

ENTREPRENEURIAL AND INTRAPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF THE CURRENT LABOUR FORCE IN BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA: THE ROLE OF THE THEORY OF PLANNED BEHAVIOUR AND ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION

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ABSTRACT This article investigates the relationship between the dimensions of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (which includes attitude toward behavior, subjective norm, and perceived control behavior) and entrepreneurial intentions and intrapreneurial intentions, considering entrepreneurial orientation as a moderator. Using the snowball sampling method, cross-sectional data were collected from 437 respondents. After testing for reliability and validity using confirmatory factor analysis, hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression. The results indicate that the attitudes toward entrepreneurship and perceived behavioral control positively relate to entrepreneurial intentions. In contrast, attitude toward intrapreneurship is the only dimension of the theory of planned behavior positively related to intrapreneurial intentions. The moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation is only significant for the relationship between attitude toward entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intentions. Based on the results, several recommendations are made for businesses and policymakers to boost entrepreneurial activity among the current labor force.

KEYWORDS: *entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial intentions; theory of planned behavior; entrepreneurial orientation; current labor force; Bosnia and Herzegovina.*

1. INTRODUCTION

The dynamic business environment constantly forces companies to look for competitive advantage. One important way for companies to gain it is through the entrepreneurial behavior of individuals (Kirkley, 2016), which founders, managers, or employees can exhibit. Contemporary literature classifies this behavior as entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship as two distinct concepts with different costs and benefits (Douglas

& Fitzsimmons, 2013). Since both forms have benefits, predicting such behaviors and working on the deepest antecedents is crucial. For Ajzen (1991), evaluating intentions is vital to predicting such behavior. This implies that starting a business or developing a new product within the existing business is intentional rather than spontaneous (Krueger et al., 2000).

Since entrepreneurship is a type of planned behavior, many studies have investigated entrepreneurial intention (EI) and later intrapreneurial intention

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(II) using the model of the theory of planned behavior (TPB) developed by Ajzen (1985) (Gonzalez-Serrano et al., 2018; Liñán & Fayolle, 2015; van Gelderen et al., 2008; Wach & Wojciechowski, 2016; Shi et al., 2020). The model explains and helps us understand the influences of TPB dimensions on intentions with a predictive validity of 30% that a behavior will occur (Ajzen, 1991). Specifically, the theory states that the most important predictor of future behavior is an intention and that intentions can be predicted by several interrelated components, such as attitudes toward behavior (ATB), subjective norm (SN), and perceived behavioral control (PBC).

However, there are several gaps in the literature. First, although the evidence shows that TPB is essential in determining EI and II, recent research calls for new theoretical and practical perspectives (Solesvik, 2020). Specifically, TPB is typically studied as a predictor that independently affects intentions, and most studies neglect contextual factors such as culture or personal characteristics (Litzky et al., 2020). This is in line with Toril et al.'s (2013) argument that there is a lack of "an interplay analysis with individual-level characteristics predicting entrepreneurial intentions" (p. 94). Among individual characteristics, entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is exciting, referring to traits required for entrepreneurial behavior (Kollman et al., 2007). These traits are embodied in risk-taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness (Bolton & Lane, 2012). Thus, individual EO may interact between TPB, EI, and II, leading to self-confidence that increases willingness to take risks and initiative. Second, the focus of studies has been mainly on the student population and youth (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013; Gautam et al., 2020; Litzky, 2020; Marchiori et al., 2018). This has left a gap concerning the unstudied population that may exhibit entrepreneurial or intrapreneurial behavior at any given time. In this study, we refer to this population as the current labor force (CLF), which consists of either employed or unemployed individuals. Third, the predominant literature on EI and II is from developed countries, making developing and emerging countries a priority for future research (Iakovleva et al., 2011; Karimi & Mekreet, 2020; Bičo et al., 2022).

Inspired by Ratten's (2014) call for more research on entrepreneurship in developing countries, the unique context of Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) adds to the importance of the study. Considering that B&H is a transitional economy where the privatization process has not yet been completed, and the public sector is often seen as a more attractive field for employment, entrepreneurship in its complete form has not yet emerged. This is consistent with Rajh et al.'s (2016) argument that EI tends to be lower in developing countries.

