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The Impact of Perceived Barriers and Motives on Entrepreneurial Intentions: A Study on Algerian, Egyptian and Turkish Students in Türkiye

F. Nazlı SAYĞAN YAĞIZ[1]

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Abstract

In many countries, promoting entrepreneurship among young people is crucial for increasing economic growth and employment. To promote entrepreneurship among young people, it is essential to understand the factors that influence university students' entrepreneurial intentions. The aim of this study is to examine the effect of perceived barriers and motives on entrepreneurial intentions of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish university students in Türkiye. The study also investigates the moderating role of country between perceived barriers, motives and entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, the research identifies the impact of country on students' entrepreneurial intentions. The sample consists of 503 Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish university students. Data is collected through questionnaires and quantitative research methods are used. Analyses are conducted using the statistical programs SPSS 23 and SmartPLS 4. The findings suggest that the perceived motives of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish students affect their entrepreneurial intentions. However, perceived barriers do not have a significant impact on entrepreneurial intention and culture doesn't have a moderating role between perceived barriers, motives and entrepreneurial intention in this empirical study. Additionally, the findings show that countries affect entrepreneurial intentions. The study contributes to a deeper understanding of the perceptions shaping the entrepreneurial intentions of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish students.

Key words: Perceived Barriers, Perceived Motives, Entrepreneurial Intention, University Students

JEL Code: L26, M13, J24

1. Introduction

[1] Asst. Prof. Dr., Istanbul Okan University, Faculty of Business and Administrative Sciences, Türkiye, nazli.yagiz@okan.edu.tr, http://orcid.org/ 0000-0001-6780-8061.

The increase in the number of entrepreneurs is important for economic development and growth of countries (Keilbach & Sanders, 2009). Government institutions and universities open incubation and technology centers and give grants to increase the number of young entrepreneurs. Scholars have conducted numerous studies examining the entrepreneurial behavior of young generation and youth entrepreneurship (Belchior et al. 2021; Lihua, 2022; Maleki et al., 2023; Senou & Manda 2022; Dvouletý, 2024). Since entrepreneurial intention is considered a precursor of entrepreneurial behavior (Ajzen, 1991: 181), the entrepreneurial intentions of university students have been extensively studied (Agu et al., 2021; Al-Qadasi et al., 2023; Ao & Liu, 2014; Bağış et al., 2023; Barba-Sánchez et al., 2022; Giacomin et al. 2011; Gieure et al., 2020; Guzmán-Alfonso and Guzmán-Cuevas, 2012; Hossain et al., 2023; Karimi et al., 2017; Mujahid et al., 2020; Munir et al., 2019; Sampene et al., 2023; Su et al., 2021). A large number of these studies seeks to explore the factors influencing university students' entrepreneurial intentions (Agu et al., 2021; Al-Qadasi et al., 2023; Bağış et al., 2023; Barba-Sánchez et al., 2022; Chafloque-Cespedes et al., 2021; Giacomin et al., 2011; Pruett et al., 2009). Similarly, this study focuses on the factors influencing the entrepreneurial intentions of university students; however, it differs from previous studies by specifically addressing the students' perceived barriers and motives. Perceived barriers are the perceived negative factors related to entrepreneurship, such as lack of support, lack of knowledge, operating risks, start-up risks, and self-efficacy/support that discourage individuals from becoming entrepreneurs (Pruett et al., 2009). In contrast to perceived barriers, perceived motives are positive factors that encourage individuals to become entrepreneurs, such as making money, gaining independence, implementing creative ideas and improving the quality of life (Pruett et al., 2009). There are relatively few studies in the literature that address this particular focus (Pruett et al., 2009; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019; Giacomin et al., 2011; Şeşen & Pruett, 2014).

In addition to examining the impact of perceived barriers and motives on entrepreneurial intention, this study also investigates the effect of country. While many previous studies have focused on whether entrepreneurial intention differs by country (Ao & Liu, 2014; Bağış et al., 2023; Giacomin et al., 2011), this study considers how country itself affects entrepreneurial intention. In studies reporting that country influences students' entrepreneurial intentions (Pruett et al., 2009; Şeşen & Pruett, 2014), researchers mostly use samples composed of students from culturally diverse countries, and the observed effects are often attributed to the distinct cultural values of the countries examined. In this study, Algerian, Egyptian and Turkish university students are the sample since Algeria, Egypt and Türkiye share certain cultural similarities rather than representing entirely distinct cultural contexts. Algeria, Egypt and Türkiye are patriarchal and have common characteristics in terms of social norms and practices (Kalafatoglu & Mendoza, 2017: 336). In the GLOBE project, Türkiye is included in the Arabic cluster together with Egypt, assuming that they have similar cultural characteristics (Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002: 40). In addition, Kabasakal and Bodur (2002: 40) noted that Algeria was not included in their research; if it had been, it would

