



Psychological Needs, Goal Orientations and the Cultural Preferences of Individuals with Start-up Aspirations

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Abstract. The present study examined individuals with start-up aspirations. The study objective was to test relationships between basic psychological needs and achievement goal orientation(s). The second objective was to test relationships between goal orientation(s) and preferred organizational culture. Our theoretical argument is that preferred culture is influenced by perceived person-environment fit. Preferred culture can therefore be partly understood by peoples' motives and goals. That is, people choosing self-employed will prefer an environment that fits their goal orientation and not everyone has the same goal orientation. Our findings suggest that basic psychological needs lead people to prefer certain organizational cultures. Goal orientations were mid-level mechanisms that mediated between psychological needs and business start-up preferences. We make recommendations based on understanding and changing goal orientations.

Keywords: goal orientations, cultural preferences, self-employment aspirations.

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1. Introduction

The order of events leading to entrepreneurship often involves deliberation, followed by a decision to be self-employed, followed by the intent to act. That is, for many people, becoming an entrepreneur starts by deliberately choosing between two alternatives: employment in an established firm or self-employment in pursuit of an opportunity. Preferring to be self-employed through starting a business is referred to as possessing start-up aspirations in this study. The decision to be self-employed cannot be right or wrong; rather the choice can be good or bad, wise or foolish, with respect to satisfying personal goals. Accordingly, one aim of the present study was to examine how basic psychological needs that have been associated with start-up aspirations are related to a person's achievement and motivation behaviour. Eventually, new business start-ups pick a dominant culture

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(Cameron, Quinn, Degraff, & Thakor, 2006; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). In the present study, we examine *why* this may occur. This research question has been poorly addressed to date (Jain, 2011). Accordingly, a second objective of this study was to examine relationships between achievement goal orientations and business start-up preferences.

Career preferences are influenced by personal needs (Rodrigues, Guest, & Budjanovcanin, 2013). Indeed, people prefer careers in self-employment rather than paid employment partly to satisfy their personal needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Eren & Sula, 2012; Shane, Locke, & Collins, 2003). Also, people who actually start a business differ from the general population and from managers in terms of the basic psychological needs they seek to satisfy (see Jain, 2011; Khondaker & Sheikh, 2011; Rauch & Frese, 2007). Once a person has decided to start a business, their cognitions influence which opportunities they decide to recognize and how they exploit those opportunities (McMullen & Sheppard, 2006; Sheppard, McMullen, & Ocasio, 2017). The motivational mechanisms related to entrepreneurial cognition are not well understood (Sheppard, McMullen, & Jennings, 2007).

The motives for starting a business vary somewhat from person-to-person. For instance, Choo and Wong (2006) identified intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards and the desire for independence/autonomy as motives underlying entrepreneurial intentions. Langan-Fox and Roth (1995) identified the need achiever entrepreneur, the pragmatic entrepreneur and the managerial entrepreneur. Goal orientation theory (Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Elliot & McGregor, 2001) provides a way of understanding how basic psychological needs lead a person to favour certain goals over others. Goal orientations are mid-level motivational mechanisms (Elliot & McGregor, 1999; Elliot & Thrash, 2002; Payne Youngcourt, & Beaubien, 2007). As such, they may mediate between psychological needs and business start-up management preferences.

Management start-up preferences were operationalized as preferred culture. Preferred culture was assessed using the competing values model. The model describes four unique work environments, i.e., compete, collaborate, create and control (Cameron et al., 2006; Howard, 1998). Each culture in the typology reflects an operationalization of a unique firm strategy. People prefer one of the cultures even though they may intellectually understand the value-creation potential of other cultures (Cameron & Quinn, 2006).