Moreover, B&H is characterized by a continuous population decline (Gadžo et al., 2021), high unemployment, and a recent massive migration from the country (Knezović & Đilović, 2020). The importance of entrepreneurship and EI has gained attention as several authors have recently studied EI in B&H. Similar to the international literature, the dominant focus of investigating such relationships has been on the student population (Palalić et al., 2020; Turulja et al., 2020a; Arnaut et al., 2022) or youth (Turulja et al., 2022b) as they examined various potential determinants, such as human capital, types of support, pandemic threat, and environmental factors. In contrast, Bičo et al. (2022) expanded the sample to include the working-age population. However, their study was a comparative study based on demographic factors rather than a relational analysis. There is no literature on intrapreneurial intention, except for Bičo et al.'s (2022) study of demographic factors and EI and II in the working-age population.

This article aims to explore the relationship between TPB dimensions and EI and II by considering the moderating role of EO in CLF in the context of B&H. This represents a significant novelty, as the literature on the relationship between TPB dimensions and EI and II exists but has mainly been observed as a direct relationship, neglecting possible contextual factors. Moreover, the study of CLF provides a direct and contemporary insight into the potential of EI and II, as these individuals are more likely to exhibit such behavior in the short term. The article includes five main sections: introduction, literature review, hypotheses development, methods, results and discussion, and conclusions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

2.1. Entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial intentions

Although the traditional view of entrepreneurship has been the subject of much research, new forms, such as intrapreneurship, are emerging (Aparicio et al., 2020). Entrepreneurship is the process of developing a new venture outside of an existing organization. In contrast, intrapreneurship is considered a similar process within the current organization (Parker, 2011). Since both processes are essential for the overall economy and society (Ambad & Wahab, 2016; Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013), they are being increasingly studied to predict these processes (Farooq et al., 2018). One of the critical determinants of actual behavior is intention. According to Ajzen (1991),

individual intention is a valuable determinant of actual behavior, with a predictive power of 30%.

Since intentions are considered one of the crucial antecedents of behavior, there has been immense interest in studying entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial intentions, especially in identifying the most critical antecedents. The most common approaches to studying intentions are those developed by Ajzen (1991) and Shapero (1982). Although Shapero's Model of the Entrepreneurial Event is similar to TPB, it was developed exclusively for EI (Krueger et al., 2000), whereas TPB is designed to predict various intentions. For this reason, the TPB model has been applied in a diverse research setting. In addition, several other antecedents of both EI and II have been studied, such as EO (Sahoo & Panda, 2019; Martins & Perez, 2020), personality traits (Munir et al., 2019), or transformational leadership (Razavi & Aziz, 2017).

2.2. Theory of planned behavior and intentions

The theory of planned behavior is the most widely used intentional behavior model (Rai et al., 2017; Brahmana et al., 2018). In his model, Ajzen (1991) explains that intentions are assumed to capture motivational factors that influence behavior, and the stronger the intention, the more likely the behavior will be performed. Precisely, TPB consists of three dimensions. The first dimension, ATB, is *"the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question"* (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). The second dimension, SN, can be explained as the perceived pressure individuals feel about whether they should engage in the intended behavior. The third dimension, PBC, refers to people's perception of performing a particular behavior. Madden et al. (1992) also state that PBC is *"included as an exogenous variable that has both a direct effect on behavior and indirect effect on behavior through intentions"* (p. 4). Behavior expresses intention or the actual measurable result, while actual behavioral control refers to a person's skills to perform a behavior. Precise behavioral control directly affects the relationship between intention and behavior.

According to Ajzen's TBP model, all three dimensions are antecedents of intentions. There is extensive literature on TPB that supports the good explanatory power of intentions. For example, Van Gelderen et al. (2008) found that all three dimensions of TPB were positively related to the business students' EI. Gird and Bagraim (2008) found in a sample of final-year university students that SN had the weakest relationship with intelligence, but all three dimensions were significant predictors. In addition, Kautonen et al. (2013) analyzed the robustness of TPB in Austria and Finland.

They found that antecedents of EI together explained 59% of the variation in intention and again provided evidence that TPB is a relevant predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. Shi et al. (2020) found that SN and ATE significantly impact EI.

However, some studies report an insignificant role of SN concerning EI (Wach & Wojciechowski, 2016; Miranda et al., 2017; Doanh, 2021), and this inconsistency in results has not yet been overcome (Doanh, 2021). In the case of II, there is comparatively less literature and even more mixed results. Moreover, Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2008) found that ATB positively relates to EI and II. Unfortunately, they did not include SN or PBC in their model. In addition, in a Brazilian sample of high school sport science students, Gonzalez-Serrano et al. (2018) reported that ATB and PBC have a significant relationship with EI, while SN has it with II. In addition, an exciting result was presented in the comparative study of EI in developed and developing countries. It showed that people in developing countries score higher than people in developed countries in all dimensions of TPB (Nabi et al., 2011).