probably have been classified in the Arabic cluster. Similarly, in some studies, Türkiye is grouped together with Egypt and Algeria in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region (Bastian et al., 2019). However, despite sharing certain cultural traits, Algeria, Egypt, and Türkiye also exhibit distinct cultural values. Turkish culture is a mixture of Western and Eastern values (Ozaralli & Rivenburgh, 2016: 4). In some studies, Türkiye is also excluded from MENA in many studies due to its different cultural characteristics (Kalafatoglu & Mendoza, 2017; Bilgin & Kilicarslan, 2008). Moreover, according to Hofstede's (2001) cultural framework, there are differences between Algeria, Egypt, and Türkiye. Hofstede's scores range from 100 (the highest) to 0 (the lowest). 0 indicates that the country does not have the characteristics of that cultural dimension, while 100 indicates that the country has these characteristics in a very strong way. For instance, in terms of Hofstede's (2001) Indulgence/Restraint dimension, Egypt (score: 0) and Algeria (score: 32) are very restrained countries, while Türkiye (score: 49) is neither a fully "indulgent" nor a fully "restrained" society. In this study, the sample consists of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish students because Algeria, Egypt, and Türkiye have both common and different cultural characteristics. This study uses a differently constructed sample compared to previous research's samples (Ao & Liu, 2014; Bağış et al., 2023; Barba-Sánchez et al., 2022; Giacomin et al., 2011; Pruett et al., 2009) and investigates how country influences entrepreneurial intention. The study also explores the moderating role of country in the effect of perceived barriers and motives on entrepreneurial intentions. There is a lack of studies considering the country as a moderator.

The study is structured as follows: The second section comprises a literature review and hypothesis development. The third section involves details about the research methodology. The fourth section reveals findings, whereas the fifth section includes the conclusion.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1 Entrepreneurial Intention

Ajzen (1991) defines intention as a precondition for behavior. Individuals intend to behave in accordance with a conscious plan before they behave. Entrepreneurial intention is the subjective thought and mental state of individuals before performing entrepreneurial behavior. It is the first step towards becoming an entrepreneur (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Krueger and Carsrud (1993) point out that entrepreneurial intention is essential for understanding entrepreneurial behavior.

2.2 Perceived Motives

Perceived motives are effective on the decision of starting a business (Zimmerer & Scarborough, 2005). Perceived motives have been addressed through various classifications in numerous studies (Giacomin et al., 2011; Choo and Wong, 2006; Pruett et al., 2009). Choo and Wong (2006: 49) divided motives into two dimensions as intrinsic and extrinsic motives. Intrinsic motives include factors such as challenging himself/herself, having an interesting job, being creative, whereas extrinsic motives include such as earning more money and providing a comfortable retirement. Aziz et. al. (2013: 170) classified motives into seven dimensions: financial motives, recognition, freedom, pursuing family tradition, having marketing opportunities, economic conditions of country, and governance (the support of government to entrepreneurs). Pruett et. al. (2009: 579) classifies perceived motives into five factors: money-status, creativity, independence, lifestyle and equality-opportunity. The money-status is related to money and status, such as building personal wealth, managing people or gaining high social status. Creativity is related to being creative and creating jobs, independence is related to personal or financial independence and lifestyle is related to improving quality of life and the desire for leisure. Lastly, equity-opportunity consists of motivations related to past work experience such as dissatisfaction in a professional occupation, and difficulty of finding the right job. Many studies have shown that perceived motives positively influence entrepreneurial intention (Aziz et. al. 2013; Şeşen & Pruett, 2014; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019; Pruett et al., 2009). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: *Perceived motives have a positive impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions.*

2.3 Perceived Barriers

Perceived barriers refer to individuals' beliefs that a particular obstacle exists and prevents them from taking action to start a business. Perceived barriers have been addressed through various classifications in numerous studies (Choo & Wong, 2006; Giacomin et al., 2011; Pruett et al., 2009). Choo and Wong (2006:57-58) indicated that barriers are categorized into five factors as lack of capital, skills, confidence and compliance costs and hard reality. Pruett et al. (2009: 581) classified perceived barriers into 5 dimensions: lack of support, lack of knowledge, operating risks, start-up risks, and self-efficacy/support. Lack of support consists of lack of support mechanisms, formal help and legal assistance; lack of knowledge consists of lack of business, market, managerial and accounting experience and operating risks involve potential problems with employees, fear of failure, workload and irregular income. The start-up risks involve financial risk, current economic situation and lack of initial capital whereas self-efficacy/support involves doubts about personal abilities, ideas and lack of family and friends' support.

Many studies have found that perceived barriers have a negative impact on entrepreneurial intention (Kebaili et al., 2017; Malebana, 2015; Pruett et al., 2009; Şeşen & Pruett, 2014; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

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H2: *Perceived barriers have a negative impact on students' entrepreneurial intentions.*

2.4 Culture

Culture is defined as a system of shared values and beliefs that collectively shape the socially accepted behaviors and practices of a specific society (Hofstede, 2001). According to Hofstede (2001), individuals in different countries have different attitudes and behaviors due to the influence of their national culture. This study employs Hofstede's (2001) cultural dimensions framework, which comprises six dimensions (Sayğan Tunçay & Süral Özer, 2020), as outlined and explained in detail below.

2.4.1. Power Distance

Power distance is defined as the degree to which less powerful members of a country's institutions accept inequality and unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, 2001; 2011). Egypt (80) and Algeria (80) have higher power distance scores than Türkiye (66). The high-power distance scores of Egypt and Algeria indicate that these societies are based on a strong authority structure and hierarchy. The cultures of these countries are generally centralized and hierarchical, and individuals generally accept senior managers without questioning. Türkiye''s power distance score is lower than Egypt and Algeria, but it still shows that individuals accept the hierarchical structure and inequalities. The level of power distance can change the effect of perceived motivators or barriers on entrepreneurial intention. For instance, in countries with high power distance scores, the desire to achieve social status affects individuals' entrepreneurial intentions more (Pruett et al., 2009). In line with Pruett et al., (2009), Şeşen and Pruett (2014) found that Turkish university students are motivated to gain high social status to become entrepreneurs.