The present study proceeds in the following way. First, how the basic psychological needs of people with start-up aspirations are associated with goal orientations are examined. Then, the mediating role of goal orientations between basic psychological needs and cultural preferences are examined. Our findings can help incubators, accelerators and policy makers' transition people from wanting to start a business to actually starting that business. This can be accomplished by catering to the needs and motives a person may have for their particular start-up aspirations. When a person starts a business that does not

satisfy their needs some negative consequences may result, e.g., reduced motivation to work on the business, maladaptive behavior, job dissatisfaction and unpleasant emotions such as anxiety (Bandalos, Yates, & Thorndike-Christ, 1995; Edwards, 2008; Lohbeck, Nitkowski, & Petermann, 2016). Ultimately, if one starts a business that fails to meet one's needs, one will be pulled back into something more congruent (Lee & Wong, 2004). The goals pursued by entrepreneurs will also impact firm performance (e.g., Stuart & Abetti, 1990). A practical benefit of using goal orientations to explain the relationship between needs and preferred culture is that while goal orientations are relatively stable individual differences, they can be modified and developed in training programs (Button et al., 1996; see also Nicholls, Cobb, Yackel, Wood, & Wheatley, 1989) to better match a founder to situational demands.

2. The Differing Goals of Individuals Choosing to be Self-Employed

Choosing to be self-employed is central to understanding entrepreneurial intent, which "is the intention of an individual to start a new business" (Engle et al., 2010, p. 39). Entrepreneurial intent is a critical first step in the process of creating, discovering and exploiting opportunities (Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014; Engle et al., 2010). It is a predictor of future entrepreneurial behaviour (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). Examining the cognitive processes related to entrepreneurial intent are important to understanding entrepreneurship (Engle et al., 2010).

The decision to start a business is deliberate and rational (Pihie & Bagheri, 2013; Singh, Simpson, Mordi, & Okafor, 2011). People are motivated to start a business because of "pull" factors (e.g., desire for self-fulfilment and other personal rewards). They are also motivated to start a business because of "push" factors (e.g., lack of employment opportunities, dissatisfaction at work and government supported initiatives). A person may deliberately decide upon self-employment but not necessary do so. That is, while the choice of some action (i.e., to be self-employed) is a precursor for intent to do something, it is not the same as actually doing the action.

With respect to "pull" factors, person-environment (P-E) fit theory (Bradley-Geist & Landis, 2012; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005) states that people are attracted to work environments where they perceive their needs will be met (Bradley-Geist & Landis, 2012; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). That is, people look for opportunities and find ways of exploiting opportunities based on their own unique needs. This is because a person's needs influence what activities are experienced as rewarding and satisfying (Holland, 1985). Ultimately, for the budding entrepreneur, what is rewarding and satisfying influences opportunity recognition and how opportunities are exploited (Ahmetoglu, Leutner, & Chamorro-Premuic, 2011).

The most common needs associated with starting a business are those in McClelland's needs theory (1985), need for achievement (nAch; striving to master challenges), need for power (nPow; the desire to exert influence on others) and need for affiliation (nAff; desire to feel socially accepted and for warm, secure relationships). In addition, need for autonomy (nAut; desire to be a causal agent of one's own life and act in one's self-interest) is a basic psychological need often associated with entrepreneurship (Jain, 2011).

Goal Orientations

Studies on entrepreneurial goals have primarily been concerned with performance goals. They draw on traditional goal setting theory and generally prescribe greater attention to goal content (Bateman, O'Neill, & Kenworthy-U'Ren, 2002) and goal commitment (De Clercq, Menzies, Diochon, & Gasse, 2009). Goal orientation theory (Elliot & McGregor, 2001) raises the possibility that people with business start-up desires have goals other than performance goals. When few situational cues are present, people adopt their dispositional goal orientations (Button et al., 1996, p. 40; see also Kaplan, Lichtinger, & Gorodetsky, 2009). Goal orientations predict behaviour beyond cognitive ability and personality traits (Payne et al., 2007), both of which have already received considerable research attention in the entrepreneurship literature (Rauch & Frese, 2007). Goal orientations have been investigated in various disciplines, but rarely in entrepreneurship (Uy, Shuhua & Foo, 2017).

Goal orientations vary on two dimensions (Elliot & McGregor, 2001). The first dimension is whether a person focuses on attaining positive outcomes or focuses on avoiding negative outcomes (e.g., risk of failure and public humiliation). A motivation to strive for positive gains is associated with an entrepreneurial career rather than paid employment (Jain, 2011; Jaskiewicz, Luchak, Oh, & Simone, 2016; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 1980). Conversely, a focus on avoiding risks due to fear of failure is associated with employment career intentions (Jaskiewicz et al., 2016). The second dimension is whether the person uses an internal absolute standard when establishing goals (that is, they are self-focused or task-involved) or an external normative standard (that is, they are other-focussed or ego-involved). The goal of building competence for personal satisfaction is a mastery-approach goal. It has an internal referent and focuses on positive outcomes. The goal of achieving an outcome that is applauded by others is called performance-approach. It has an external referent and focuses on positive outcomes.