Considering the inconsistency of the results, the focus on a single sample, Lortie and Castogiovanni's (2015) suggestion that these relationships should be further explored, and Ajzen's (1991) assertion that the dimensions of TPB may vary in different situations and contexts, it is expected that all three dimensions are relevant in the context of CLF in Bosnia and Herzegovina. First, ATB refers to one's tendency to engage in a particular behavior (Ajzen, 1991). In our study, ATB represents favorable or unfavorable evaluations to act entrepreneurially. For example, Krueger (2000) argues that ATB is not inherited but learned. This is a fundamental argument for CLF.

On the one hand, employees have some experience and have better resources and information about the business environment. Therefore, they can better assess entrepreneurial opportunities in the market. On the other hand, unemployed people might see entrepreneurship as a way out of their current situation (Anwari & Hati, 2020). In B&H, CLF is relatively young, as 60.7% of the employed people are between 25 and 49 years old. In comparison, 33.8% of the unemployed are aged between 15 and 24 (Agency for Statistics of Bosnia and Herzegovina, 2019). Therefore, based on the findings of Hatak et al. (2015) that people tend to be less entrepreneurial as they get older, we can expect a significant relationship between ATB and EI and II in B&H. Second, SN is necessary at the individual level, as it relates to how others perceive a particular behavior (Sabah, 2016). Although it is the weakest predictor of intentions, SN might be stronger in CLF because many of them are

already the family's breadwinners.

Therefore, the expectations of their dependents are higher. In addition, peer opinion may play an important role. This affects potential entrepreneurial aspirations, as it would increase the family's overall income. Finally, PBC refers to the perceived difficulty of engaging in entrepreneurial behavior (Ajzen, 1991). The CLF framework hypothesizes that individuals have better information about opportunities and risks in the market or within the company and are, therefore, more likely to predict risks and potential threats to entrepreneurial behavior. Therefore, the following hypotheses are formulated:

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H1: TPB dimensions positively relate to EI.

H2: TPB dimensions positively relate to II.

2.3. The moderating role of entrepreneurial orientation

Organizational EO has five characteristics: risk-taking, innovativeness, proactiveness, competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy, whereas individual EO rules out competitive aggressiveness and autonomy (Bolton & Lane, 2012; Monteiro et al., 2017). In contrast to the organizational EO construct, which is about "the strategy-making processes that provide organizations with a basis for entrepreneurial decisions and actions" (Rauch et al., 2009, p. 762), the individual EO refers to predispositions to engage in entrepreneurial activity. For this reason, EO has been measured in various populations, such as students (Sahoo & Panda, 2019), employees (Krishnakumar et al., 2019), entrepreneurs (Cho & Lee, 2018), CEOs (Wang et al., 2021), and owners (Tayauova, 2011).

By its very nature, EO has a multidimensional effect: the anticipation of entrepreneurial propensity (Santos et al., 2020; Mohammadi, 2021). Therefore, numerous studies reported a positive relationship between EO and EI in college students (Frazier & Niehm, 2006; Ibrahim & Lucky, 2014; Koe, 2016; Martins & Perez, 2020). However, the current literature is deficient in several respects. First, the focus is on the student group when considering the individual EO. Considering how important employees are to organizations, it is essential to note that few studies have focused on their EO. Second, the relationship between EO and intention has been heavily studied, but the dominantly entrepreneurial intentions were analyzed. Therefore, it is also necessary to investigate the role of EO in II.

Finally, although there are studies on the relationship between EO and intentions, the literature on EO is scarce in the context of B&H. However, there is a trend toward higher interest in this topic (Tatar-

ski et al., 2020; Alfirević et al., 2018), but none of the studies examined CLF. Furthermore, in this study, we use the operationalization of a construct consisting of three dimensions: risk-taking, innovativeness, and proactiveness. We use the individual EO operationalization because of the focus on CLF, which includes employed and unemployed individuals. In particular, the organizational operationalization did not apply to the unemployed. In addition, we view EO as a set of characteristics that are more effective to observe through the lens of a single construct because of their interconnectedness and integration. In particular, we expect individuals in CLF with higher EO characteristics to behave more "entrepreneurially" regardless of the context in which they find themselves. Thus, they might direct their behavior towards starting their own business or new projects within the companies they work for or plan to work for. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H3: EO is positively related to EI.