2.4.2 Individualism-Collectivism

Individualism-collectivism shows individuals' levels of personal autonomy or interdependence among group members. Individualism emphasizes the autonomy, personal interests and independence of the individual. In individualistic cultures, individuals accord greater precedence to their personal objectives and requirements relative to the interests of the collective group. In contrast to individualism, collectivism refers to prioritizing the needs and goals of the group or community over individual needs. In collectivist cultures, individuals are embedded within cohesive groups, exhibiting a greater sense of integration and belonging (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, 2011; Ozaralli & Rivenburgh, 2016). Egypt (13) has lower individualism scores than Algeria (29) and Türkiye (46). The low individualism score of Egypt (13) shows that the social structure of the country is based on collectivism. Egypt has a culture that places high value on strong family ties, social hierarchy and group belonging. Algeria (29) also has a strong

collectivism culture like Egypt. Furthermore, family, group and community ties are quite strong in Algeria and individuals are bound by group norms. Türkiye's individualism score (46) is higher compared to Egypt and Algeria. Turkish society attaches more importance to individual achievements compared to Egypt and Algeria. According to Brdar et al. (2009), the perceived motivators that push individuals towards entrepreneurship vary in individualistic and collectivistic cultures. Individuals in individualistic cultures try to achieve intrinsic goals such as personal development and learning, while individuals in collectivistic cultures try to achieve extrinsic goals such as fame and financial success (Brdar et al., 2009). In line with Brdar et al. (2009), Şeşen and Pruett (2014) found that personal development and creativity motivate American students (individualism score 91) to become entrepreneurs whereas Turkish students were motivated by pursuit of profit and social status. Arshad et al. (2019) also found that culture played a moderating role in the effect of intrinsic and extrinsic goals (hereafter referred to as motives) on entrepreneurial intention.

2.4.3 Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance measures society's response to uncertainty and uncertain situations. In high uncertainty avoidance cultures individuals try to minimize uncertainty and risks and strictly adhere to rules and regulations. In low uncertainty avoidance cultures, individuals are more open to innovative thinking and have a higher ability to cope with uncertainty (Hofstede, 2001; 2011). A comparison of the uncertainty avoidance scores of Türkiye (85), Egypt (55) and Algeria (70) reveals that Turkey is the nation that avoids uncertainty the most. Turks feel anxious in an environment of uncertainty and their tolerance for uncertainty is not high. Compared to Turks, Algerians and Egyptians are more open to accepting uncertainty. The level of uncertainty avoidance affects whether there is a conducive environment for entrepreneurship. For instance, in high uncertainty avoidance cultures, entrepreneurial intentions are weak (Hofstede et al. 2004; Shneor et al., 2017).

2.4.4 Masculinity-Femininity

Masculinity-femininity indicates that society is driven by competition, achievement and success or caring for others and quality of life. In masculine cultures, individuals generally value success, rewards, and gaining power, while in feminine cultures, they value empathy, cooperation, and quality of life (Hofstede, 2001; 2011). The masculinity scores of Algeria (35), Egypt (55), and Türkiye (45) show that Egyptians place a higher value on success than Algerians and Turks. Algeria's low score indicates a consensus society, prioritizing equality and solidarity and Türkiye's score (45) emphasize consensus and softer cultural aspects. According to Hofstede et al. (2004) in countries with high scores in masculinity, entrepreneurial intentions tend to be high. The findings of Shneor et al. (2017) are also in line with Hofstede et al. (2004).

2.4.5 Long-term - Short-term Orientation

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Short-term orientation focuses on the present or the past. It prioritizes the present over the future. Short-term oriented societies value tradition, social hierarchy and the fulfilment of obligations. Unlike short-term oriented societies, long-term oriented societies prefer to be patient and make long-term plans to be more successful in the long run. Individuals in such societies often strive for longer-term goals (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, 2011). Low scores of Algeria (25), Türkiye (35) and Egypt (22) indicate that they have a normative culture. They have great respect for traditions and are relatively less inclined to save for the future. Long term or short-term orientation can affect the entrepreneurial intentions of individuals. For instance, Hong et al. (2018) found that long-term orientation determined entrepreneurial intentions of Chinese university students.

2.4.6. Indulgence-Restraint

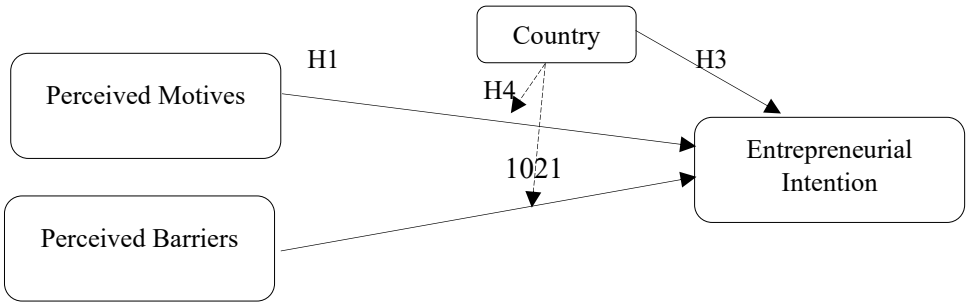
Indulgence refers to cultures that allow for natural human impulses, such as having fun and enjoying life, while restraint refers to cultures that enforce strict social rules. (Hofstede, 2011). The indulgence scores of Algeria (32), Egypt (0), and Türkiye (49) show that Egypt is a very restrained country. Egyptians control the gratification of their desires. Like Egypt, Algeria has a restrained culture. However, Algerians enjoy life more and value personal freedom more than Egyptians and Turks enjoy life more and value personal freedom more than Algerians and Egyptians. Tehseen et al. (2023) found that indulgent cultures influence entrepreneurial intention positively. In light of these claims presented in the literature, we put forth the following hypotheses. The research model is illustrated in Figure 1.