Goal orientations may mediate between psychological needs and the business culture preferences of individuals who prefer being self-employed. In determining the links between psychological needs and goal orientations, we consider internal/external goal focus with respect to attaining positive outcomes. Mastery-avoid (avoiding a decline in competence) and performance-avoid (avoiding a display of incompetence and/or humiliation) are avoidant goals.

Avoidant goals are unlikely to be related to starting a business (Jaskiewicz et al., 2016, see also Higgins, 1997, 1998, 2006; Förster, Higgins, & Idson, 1998) because of a focus on avoiding risks, uncertainty and negative outcomes (Koudstaal, Sloof, & van Praag, 2015).

Needs and Goal Orientations

High nAch predisposes a person to “seek out an entrepreneurial position to attain more achievement satisfaction” (Jain, 2011, p. 130). Thus, entrepreneurs are higher in nAch than is the general population or than are managers in an existing firm (Jain, 2011). nAch can entail expectations of achieving positive outcomes through doing something better or faster than one’s own earlier accomplishments (self-focused or task-involved) or doing something better or faster than anybody else (other-focused or ego-involved) (see Hansemark, 2003). Thus, theoretically, nAch may relate to goal orientations that focus on attaining positive outcomes and with a focus on an internal (see McClelland, 1985) or an external referent (see Decker, Calo, & Weer, 2012).

Hypothesis 1. nAch is positively related to (a) a performance-approach (external referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes) and (b) a mastery-approach goal orientation (internal referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes).

Decker et al. (2012, p. 312) found that “those with entrepreneurial ambitions do value other people and often succeed in establishing professionally and socially beneficial relationship[s].” This suggests that at least some people with a business start-up preference may have a need to form friendships with others and to interact with others due to a high nAff. High nAff may drive the development of relationships that provide positive stimulation (Decker et al., 2012).

Like nAff, the referent for nPow is also external, i.e., a need for influence or control others, status, dominance and authority (Song & Steven, 2014). People high in nPow may want to start their own business because they can be immediately responsible and take charge (Ramsay et al., 2017).

Lastly, entrepreneurs report wanting to avoid rules, procedures and social norms (Jain, 2011, Omerzel & Kušce, 2013; Vantilborgh, Joly, & Pepermans, 2015) in order to preserve their sense of freedom. The greater the nAut, the more likely the person is to be self-focused or task-involved and less likely (s)he is to focus on pleasing anybody else (other- or ego-involved) (Decker, et al., 2012).

Hypothesis 2. NAff is positively related to a performance-approach (external referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes) goal orientation.

Hypothesis 3. NPower is positively related to a performance-approach (external referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes) goal orientation.

Hypothesis 4. NAut is (a) positively related to a mastery-approach (internal referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes) and (b) negatively related to performance-approach (external referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes) goal orientation.

3. Approach Goal Orientations (Mediators) and Cultural Preferences (Criteria)

Create Culture

A preference for a create culture indicates a belief that organizational effectiveness is best achieved through novel processes and offerings, breakthrough ideas and through pushing boundaries. Values possessed by people preferring a create culture include flexibility, growth and innovation (Cameron et al., 2006). Leaders of create cultures like variety and stimulating work, are idealistic and tend to be motivated by their positive vision of the future (Hart & Quinn, 1993, Quinn, 1984). These markers of a create culture are a fit with the internal referent (e.g., desire for stimulating work and growth) and focus on attaining positive outcomes (e.g., motivation to achieve a positive vision) of the mastery-approach goal oriented individual. That is, a create culture may be perceived as attractive, or providing good P-E fit, to a mastery-approach individual and therefore may be preferred by that person. This is because mastery-approach individuals (a) believe ability is malleable and are more likely to attribute performance to effort rather than to ability, which encourages competence building, risk-taking and the perseverance important for creativity, (b) set difficult and challenging goals, and perceive difficult tasks as challenges rather than as threats, which encourages pushing boundaries through breakthrough ideas, (c) engage in high levels of metacognitive activity, which facilitates learning and problem solving, (e) engage in self-regulatory behaviors such as planning and goal setting, which facilitates goal pursuit and (f) are intrinsically motivated, which facilitates creativity (Elliott & Dweck, 1988; Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009).