H4: EO is positively related to II.

We also aim to investigate whether the relationship between TPB dimensions and intentions is stronger in the presence of EO. Not many studies examine the moderating effect of EO concerning intentions. Studies that investigated the moderating effect of EO were related to different variables but showed a significant moderating role of EO (Ibrahim & Mas'ud, 2016; Wiklund & Sheperd, 2003). The main argument stems from the moderating role of the organization EO (Kollmann et al., 2007). At the individual level, such traits make an individual more capable of acting entrepreneurially by boosting morale and self-confidence. In particular, EO can ensure psychological readiness to engage in certain behaviors (Kumar et al., 2021). In the case of CLF, someone with an unfavorable attitude toward entrepreneurship or without support from an immediate social environment can still act entrepreneurially if there is confidence in their abilities. Conversely, someone with a low EO is less likely to be entrepreneurial regardless of attitude, support, or favorable perceptions of the market or company's opportunities. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H5: EO moderates the relationship between TPB dimensions and EI.

H6: EO moderates the relationship between TPB dimensions and II.

Figure 1 presents the conceptual research model.

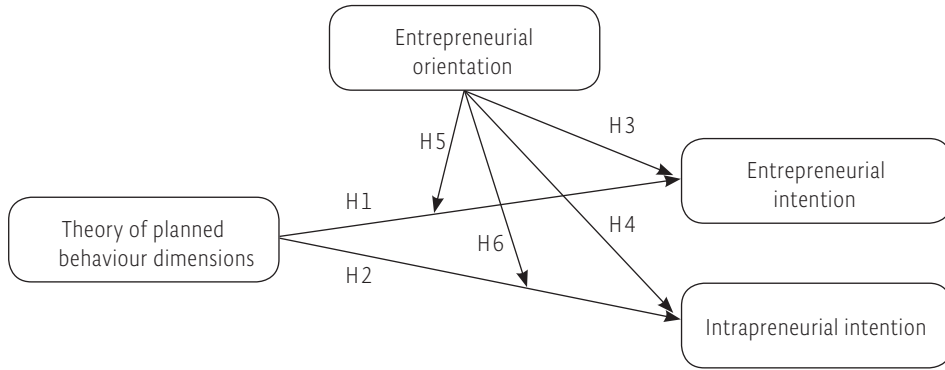


FIGURE 1. Conceptual research model.

3. METHODS

3.1. Participants and procedure

The sampled population for this study is the current working population of B&H. The participants were selected based on two criteria. The first criterion is that they are 18-64 years old, and the second criterion is they are employed or unemployed. Since no official database on the population of interest was available, a snowball sampling method was used. In the snowball sampling method, an individual or researcher selects potential participants, and these participants then unbiasedly recommend other participants who are not part of the researcher's network to make the sample more reliable (Creswell, 2012). This method was chosen because it allows for a larger and more divergent sample and reduces the risk of potential sample bias (Vandekerhof et al., 2019). This method is very commonly used when databases are not available.

The primary cross-sectional data collection was conducted from March to May 2021. The main instrument was the questionnaire, which was administered online. The participants were contacted through various mediums, including email, social media, working groups, official student associations, and university channels. The online survey allowed for greater convenience and reached many participants quickly. After collecting and reviewing all the responses, the total number of usable responses was 437.

Regarding the profile, 61% of the respondents were female, and most were aged 25-45. In addition, most respondents had a high level of education (85%) and were employed (89%). Regarding the overall work experience, most (54%) had been in the industry for more than ten years, while 34% had been employed in their current company for more than ten years. Finally, most were employed in the service sector (44%).