H3: *The country has an impact on entrepreneurial intention.*

H4: *The country has a moderator effect on the relationship between perceived motives and entrepreneurial intention.*

H5: *The country has a moderator effect on the relationship between perceived barriers and entrepreneurial intention*.

Figure 1. Research model



H5

H2

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Scales

The initial section of the questionnaire presented the study's objectives and provided instructions for the completion of the questionnaire. The second section included demographic questions. The third section included entrepreneurial intention, perceived motives and perceived barriers scales.

Entrepreneurial intention was measured by six items derived from Linán and Chen (2009). To measure perceived motives and perceived barriers, the scale developed by Pruett et al. (2009) was utilized. The perceived motives scale involved 16 items, and the perceived barriers scale involved 20 items. A 5-point Likert scale was used. The scales were not translated into any language. They were used in their original form in English.

3.2. Participants and Data Collection

Before data collection, ethics committee approval was obtained for the study. Ethics committee approval was obtained on 12.04.2023 with Istanbul Okan University meeting number 165, decision 21. The researcher states that publication and research ethics were adhered to, the Personal Data Protection Law and copyright regulations applicable to intellectual and artistic works were complied with.

The research was conducted using a quantitative research method and questionnaires were used to collect data. The data set was obtained from a private university in Istanbul, Istanbul Okan University. Although it was decided to focus on students from the MENA region who share similar cultural values, the specific nationalities of participants were not determined prior to data collection. Initially, the data were collected without distinguishing participants by nationality. However, due to insufficient numbers of respondents from other nationalities, only students with Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish nationalities were included in the analysis. Data from participants of other nationalities were excluded. The sample only consisted of Egyptian, Algerian and Turkish undergraduate students representing various faculties such as Business and Administrative Sciences, Engineering, Art, Design and Architecture, Dentistry and Health Sciences. The questionnaires were collected using the convenience sampling method. The data was collected online between April 2023 and June 2024. 42 questionnaires were excluded from the analysis as a result of incomplete responses. Ultimately, 503 complete

questionnaires were included in the analysis, with 204 completed by Turkish students, 138 by Algerian students, and 161 by Egyptian students.

3.3. Data Analysis Techniques

This study used SPSS 23 and SmartPLS 4 statistical programs to analyze the data. Since the scales in some studies had different factor distributions (Giacomin et. al. 2011; Pruett et. al. 2009; Uçar & Sezgin 2019), exploratory factor analysis was first conducted using SPSS. Following the exploratory factor analysis, SmartPLS was employed to conduct confirmatory analysis. The analyses conducted were carried out in two stages in SmartPLS. In the first stage, the measurement model was analysed. To test the reliability and validity of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted. In the second stage, structural model analyses were conducted, where hypotheses representing direct and indirect effects were evaluated using path analysis and bootstrapping.

4. Findings

4.1 Demographic Characteristics

As shown in Table 1, 45.3% of the respondents were female, and 54.5% were male. Among the students, 27.4% were from Algeria, 32% from Egypt, and 40.6% from Türkiye. The majority of the sample (75.9%) consisted of first and second-year students. Most students were from the Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences and the Faculty of Business and Administrative Sciences (as shown in Table 1).

Table 1. Data from sample

Variable	Description	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Female	203	40,4
	Male	300	59,6
Country	Algeria	138	27,4
	Egypt	161	32,0
	Türkiye	204	40,6
Grade	1st Grade	246	48,9
	2nd Grade	136	27,0
	3rd Grade	70	13,9
	4th Grade	48	9,5
	5th Grade	3	0,6
Faculty	Faculty of Engineering and Natural Sciences	189	37,6
	Faculty of Medicine	46	9,1
	Faculty of Health Sciences	35	7,0

Faculty of Business and Administrative Sciences	136	27,0
Faculty of Dentistry	46	9,1
Faculty of Art, Design and Architecture	30	6,0
Faculty of Applied Sciences	10	2,0
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences	11	2,2

4.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Due to the differing factor distributions of perceived motives and perceived barriers in previous studies, an exploratory factor analysis was initially conducted with SPSS (Pruett et. al. 2009; Uçar and Sezgin, 2019; Giacomin et. al. 2011).

Pruett et al. (2009: 584) categorized perceived motives into 5 factors: money-status, lifestyle, independence, creativity and equity-opportunity. In this study, the perceived motives scale showed a different distribution of factors; the items were categorized into three factors. A similar triple factor distribution was also found in Uçar and Sezgin (2019)'s study. Money-status factor showed a factor distribution as in the original scale. Items related to independence and creativity were grouped under one factor and this factor was named as self-actualization as in Uçar and Sezgin's (2019) study. Items of lifestyle and equity-opportunity were grouped under one factor and named as "expectations based on previous work experience". This dimension includes items that an individual can respond based on past work experience. For instance, the desire for fair wages and more free time, dissatisfaction with past work, and the desire to improve the quality of life are expectations that an individual can have through previous work experience. Three items (12th, 14th and 15th items) were removed from the analysis because of their low factor loadings that compromised the scale's overall reliability.