On the other hand, Locke and Latham (2006) argue that for complex tasks, focusing on a performance outcome may lead to tunnel vision rather than broad competence development and innovation. Moreover, the learning process can result in short-term decreases in performance that are unattractive to performance-oriented individuals (Ahearne, Lam, Mathieu, & Bolander, 2010). Thus, to the extent that create cultures benefit from learning, performance focused individuals may feel they are not well suited to create cultures and may not see them as a preference. Indeed, for performance-oriented individuals, focusing on self-validation may actually interfere with learning and challenge seeking (Dweck, 1986; Rusk & Rothbaum, 2010). The possibility of appearing incompetent would also discourage avoidant individuals from wanting to engage

in risky or challenging activities, even though these activities may potentially provide opportunities for creativity (cf. Hirst Van Knippenberg, Chen, & Sacramento, 2011; VandeWalle, 1997).

Hypothesis 5: A mastery-approach goal orientation in an individual with start-up aspirations is positively related to a preference for a create culture.

Compete Culture

A compete culture values aggressively gaining market share through productivity and competition (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). A person preferring this business culture likely believes in a “compete hard, move fast, and play to win” philosophy (Cameron et al., 2006, p. 34). Leaders of compete cultures tend to be instrumental, directive and outcome oriented (Cameron et al., 2006; Quinn, 1984). A performance-approach achievement orientation may be associated with a preference for a compete culture because of the performance-approach person’s proclivity toward extrinsic motivation and obtaining status from social comparison (Brett & VandeWalle, 1999; Elliot & McGregor, 2001; VandeWalle, 1997). That is, a compete culture is likely congruent with an external referent and a focus on attaining positive outcomes (e.g., performing better than others) of the performance-approach individual.

Hypothesis 6: A performance-approach goal orientation in individuals with entrepreneurial intent is positively related to a preference for a compete culture.

Collaborate Culture

A collaborate culture values “human development, human empowerment, human commitment” (Cameron et al., 2006, p. 38). The assumption is that effectiveness is achieved through developing employee belongingness, shared values, trust, teamwork and loyalty (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Quinn, 1984). Leaders of collaborate cultures are more likely to be perceived as mentors or father figures because they are participative, considerate, supportive and seek consensus (Quinn, 1984). A person with a mastery-approach goal orientation may be more likely to believe that personal growth and development results from collaboration efforts with others offering external sources of knowledge. Accordingly, they may prefer a collaborative culture. A performance-approach oriented individual may also prefer a collaborative culture because they can be revered by subordinates. Conversely, avoidant individuals may see a collaborative culture as not particularly desirable, because they are concerned that others will be in a position to judge their performance.

Hypothesis 7: A mastery-approach goal orientation in individuals with entrepreneurial intent is positively related to a preference for a collaborate culture.

Hypothesis 8: A performance-approach goal orientation in individuals with entrepreneurial intent is positively related to a preference for a collaborate culture.

Control Culture

The control or hierarchy culture is associated with a concern for control and stability (Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thakor, 2006). Leaders in a control culture tend to be conservative and cautious, paying close attention to technical matters (Quinn, 1984) so that their firms are “better, cheaper and surer” than competitors (Cameron et al., 2006. p. 32; Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Control cultures focus is on avoiding negative outcomes. Therefore, they are unlikely to be associated with a new business start-up (cf. Koudstaal et al., 2015).

4. Method

Participants and Procedures

An online advertisement by a survey company recruited people throughout the United States. Recruitment was open, so a response rate cannot be calculated for our convenience sample. Our final sample was generated by using the filter question “suppose you could choose between different kinds of jobs, which one would you prefer: (1) being an employee in an existing firm, or (2) being self-employed, defined as either an individual working alone to launch and run a business in pursuit of the opportunity or launching and running of a business with others in pursuit of an opportunity. The choice to be self-employed represents a choice for a relatively unconstrained environment and is influenced by an entrepreneurial career identity. A career identity reflects a person’s needs and motivations to be part of the business start-up community (Shepherd, & Patzelt, 2018). In an unconstrained environment, there is less likelihood of need thwarting. Accordingly, people are more likely to strive to satisfy their basic needs. According to the Kauffman Foundation (2011), more than half of people aged 18-34 want to start a business.