3.2. Instrument design and measurement

The questionnaire consisted of nine primary constructs. EI and InEI were dependent variables. They were measured with constructs of four and three items, adapted from Douglas and Fitzsimmons (2013) and based on a seven-point Likert scale (from very unlikely to very likely). The TPB dimensions for entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship were used for the independent variables. The TPB dimensions for entrepreneurship (Attitude toward the behavior - entrepreneurship - ATBE, Subjective norm - entrepreneurship - SNE, and Perceived behavioral control - entrepreneurship - PBCE) were measured using 14 items adapted from Liñán and Chen (2009). The responses were based on a seven-point Likert scale (ranging from completely disagree to agree completely). In addition, for the TPB dimensions of intrapreneurship (Attitude toward the behavior - intrapreneurship - ATBI, Subjective norm - intrapreneurship - SNI, and Perceived behavioral control - intrapreneurship - PBCI), Liñán and Chen's (2009) 14-item scale was adopted. For example, the first item under the attitude construct toward intrapreneurship was "Creating something new for the company I work in would entail great satisfaction for me." EO served as both an independent and moderating variable. The construct consists of three dimensions: risk, innovativeness, and proactiveness. Ten items were adapted from Bolton and Lane's (2012) scale to measure EO. The scale is based on a five-point Likert scale (from strongly disagree to agree strongly). All scales are listed in the Appendix.

To ensure the effectiveness and, later, the content validity of the questionnaire, we followed Brislin's (1970) suggestions. The back translation was initially used because the constructs were borrowed and formulated in English. The original English version was translated into Bosnian and then back into English. Second, a pilot test was conducted in February 2021 to

check for content validity. The main contributions of the pilot participants were related to the overall understanding of the items, clarity, translation, context, and time required to complete the questionnaire. These participants were not included in the final sample but provided valuable feedback on the questionnaire.

To reach the desired sample, a cover letter was developed explaining the nature of the study and assuring confidentiality, voluntary participation, and the use of data for academic purposes only. To participate in the study, the participants were required to provide consent, which ensured permission to use the data.

3.3. Data preparation and analysis

After data collection, the cumulative data were prepared in Microsoft Office Excel for further analysis based on the survey responses collected for the two populations. Appropriate variable labels were assigned to each construct for easy tracking and coding. Data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 21) and AMOS software. Data analysis in this study included two phases: pre-testing and hypothesis testing.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Pre-testing

The analysis process began with the pre-testing phase, which included: reliability, validity, descriptive statistics, correlations between variables, and a test for common method bias. The results are presented

in Tables 1 and 2.

Cronbach’s alpha (α) was used to test the reliability of the constructs. The results show that the values for all nine constructs are above 0.8, which is above the usual threshold of 0.7 (Taber, 2018). Thus, we can conclude that there is no concern about the reliability of the constructs used in this study.

In addition, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for construct validity. Specifically, we examined for both convergent and discriminant validity. First, standardized factor loadings (SFLs; see Appendix) for all constructs were above the usual threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2014). Second, the average variance extracted (AVE) values were above 0.5 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), except for EO. However, when AVE is less than 0.5 but greater than 0.4, and the composite reliability (CR) is larger than 0.6, the convergent validity is considered appropriate for that particular construct (Fornell & Larker, 1981). Third, we compared the AVE values’ square root with the constructs’ paired correlations to check for discriminant validity. Table 2 shows that the square roots of the AVE values are larger than the correlations of the constructs in all cases. From this, it can be concluded that discriminant validity has been achieved.

Finally, the data were collected using the same method and in a unique period. Therefore, there was a possibility of bias due to a common method. As Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggested, three tests were performed: Harman’s single factor, common latent factor, and common marker variable. In all cases, the values were below the common threshold of 50%. Therefore, we can conclude that there is no trace of common method bias.

TABLE 1. Descriptive statistics, reliability, and convergent validity

	M	SD	α	CR	AVE
ATBE	5.226	1.479	0.955	0.957	0.818
SNE	4.830	1.652	0.888	0.902	0.757
PBCE	4.709	1.264	0.916	0.920	0.659
EI	4.945	1.673	0.885	0.888	0.666
EO	3.835	0.646	0.885	0.896	0.466
ATBI	5.226	1.133	0.880	0.892	0.625
PBCI	5.706	1.088	0.927	0.937	0.714
II	5.070	1.627	0.903	0.909	0.770
SNI	4.683	1.843	0.949	0.952	0.870

NOTES: N = 437. M – Mean; SD – Standard Deviation; α – Cronbach’s Alpha; CR – Composite Reliability; AVE – Average Variance Extracted.