Pruett et al. (2009: 584) categorized perceived barriers into 5 factors: lack of knowledge, support structure, self-efficacy/social support, operating risks, and start-up risks. Unlike with Pruett et al. (2009), in Uçar and Sezgin (2019)'s study, the scale was divided into four factors: lack of competence, application anxiety, lack of support, and concerns about starting a job. Similarly, with Uçar and Sezgin (2019) in this study, perceived barriers scale was divided into four factors and three items (15th, 17th and 20th items) that reduced reliability were excluded from the analysis. While the factors of lack of knowledge, lack of support and startup risks showed a distribution factor as in the original scale. The items originally categorized under operating risks and self-efficacy were merged into a single factor, labeled "entrepreneurial anxiety." This factor included items such as fear of failure, irregular income, and work overload (from operating risks), as well as doubts about personal abilities and lack of ideas (from self-efficacy). As defined by Ukil (2022), entrepreneurial anxiety refers to a state of distress, doubt, fear, uneasiness, and worry. The factor was thus labeled entrepreneurial anxiety because its items collectively represent doubts about abilities, fear of failure, financial uncertainty, and workload concerns.

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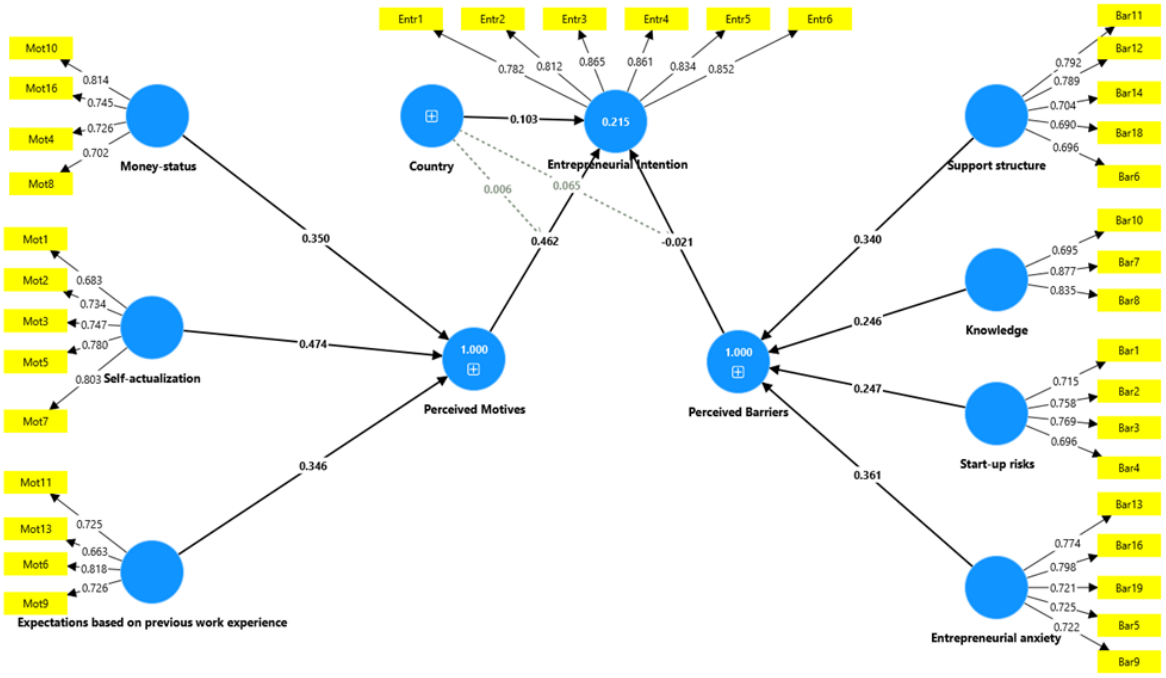
4.3 Measurement Model (First-Order Construct)

After conducting exploratory factor analysis with SPSS, reliability and validity analyses were conducted by using SmartPLS 4 analysis programme. To assess reliability and validity, several statistical techniques were employed in accordance with the recommendations set forth by Hair et al. (2016). These statistics include the following: internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha), composite reliability (CR), convergent validity and discriminant validity. These values of the scales are shown in Table 2. Cronbach's alpha (α) values and composite reliability (CR) are above 0.7 as shown in Table 2. This indicates that the scale exhibits an acceptable level of internal reliability.

Secondly, the 'Standardised Factor Loading' (SFL) values for each factor were found to be above or close to 0.70. This provides further evidence that the dimensions have a satisfactory level of reliability.

Figure 2. The PLS initial model with outer loadings



Thirdly, for convergent validity, the AVE value was checked. An AVE value of 0.50 or higher is generally considered acceptable indicating that the scale has an acceptable level of convergent validity (Hair, 2016).