A further filter was included to ensure no participant had opened a business in the past, i.e., had no practical entrepreneurial experience. These individuals were excluded because their entrepreneurial identity, goal orientations and cultural preferences may have been impacted by past start-up experiences, e.g., past successes/failure(s) (Newbery, Lean, Moizer, & Haddoud, 2018). Our simple approach to identifying individuals with business start-up aspirations is used in research commissioned by the European Community (Flash European Barometer, 2004; see also Blanchflower, Oswald, & Stutzer, 2001; Grilo & Thurik, 2005) and also research in the career literature (Jaskiewicz et al., 2016; Decker et al., 2012).

Data were collected in 2-week intervals (considered long enough to reduce some systematic error variance) needs and other individual differences at time 1, goal orientations at time 2 and cultural preferences at time 3. Participants received

\$20 for survey completion. To be included in the study, respondents had to participate in all 3 waves. Steps were taken to prevent 'cheating' per Zhang (1998). For instance, respondents were removed for speeding, flat lining, inattentiveness, random clicking, answering inconsistencies and selecting dummy answers. The sample at time 1 was 1150 (60% were female) and at time 3 was 518 (63% were female). The final sample consisted of 25-45 year old individuals, which is consistent with the previously reported age range of individuals most likely to start a business (e.g., Blanchflower et al., 2001; Shane, 2008). The average age was 31. In our sample, 92.7% had more than 5 years of work experience, 76.6% were white, 36% had a high school diploma and 58% had a college degree or higher. Prior to analyses being conducted, the quality of the data was confirmed via tests for the influence of social desirability bias (a short form of the Marlow-Crowne 13 item Scale was used derived from Reynolds, 1982), multi-collinearity and to ensure sufficient power to minimize the risk of Type I and Type II errors (Wilson & Morgan, 2007).

The variables in this study have two characteristics. First, they were assessed by self-reports because needs and the satisfaction of needs are a subjective experience (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Self-reports were expected to be an accurate predictor and more accurate than objective need support (Broeck et al., 2010; Janke et al. 2015; Sheldon & Hilpert. 2012). Second, basic needs and their motivational impact are relatively stable (cf. Deci & Ryan, 2000; Janke et al. 2015; Kaplan & Maehr, 2007). Goal orientations are also stable preferences (Janke et al., 2015). Hence, study variables were unlikely to markedly change over the period of the study. Accordingly, not all variables were measured at each period of this study.

Measures

Unless otherwise stated, the scale for the all measures ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). NACH consisted of 7 items from Mathieu (1990), including "I enjoy working hard as much as relaxation," and "I set difficult goals for myself, which I try to accomplish". NAFF consisted of 5 items from Mathieu (1990), including "when I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself," and "I consider myself a team player when it comes to work activities". NPow consisted of 5 items from Steers & Braunstein (1976), including "I strive to be in command when I am working in a group," and "I find myself organizing and directing the activities of others." NAut consisted of 6 items from Wageman (1995), including "I would rather work alone than with other people" and "the less I have to rely on others at work, the happier I am."

Four items per goal orientation were from Baranik, Barron, & Finney (2007). Sample items for mastery-approach are "I am willing to select a challenging work assignment that I can learn a lot from," and "I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge". For performance-approach,

sample items are “I try to figure out what it takes to prove my ability to others at work,” and “I enjoy it when others at work are aware of how well I am doing”.

Six items per cultural value preference were from the Organization Culture Assessment Instrument (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, see also Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Gillespie, 1999; Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko, & Sales, 2007). Respondents were asked to think about their preferred organizational work environment. Sample items for the create culture dimension are “the organization is a very dynamic and entrepreneurial place,” and “people are willing to stick their necks out and take risks.” Sample items for the compete culture are “the organization is very results-oriented,” and “people are very competitive and achievement-oriented.” Sample items for collaborate dimension are “the organization is a very personal place. It is like an extended family,” and “people seem to share a lot of themselves.”

5. Results

Table 1 reports correlations, means and standard deviations. Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki (2011) report similar inter-correlations between Competing Values Framework dimensions in their meta-analysis. Harmon’s one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986), although relatively insensitive to common method variance, showed the first factor accounted for 18.03% of the total variance. This is less than the 20% cut-off.