TABLE 2. Discriminant validity and correlations

	ATBE	SNE	PBCE	EI	EO	ATBI	PBCI	II	SNI
ATBE	(0.904)								
SNE	0.201**	(0.870)							
PBCE	0.651**	0.265**	(0.812)						
EI	0.724**	0.174**	0.579**	(0.816)					
EO	0.539**	0.184**	0.608**	0.448**	(0.683)				
ATBI	0.192**	0.229**	0.452**	0.142**	0.513**	(0.791)			
PBCI	0.326**	0.212**	0.602**	0.191**	0.629**	0.709**	(0.845)		
II	0.309**	0.211**	0.355**	0.520**	0.417**	0.482**	0.371**	(0.877)	
SNI	0.127*	0.819**	0.239**	0.096	0.142**	0.272**	0.259**	0.179**	(0.933)

NOTE(S): Square roots of AVE values are in parentheses. ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

4.2. Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, we performed a hierarchical multiple regression. First, we introduced the TPB dimensions (Model 1), then EO (Model 2), and finally, the moderating variables (Model 3). The results are presented in Table 3. The results show that TPB dimensions explain 44.7% of the variance in EI. However, there are mixed results regarding the individual relationships between TPB dimensions and EI.

On the one hand, we can find a positive relationship between ATBE and EI and PBCE and EI. On the other hand, the relationship between SNE and EI is not significant. Thus, H1 is partially supported. The results are consistent with the prevailing argument that a positive relationship exists (Van Gelderen et al., 2008; Wach & Wojciechowski, 2016; Munir et al., 2019; Doanh, 2021). Specifically, EI is more pronounced when individuals have a positive attitude. In addition, perceived ease and controllability are essential in pursuing an entrepreneurial career.

In the case of II, TPB dimensions explain 16.6% of the variance, but only ATBI has a positive and significant relationship with II regarding individual relationships. Therefore, there is only partial support for H2. This is consistent with recent work by Scharrer and Stubenrauch (2018), who found that ATBI is the only relevant determinant of II. It seems that II is much more complex than the simple perception of the ease and controllability of executing projects in the organization. In comparison to EI, this is reasonable. In entrepreneurship, individuals have much more power,

autonomy, and control over actions, whereas in intrapreneurship, actions depend on various organizational elements.

Furthermore, we can conclude that SN is not significantly related to EI or II. Although there is a theoretical basis for this, Liñán and Chen (2009) mentioned that SN has traditionally played a weak role. Accordingly, some papers reported insignificant relationships (Krueger et al., 2000; Tsordia & Papadimitriou, 2015), others omitted it (Veciana et al., 2005), while some measured it together with motives to comply (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). Although there is not yet a conclusive explanation, in our case, this could be because B&H is a transitional country that has moved from state-owned to private ownership in the last two decades. One aspect of SN, such as family support, may be absent. The generations living under the previous state structure generally believe that jobs in the public sector and state-owned enterprises are better and more secure. These jobs tend to require less "entrepreneurial intent," which is consistent with the study's findings. Overall, we can conclude that TPB dimensions are more strongly associated with EI than II. This could be since the measurement of TPB dimensions was adapted from the one designed for entrepreneurship. Therefore, some more concrete items related to intrapreneurship might have been omitted.

As for the role of EO, we have mixed results. First, the relationship between EO and EI was insignificant, so we can conclude that insufficient evidence supports H3. In the case of EO and II, the relationship

TABLE 3. Hierarchical regression

El as DV	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	II as DV	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
ATBE	.543**	.527**	-0.517	ATBI	.310**	.273**	0.442
SNE	-0.007	-0.008	-0.216	SNI	0.047	0.055	-0.452
PBCE	.184**	.158**	0.579	PBCI	0.113	-0.025	-0.356
EO		0.065	-.349**	EO.		.294**	-0.099
ATBxEO			1.413**	ATBixEO			-0.208
SNExEO			0.251	SNixEO			0.572
PBCExEO			-0.582	PBCixEO			0.55
ΔR²	0.446	0.003	0.029	ΔR²	0.166	0.06	0.018
R²	0.446	0.449	0.478	R²	0.166	0.226	0.244
Adjusted R²	0.443	0.444	0.469	Adjusted R²	0.16	0.219	0.232
ΔF	116.416**	2.163	7.853**	ΔF	28.647**	33.759**	3.360*

NOTE(S): N = 437. **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05.

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was positive and significant, with EO explaining 6% of the additional variance. Therefore, there was sufficient evidence to support H4. As for the moderating effect of EO, it is significant only for the relationship between ATBE and EI. Therefore, the support for H5 is only partial. The moderating effect of EO is shown in Figure 2. However, EO is not a significant moderator in the relationship between TPB dimensions and II. Therefore, H6 is not supported.