Table 2. Reliability and Validity of constructs

Constructs	Items	Loading	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability (rho_a)	Composite reliability (rho_c)	AVE
Entrepreneurial Intention			0.913	0.915	0.932	0.697
	Entr1	0.782				
	Entr2	0.812				
	Entr4	0.865				
	Entr3	0.861				
	Entr5	0.834				
	Entr6	0.852				
Money-status			0.736	0.740	0.835	0.560
	Mot10	0.814				
	Mot16	0.745				
	Mot4	0.726				
	Mot8	0.702				
Self-actualization			0.806	0.812	0.865	0.563
	Mot1	0.683				
	Mot2	0.734				
	Mot3	0.747				
	Mot5	0.780				
	Mot7	0.803				
Expectations based on previous work experience			0.717	0.733	0.824	0.541
	Mot6	0.725				
	Mot9	0.663				
	Mot11	0.818				
	Mot13	0.726				
Support structure			0.787	0.791	0.854	0.541
	Bar6	0.792				
	Bar11	0.789				
	Bar12	0.704				
	Bar14	0.690				
	Bar18	0.696				
Knowledge			0.725	0.742	0.846	0.649
	Bar7	0.695				
	Bar8	0.877				
	Bar10	0.835				
Start-up risks			0.717	0.719	0.825	0.541
	Bar1	0.715				
	Bar2	0.758				
	Bar3	0.769				
	Bar4	0.696				
Entrepreneurial anxiety			0.803	0.915	0.932	0.697
	Bar5	0.774				
	Bar9	0.798				
	Bar13	0.721				
	Bar16	0.725				

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Bar19	0.722

Following reliability and convergent validity, the next step is to determine discriminant validity. Discriminant validity determines how a construct is different from the other constructs in the model. Two criteria are used to assess whether the scale has adequate discriminant validity: the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the 'heterotrait-monotrait method' ratio (HTMT) (Leguina, 2015).

To ensure discriminant validity with Fornell-Larcker criterion, the AVE values should be the highest values within the corresponding row and column. As shown in Table 3, the bolded diagonal AVE values are greater than the inter-variable correlation coefficient. Second criteria to ensure discriminant validity is "heterotrait-monotrait method" ratio (HTMT). HTMT values should be under 0.90 (shown in Table 4). These results together confirm the reliability, discrimination and convergent validity of the scales.

Table 3. Fornall-Larcker criterion for discriminant validity of the model

	Start-up risks	**Entr. intention**	**Entr. anxiety**	**Expectations based on previous work experience**	**Knowledge**	**Money - status**	**Self-act.**	**Support structure**
Start-up risks	**0.685**							
Entr. Intention	0.139	**0.835**						
Entr. anxiety	0.478	0.119	**0.711**					
Expectations based on previous work experience	0.292	0.393	0.208	**0.734**				
Knowledge	0.522	0.161	0.578	0.262	**0.799**			
Money-status	0.276	0.334	0.159	0.526	0.255	**0.746**		
Self- act.	0.316	0.416	0.166	0.626	0.268	0.599	**0.750**	
Support structure	0.489	0.107	0.653	0.188	0.644	0.196	0.163	**0.708**

Table 4. HTMT criterion for discriminant validity of the model

Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratios								
	Start-up risks	**Entr. intention**	**Entr. anxiety**	**Expectations based on previous**	**Knowledge**	**Money-status**	**Self-act.**	**Support structure**

					work experience		
Start-up risks							
Entr. Intention	0.124						
Entr. anxiety	0.702	0.097					
Expectations based on previous work experience	0.402	0.470	0.284				
Knowledge	0.781	0.180	0.830	0.357			
Money-status	0.369	0.398	0.242	0.717	0.345		
Self- act.	0.393	0.483	0.219	0.796	0.343	0.773	
Support structure	0.673	0.092	0.860	0.244	0.794	0.222	0.162

4.4 Measurement Model (Second-Order Construct)

The disjoint two-stage approach was performed. The latent variable scores (LVs) of the lower order constructs were calculated to measure the higher order constructions (Figure 3). As the perceived motives and perceived barriers were formative higher order constructs, the bootstrapping technique was employed to determine all latent first-order constructs (i.e. Start-up risks, entrepreneurial anxiety, support structure etc.). Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) was used in Partial Least Squares (PLS) to assess multicollinearity among latent first-order constructs. As illustrated in Table 5, the VIF values were found to be less than 5, indicating that multicollinearity is not a significant issue. All latent first-order constructs had VIF values below 2.5, suggesting that they contribute independently to perceived motives and perceived barriers. Therefore, multicollinearity does not pose a problem in the research model.

The next step is to assess the significance of the outer weights by performing the bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 subsamples (Hair et al., 2016).Table 5 shows the values and significance of the outer weights of the seven indicators of two formative constructs (perceived barriers and perceived motives). All seven indicators are significant (p-value=0). This concludes the analysis of the measurement model of the study.

Table 5. VIF Values and significance of outer weights of higher-order formative constructs

	VIF	**Original sample (O)**	**T statistics (|O/STDEV|)**	**P values**

Start-up risks	1.631	0.240	18.189	0.000
Entrepreneurial anxiety	2.281	0.367	30.867	0.000
Support structure	2.137	0.346	28.252	0.000
Expectations based on previous work experience	1.750	0.340	19.262	0.000
Knowledge	2.026	0.239	25.137	0.000
Money-status	1.666	0.341	21.531	0.000
Self-actualization	1.967	0.488	29.355	0.000

4.5 Structural Model (Path analysis)

Path analysis was done to test the hypotheses in SmartPLS. When carrying out a structural equation analysis, it is essential to take into account three criteria: the coefficient of determination (R^2), the cross-validated redundancy (Q^2) and the path coefficients (Hair et al., 2016). The coefficient of determination (R^2) is essential to assess the predictive power of the research model. It can also be viewed as the combined effect of the exogenous variables (independent variable) on endogenous variables (dependent variable). This effect ranges from 0 to 1 with 1 representing complete predictive accuracy. Cohen (1988) considered value of R^2 0.26 substantial, 0.13 moderate, and 0.02 weak. In this study, R^2 value is more than moderate (as shown in Table 6). To assess the predictive relevance of the model Q^2 was used. Q^2 value greater than 0 indicates acceptable predictive relevance (see Table 6). In this study, Q^2 was found to be 0.187, suggesting that the structural model has satisfactory predictive power. Finally, the SRMR value was confirmed to have a good fit. The SRMR value should be less than 0.08 to guarantee a good model fit to data, the SRMR value was found as 0.055 being less than 0.08 and approving a good of fit (GoF).