Table 1: Study Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations (N = 518)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1 nAch	3.25	.55	.80					
2 nAff	3.21	.70	.33***	.77				
3 nPow	3.12	.80	.50***	.38***	.76			
4 nAut	3.36	.76	-.08	-.61***	-.13**	.81		
5 Mastery-approach	3.80	.88	.48***	.39***	.40***	-.19***	.88	
6 Performance-approach	3.48	.95	.46***	.31***	.38***	-.11**	.48***	.83
7 Create culture	3.80	.67	.37***	.30***	.36***	-.09*	.46***	.29***
8 Compete culture	3.43	.83	.39***	.32***	.42***	-.16***	.31***	.34***
9 Collaborate culture	4.19	.60	.21***	.23***	.13**	-.07	.31***	.28***
	7	8	9					
7 Create culture	.85							
8 Compete culture	.54***	.88						
9 Collaborate culture	.54***	.25***	.82					

Cronbach’s Alpha is on the horizontal. *** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) in Mplus 7 revealed that the hypothesized 9-factor model yielded a fit of 2 (767, $N = 518$) = 1,512.54 ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .93, CFI = .94 and RMSEA = .04 (90% confidence interval is .04 – .05). These indices are better than the fit of (a) a 8-factor model where approach goal orientations were a combined factor 2 (776, $N = 518$) = 2,584.40 ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .82, CFI = .83 and RMSEA = .06 (90% confidence interval is .06 – .07), (b) a 7-factor model where compete, collaborate and create cultures were a combined factor, 2 (788, $N = 518$) = 3005.62 ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .78, CFI = .79 and RMSEA = .07 (90% confidence interval is .07 – .08) and (c) a 1-factor model where all study variables were a combined factor; 2 (819, $N = 518$) = 7966.59 ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .31, CFI = .34 and RMSEA = .13 (90% confidence interval is .12 – .13). Although 2 for the 9-factor model was statistically significant, other fit indices showed acceptable fit to the data and parameter estimates (factor loadings) were all significant ($p \leq .001$) and ranged from .41 to .82.

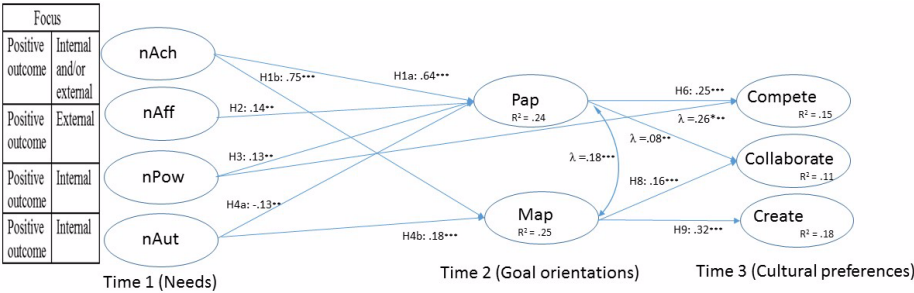


Figure 1. Structural equation model of the antecedents of cultural preferences^a

a $\chi^2 (16, N = 518) = 120.05$ ($p < .001$), TLI = .91, CFI = .92, and RMSEA = .07 (90% confidence interval is .05-.09).
*** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$.

Figure 1 shows the conceptual model that was tested in Mplus 7. The model adequately fit the data, $\chi^2 (16, N = 518) = 120.05$ ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .91, CFI = .92 and RMSEA = .07 (90% confidence interval is .05-.09) after a direct path was added between nPow and compete culture. Support for all hypotheses was found. Modification indices did not suggest adding additional paths. Parametric bootstrapping techniques were used to confirm the model. A model without the goal orientations as mediators (setting the effects on the mediator and from mediator to DV to zero) resulted in a relatively poor fit, $\chi^2 (19, N = 518) = 581.52$ ($p \leq .001$), TLI = .10, CFI = .41 and RMSEA = .24 (90% confidence interval is .22-.26).