These results are interesting for several reasons. First, the role of individual EO in EI and II in CLF remains to be investigated. However, compared to the student population as the dominant population studied in the literature, we can conclude that it contradicts the main findings, especially in the case of EI (Ibrahim & Lucky, 2014; Koe, 2016). Conversely, the significant role of EO in II within CLF could be explained by the fact that most respondents were already employed and tended to harbor entrepreneurial activity within their organizations rather than becoming self-employed. Considering that the most

valuable HRM practice in B&H companies is job security (Knezović et al., 2020), we can relate the results to the reciprocity-based social exchange theory. In the turbulent labor market characterized by unemployment and poor working conditions, a company that “secures” its employees tends to retain them more. In particular, it is a cost-benefit game between a company and its employees, where employees reward the company by behaving more entrepreneurially. In addition, it appears that companies in B&H are finally moving to contemporary management techniques. Such companies require more “entrepreneurial” behavior from those who manage the company and their employees. The predisposition to entrepreneurial behavior is a set of characteristics grouped at EO. Specifically, companies in B&H require employees who will take risks, propose innovative solutions, and proactively take leadership roles. Therefore, entrepreneurial behavior has shifted from the organization embodied only by managers to a new dynamic of the organization also embodied by employees.

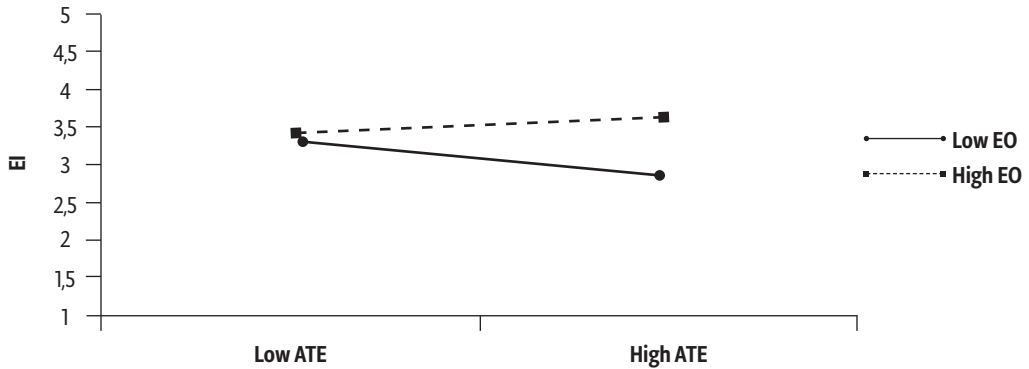


FIGURE 2. The moderating effect of EO in the relationship between ATBE and EI.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Although research on intentions, especially EI, has existed for decades, there are several gaps that this study aims to fill. First, previous studies considered EI and II as different constructs with different determinants. Second, most studies had limited samples and focused mainly on the student population, which was the case in B&H (Palalić et al., 2020; Turulja et al., 2020a, 2020b; Arnaut et al., 2022). Third, the moderating role of EO in the relationship between TPB dimensions and intentions has not been investigated. Finally, regarding context, most studies have been conducted in developed countries. Studies in Western Balkan countries, and especially B&H, are relatively scarce.

Because both types of intentions have recently attracted considerable interest, this study has made several contributions. First, we contextualized the study within the CLF population of employed and unemployed individuals, which extends previous studies (Douglas & Fitzsimmons, 2013; Doanh, 2021; Kumar et al., 2021). Thus, our recommendations can be shared with businesses, governments, and society. Second, previous studies were primarily interested in looking at the components of EO individually rather than as a whole (Kumar et al., 2021). In addition, the studies were more interested in the determinant role of EO rather than the moderating role (Koe, 2016; Kumar et al., 2021). This study shows that EO can be a valid moderator in some cases.

Third, the results of this study form the basis for some valuable business recommendations. Since the intrapreneurship concept is relatively new in Bosnia and Herzegovina, it has recently received attention. Our results show that TPB dimensions and EO play some role in II. When it comes to TPB, we talk spe-

cifically about ATBI. Obtaining a job is not the end of the story. Employees must prove themselves on an ongoing basis. In the context of B&H, this is relatively new. Stepping out from the mentality of the state-owned system, which provided job security and often led to worker "lethargy," which is no longer desired in the market, is essential.

