comprehensive theoretical model explaining the relationship between cognitions, culture and entrepreneurial characteristics (e.g. Hayton et al., 2002).

Finally, past research found that cultural variables like power distance is not always likely to show homogenous values in societies, in fact, they sometimes vary at societal, group and individual level (see Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Therefore, future research could come up with interesting methodologies, design and analysis to explain the complex role of culture on entrepreneurial characteristics (e.g., Erez, 2011; Gelfand et al., 2007).

7. CONCLUSION

Our research discussed some unsolved issues about entrepreneurial characteristics and cultural values. We believe our research will provide insights for entrepreneurship scholars interested in understanding the role of culture and entrepreneurial characteristics. Comparative studies on entrepreneurial characteristics and cultural values are a promising avenue for future research for the deep understanding of the influential role of individual characteristics and cultural values in the whole entrepreneurship process.

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