6. Discussion

Entrepreneurship has been examined as a goal-setting process (e.g., Barbaca & Zekan, 2011, p. 339; Slotte-Kock & Coviello, 2010; Timmons, 1978). In contrast

to previous research on goals in entrepreneurship, we examined goal orientations. We found that individuals with a preference to start a business have goal orientations linked to cultural preferences. These preferences reflect ways of generating value in a firm. We also found that goal orientations were associated with basic psychological needs in hypothesized ways. The desire for an entrepreneur to create an environment congruent with his or her personal attributes may be why newly established firms often have goals, processes, structures and a culture that are “reflections of the particular characteristics (i.e., personality) of the founder” (Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995, p. 749).

Theoretical Contributions

People with self-employment aspirations and a high mastery-approach goal orientation (passion to learn and propensity to see mistakes as a necessary part of the process) were found to prefer a create culture. This finding is consistent with past research that reports that leaders in a create culture are effective when they are “visionary, innovative, and risk-oriented” (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 45). People with a performance-approach goal orientation reported preferring a compete culture, suggesting that they are inclined toward self-validation through identifying opportunities and methods of competing better and quicker. This finding is consistent with past research that reports that leaders of compete cultures are aggressive, decisive and view winning as a principal objective (Cameron & Quinn, 2006, p. 45). The external focus and focus on attaining positive outcomes of the performance-approach goal orientation corresponds well with the conceptualization of a compete culture as focused on winning market share and/or customers.

Both approach (mastery-approach and performance-approach) goal orientations were associated with a preference for a collaborative culture, where the person with start-up aspirations may view his or her employees as a means to facilitate the development of skills and competencies and also as an audience offering validation. A collaborate culture requires its leaders to orchestrate teamwork at the highest performance level (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). This is consistent with the notion that business creation commonly involves a team (Wright & Vanaelst, 2009).

Our findings build on Choo and Wong (2006) and Langan-Fox and Roth (1995), who suggest that there are numerous kinds of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs driven by intrinsic rewards in the Choo and Wong (2006) typology, and the need achiever entrepreneur in the Langan-Fox and Roth (1995) typology, correspond to the mastery-approach individuals in the present study. The strongest predictor of mastery-approach was nAch, but nAut also predicted mastery-approach. Choo and Wong (2006) and Rauch and Frese (2007) also found that nAut explains entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurs driven by extrinsic rewards in the Choo and Wong (2006) typology, the pragmatic entrepreneur in Langan-Fox and Roth (1995), correspond with performance-

approach individuals. Ramsay et al., (2017) noted that nPow is an important predictor of entrepreneurial behaviour. We found it did indeed contribute to the performance-approach driven entrepreneur.

Practical Contributions

A significant percent of the population has self-employment aspirations (Walstad, 1994; Withey & Schwartz, 2014). Numerous courses, programs and centers at universities target these people (Decker, Calo, & Weer, 2012; Kyndt & Baert, 2015) without fully understanding their goals and needs. Understanding goal orientations has practical value. This is because understanding a person's goal orientations can be used to improve both workplace performance (e.g., through transfer of training; Laine & Gegenfurtner, 2013) and individual achievement (e.g., through workplace satisfaction; Harris, Mowen, & Brown, 2005).

Simply setting goals and enhancing motivation for entrepreneurship may not be enough to facilitate entrepreneurial success. Rather, attention should be given to the goal orientations that individuals with self-employment aspirations possess and the cultures they prefer. Consistent with P-E fit theory (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) and with the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984), our results suggest that career counsellors can use goal orientations to meet entrepreneurs' preferences for work environments. For instance, potential fit can be determined through exercises that facilitate access to implicit and core values (see Baumann, Kaschel, & Kuhl, 2005; Baumann, Kuhl, & Kazen, 2005). Conversely, a feeling of dissatisfaction with a potential start-up culture and low commitment to a new business may indicate a poor fit (cf. Higgins, 2006; Meyer, Hecht, Gill, & Toplonysky, 2010).

An awareness of start-up fit can also help people with self-employment intent to anticipate their strengths and weaknesses with respect to a new venture and determine the potential suitability of new employees or a business partner. For instance, people with self-employment aspirations may consider assembling a top management team with members that complement each other's skills and resources, e.g., a mastery-approach entrepreneur with a creative solution to a problem may benefit from a performance-approach cofounder who is concerned with being competitive in the market place. Common ground can be found when creating a collaborative culture because it matches the preferences of both individuals. Moreover, due to the differing goal orientations of members of a founding team, people with self-employment aspirations could also anticipate conflict in terms of goals (e.g., focus on processes versus outcomes and quality of engagement in the new business).