Table 6. Coefficient of determination $R^2$and Q^2

Endogenous Latent Factors	R-square	R-square adjusted	Q^2
Entr. Int.	0.215	0.207	0.187

The next step is hypothesis testing. The bootstrapping technique was used to assess the relevance of the model hypothesis. The results are shown on Figure 3 and Table 7. The fact that the T-statistic values are greater than 1.96 and the P-value is less than 0.05 indicates that the hypotheses are supported. P values and path coefficients are also shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Bootstrapping Analysis

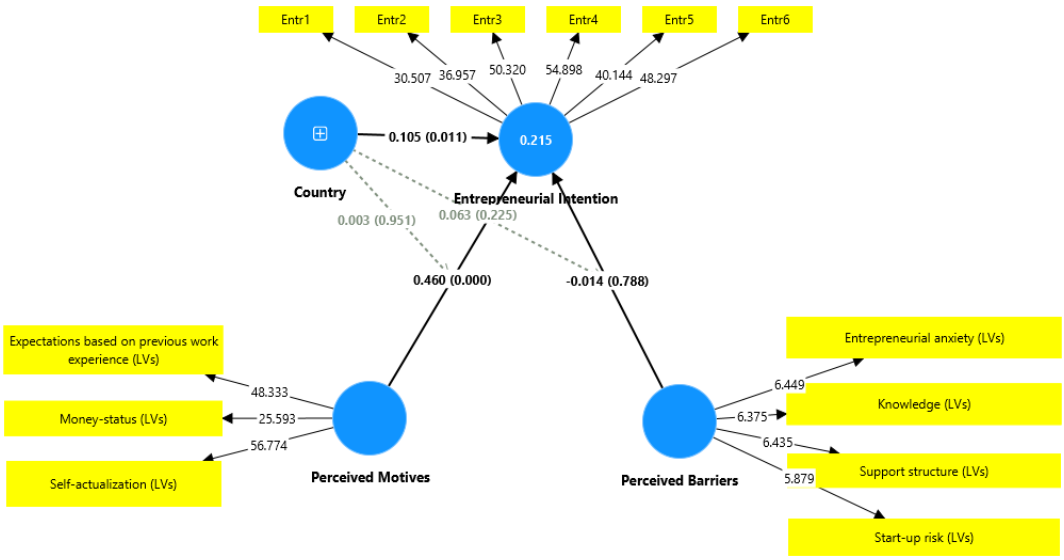

Table 7. Bootstrapping Analysis Results

	Path Coefficient (β)	T statistics	P values	Supported/ Not supported
H1: Perceived Motives -> Entrepreneurial Intention	0.460	7.027	**0.000**	**Supported**
H2: Perceived Barriers -> Entrepreneurial Intention	-0.014	0.269	0.788	Not supported
H3: Country -> Entrepreneurial Intention	0.105	2.547	**0.011**	**Supported**
H4: Country x Perceived Motives -> Entrepreneurial Intention	0.003	0.062	0.951	Not supported
H5: Country x Perceived Barriers -> Entrepreneurial Intention	0.063	1.212	0.225	Not supported

5. Conclusion

Our research makes several contributions. Our first contribution is to reveal the impact of perceived motives on the entrepreneurial intentions of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish university students in Türkiye. By identifying this effect, the study offers a deeper insight into how perceived motives shape the entrepreneurial intentions of students from different cultural backgrounds. This finding is consistent with previous studies in the literature (Pruett et al., 2009; Şeşen and Pruett, 2014; Uçar and Sezgin, 2019). Uçar and Sezgin (2019) found that motives influenced the entrepreneurial intentions of Turkish university students. Similarly, Şeşen and Pruett (2014: 256) demonstrated that intrinsic motives, such as creation and personal development, were significant predictors of American students'

entrepreneurial intentions, whereas intrinsic motives of independence and creation, and extrinsic motives of profit and social status, positively affected Turkish students' entrepreneurial intentions. Pruett et al. (2009) found partial support for the effect of perceived motives on the entrepreneurial intentions of American, Spanish, and Chinese university students. In consistent with the previous literature (Pruett et al., 2009; Şeşen and Pruett, 2014; Uçar and Sezgin, 2019), our findings indicate that perceived motives are effective in encouraging entrepreneurship among university students. Algerian, Egyptian and Turkish students' desire for self-actualization, their aspiration to earn more money and previous work experiences motivate them to engage in entrepreneurial activities. Therefore, to foster entrepreneurship among Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish students, it is important to create environments that strengthen these motives, such as providing opportunities for skill development, practical experience, and financial support.