However, companies must do more to demand intrapreneurial behavior and convince employees that it is vital for all parties involved. When employees understand the benefits, they are willing to engage. Therefore, our primary recommendation is to increase daily communication with employees and occasionally organize materials and meetings to discuss these aspects. An appropriate performance appraisal system should also be developed to incentivize such behavior. In addition, EO also contributes to II. As individual EO can be observed as having the potential to act intrapreneurially, one way to start dealing with EO would be to invest in the identification process of individual EO. This investment would be twofold: identification during the recruitment process and over time spent within the organization. Therefore, companies should consider investing in organizational aspects critical to improving individuals' EO, such as training and development.

Finally, in line with Ramadani and Dana's (2013) argument that opportunities and limitations of entrepreneurship depend on the environment, the study provides recommendations for policymakers regarding E.I. First and foremost, there is a need to change people's attitudes toward entrepreneurship. This is a "marathon process" that cannot be accomplished overnight. Therefore, greater and indirect government involvement is essential. There are several ways in which the government could help here. First, it could provide information about entrepre-

neurship's role, importance, and benefits through public campaigns, symposia, and press releases. This would translate into higher social values, such as social support, which aligns with the recent study by Turulja et al. (2020a).

In addition, there should be adequate incentive programs for business start-ups. Currently, the available subsidies are often insufficient. Another contribution of the government would be to change the employment strategy in the public sector. There is over-employment in the public sector in particular. These jobs provide security and more than adequate compensation compared to private sector work assignments and jobs. Our key recommendations relate to regulating the formation and governance of companies in terms of perceived control behavior. Highly procedural, bureaucratic, highly taxed, and often corrupt regulations discourage people from engaging in entrepreneurship. Since regulation is one of the most critical elements of the entrepreneurial ecosystem, this is consistent with Jha's (2018) assertion that "the stronger the ecosystem, the higher the chance of success for firms operating in that ecosystem" (p. 179). Simplifying the process and creating an equitable system would make the start-up mindset more viable for individuals.

In addition to providing important insights and valuable recommendations for various parties regarding EI and II in B&H, this study has several limitations. First, few studies examine EI and II together; to our knowledge, no study focuses on CLF. Therefore, the results are hardly comparable with previous studies. Nevertheless, this study may serve as a basis for future studies. Second, we used cross-sectional data where it is impossible to establish causal relationships. Future studies should focus more on measuring these relationships on a longitudinal basis. Third, we used snowball sampling. Although we had justified reasons for doing so, the data collected did not allow us to generalize the results. Future studies should focus on a smaller (i.e., geographic) population and attempt to use random sampling in this manner. Finally, the TPB dimensions for intrapreneurship were adapted from entrepreneurship. A different type of measurement that considers organizational context could be used in future studies.

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NAMJERE PODUZETNIŠTVA I INTERNOG PODUZETNIŠTVA TRENUTNE RADNE SNAGE U BOSNI I HERCEGOVINI: ULOGA TEORIJE PLANIRANOG PONAŠANJA I PODUZETNIČKE ORIJENTACIJE

SAŽETAK

Ovaj članak istražuje odnos između dimenzija teorije planiranog ponašanja (koja uključuje stavove prema ponašanju, subjektivne norme i percipiranu kontrolu ponašanja) te namjere poduzetništva i internog poduzetništva, pri čemu se u obzir uzima poduzetnička orijentacija kao moderator. Koristeći metodu uzorkovanja „grudve snijega” (snowball sampling), prikupljeni su kros-sekcijski podaci od 437 ispitanika. Nakon testiranja pouzdanosti i valjanosti uz korištenje konfirmatorne faktorske analize, za testiranje hipoteza je korištena hijerarhijska regresija. Rezultati ukazuju na to da su stavovi prema poduzetništvu i percipirana kontrola ponašanja pozitivno povezani s poduzetničkim namjerama. S druge strane, stav prema internom poduzetništvu jedina je dimenzija teorije planiranog ponašanja, koja je pozitivno povezana s namjerama internog poduzetništva. Moderatorska uloga poduzetničke orijentacije značajna je samo za odnos između stavova prema poduzetništvu i poduzetničkih namjera. Na temelju dobivenih rezultata, daju se preporuke za tvrtke i donositelje javnih politika kako bi se potaknula poduzetnička aktivnost među trenutnom radnom snagom.

KLJUČNE RIJEČI: *namjera poduzetništva i internog poduzetništva; teorija planiranog ponašanja; poduzetnička orijentacija; tekuća radna snaga; Bosna i Hercegovina*