The second contribution of this study is to reveal that perceived barriers do not affect negatively entrepreneurial intentions of Algerian, Egyptian, and Turkish students. In our study, although students encountered various barriers, these obstacles did not diminish their entrepreneurial intentions. However, most previous studies have found that barriers negatively affect entrepreneurial intentions (Kebaili et al., 2017; Malebana, 2015; Şeşen and Pruett, 2014; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019). Uçar & Sezgin, (2019) found that barriers negatively affected the entrepreneurial intentions of Turkish university students. Similarly, Hassan (2018) demonstrated that certain barriers, such as fear of failure, lack of skills and experience, lack of self-confidence, lack of knowledge, and lack of idea and market awareness, significantly affected the entrepreneurial intentions of Egyptian students. In contrast, other barriers, including lack of finance, lack of social network, lack of personal or family support, and time constraints, were found to be insignificant. Furthermore, Pruet et al. (2009) and Şeşen and Pruett (2014) found that perceived barriers partially affected entrepreneurial intention. Şeşen and Pruett (2014) state that, although barriers exist, intrinsic motives are the main driving forces of entrepreneurial intention among potential entrepreneurs, and that the effect of barriers on entrepreneurial intention is weaker compared to intrinsic motives. Contrary to the findings of the vast majority of previous studies (Kebaili et al. 2017; Malebana, 2015; Pruet et al., 2009; Şeşen and Pruett 2014; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019), Sellidj et al. (2023), in their study on students' entrepreneurial intentions in Algeria, reported noteworthy findings. Sellidj et al. (2023) found that barriers such as unemployment and poor economic conditions did not reduce Algerian students' entrepreneurial intentions. Instead, these barriers led university students toward "necessity entrepreneurship". Young generation, facing difficulties in finding employment and experiencing financial constraints, were motivated to pursue entrepreneurial activities. Similarly, St-Jean et al. (2014), examining Algerian students' entrepreneurial intentions, found that necessity was a key factor driving students to engage in entrepreneurship.

Taken together, previous research and the findings of this study regarding the impact of barriers on entrepreneurial intention suggest that the impact of barriers on entrepreneurial intention may vary across countries. While many studies report that barriers negatively (Kebaili et al., 2017; Malebana, 2015; Şeşen and Pruett, 2014; Uçar & Sezgin, 2019) or partially negatively (Hassan, 2018; Pruet et al., 2009; Şeşen and Pruett 2014) affect entrepreneurial intention, our results indicate that barriers do not significantly influence entrepreneurial intention among the students in our sample. Interestingly, Sellidj et al. (2023) and St-Jean et al. (2014) found that in Algeria, certain barriers may not hinder and can even positively influence entrepreneurial intention. These findings highlight the need for future research to examine how cultural, economic, and institutional factors shape the role of barriers, in order to better understand the conditions under which barriers may either inhibit or promote entrepreneurship.

The third contribution of this study is to examine the effect of country on entrepreneurial intention. Previous studies have predominantly focused on whether entrepreneurial intentions differ by country (Ao and Liu 2014; Bağış et al., 2023; Giacomin et al., 2011), rather than on how country or culture directly influences entrepreneurial intention (Pruet et al., 2009; Şeşen and Pruett, 2014). In these studies, entrepreneurial intentions were mostly found to vary by country (Bağış et al,. 2023; Giacomin et al., 2011). Bağış et al. (2023) found that students' entrepreneurial intentions differed across countries, indicating that cultural settings play a role in shaping entrepreneurial intenion. In line with Bağış et al. (2023), Giacomin et al. (2011) found that entrepreneurial intentions of American, Asian. and European students varied by country. In contrast to Bağış et al. (2023) and Giacomin et al. (2011), Ao and Liu (2014) found no significant difference in entrepreneurial intention between Chinese college students in China and American-born Chinese college students in the United States. This finding may be since, although the students were raised in different countries, American-born Chinese students might still have been influenced by Chinese cultural values through their families and close social environments. Therefore, the entrepreneurial intentions of Chinese and American-born Chinese students may not have differed significantly.

Hofstede (2004) highlights that country, together with its cultural values, plays a significant role in shaping entrepreneurial intention. For instance, in high uncertainty avoidance countries, entrepreneurial intentions are generally low, but higher in masculine countries (Hofstede et al., 2004; Shneor et al., 2017). Tehseen et al. (2023) found that indulgent cultures influenced entrepreneurial intention positively. Pruett et al. (2009) found that country had a small impact on entrepreneurial intentions of American, Spanish, and Chinese college students. Farrukh et al. (2019), in their study on Pakistani students, found that cultural values of individualism and collectivism affected entrepreneurial intention. In line with Farrukh et al. (2019), this study also found that country influenced entrepreneurial intention. Accordingly, when enhancing entrepreneurial intentions among youth, it is important to consider the role of country. Initiatives and strategies should be directed toward developing cultural values that facilitate and promote entrepreneurship.

In addition, this study revealed that countries did not play a moderating role between motives, barriers and entrepreneurial intention. Arshad et al. (2019) found that culture played a moderating role in the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic goals (hereafter referred to as motives) on entrepreneurial intentions. Specifically, they reported that collectivism negatively moderates the effect of intrinsic motives on individuals' entrepreneurial intentions but positively moderates the effect of extrinsic motives. In collectivist cultures, intrinsic motives such as personal growth and self-fulfillment were less influential due to the prioritization of group goals, whereas extrinsic motives, such as financial gain or social recognition, were stronger drivers of entrepreneurial intention. In the present study, however, country did not emerge as a significant moderator of the relationship between perceived motives and entrepreneurial intentions, which may be due to the fact that Algeria, Egypt, and Türkiye are not entirely distinctive in terms of collectivism and individualism.

The research has some limitations. First of all, the collection of data from only one university is an important limitation. In this context, it may be recommended to collect data from many universities in Istanbul for future studies. Secondly, only 503 samples were reached within the scope of the study. It may be recommended to increase the number of samples to obtain more generalizable results.

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