Educators who seek to shape well-rounded entrepreneurs and leaders should attend to the purposes for engagement in entrepreneurship, natural predispositions in goal orientations and fortifying against poor P-E fit when needed. For instance, as organizations grow and products/services progress through their natural life cycle, there may be benefits to fortifying all goal

orientations. This recommendation is consistent with Button et al., (1996; see also Nicholls, Cobb, Yackel, Wood, & Wheatley, 1989) who state that while goal orientations are relatively stable, a person can be influenced to display a different goal orientation according to situational and contextual requirements.

One approach of increasing a mastery-approach orientation, and a preference for a create culture, is to simply encourage cognitions that practice and effort lead to learning, failure reflects a need to practice more and try new strategies rather than a stable lack of ability, and mistakes are learning opportunities (Rusk & Rothbaum, 2010). Situational cues that emphasize self-referenced improvement and errors as learning opportunities may induce a mastery-approach orientation and a preference for a create culture, whereas cues that emphasize the need to demonstrate competence and the avoidance of errors may induce a performance orientation and a preference for a compete value proposition (cf. Button et al., 1996; Kozlowski & Bell, 2006).

A mastery-approach goal orientation is associated with self-regulation. Fust et al., (2018) suggest an approach to developing self-regulation for entrepreneurs that may enhance students' mastery-approach goal orientation. They suggest using modeling and scaffolding of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies and using lean start-up or business model canvas tools particularly during opportunity identification and exploitation. They outline a learning environment where students were not only able to better self-monitor and self-reflect on their learning but also deliberately develop their learning capabilities to become more effective learners and more successful entrepreneurs.

Past research suggests that when the entrepreneur fits with the new business start-up's culture, (s)he is more likely to be both effective and satisfied (Duffy, Autin, & Bott. 2015; Higgins, 2006). In the entrepreneurship literature, there is increasing recognition of the importance of these two outcomes (Omerzel, & Kušce, 2013; Reijonen & Komppula, 2007), especially in the stormy first years of a new business. However, it is often taken for granted that "the goals that are set by entrepreneurs and are related to their personal characteristics have a significant impact on the dynamism of the entrepreneur" (Omerzel & Kušce, 2013, p. 921).

Limitations and Future Research

This study has six limitations. First, this study relied on a theory-driven matching of relatively stable psychological human needs influencing human motives and ultimately individual preferences. The needs-motives-preferences causal link has been well established in several fields (e.g., Sacco, Young, & Hugenberg, 2014), including in the career choice literature (Rodrigues, Guest, & Budjanovacinin, 2013). Nonetheless, longitudinal research is needed to establish causality in the model tested in this study. Second, social desirability bias may be a concern. To reduce social desirability bias we used anonymous mass self-administration, randomized survey questions and asked questions unlikely to stimulate a defense mechanism (Nederhof, 1985). Furthermore, a social desirability measure

(Reynolds, 1982) indicated relatively low social desirability bias after four outliers were removed. Third, common method variance is a concern. We mitigated it by breaking the survey into three waves to interrupt the flow of answering, reduce tiredness and boredom and make it less likely that responses were guided by a cognitive mastery-approach (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Fourth, although we assured respondent anonymity and confidentiality to enhance honesty, the use of self-report methodology may be a limitation. However, Fox and Spector (1999) suggest our methodology is appropriate because (a) respondents had the most accurate information regarding their cognitions and aspirations and (b) indirect measures may not fully capture respondents' cognitions and aspirations. Fifth, participants were instructed to think about their preferred work environment. Further research is needed to show how cultural preference is relevant to actual entrepreneur satisfaction and engagement upon business creation. Sixth, our sample consisted of individuals who reported a preference for starting a business, if they had an option. However, needs and goals are likely insufficient for the success of entrepreneurial activities. Social and situational factors are also important to the role of the entrepreneurial process. Moreover, entrepreneurship does not necessarily require the creation of a new organization, e.g., it can occur within an existing organization (Amit, Glosten, & Mueller, 1993). Future studies should capture the fact that entrepreneurship is a multistage process and that entrepreneurial needs are just one component of the process.

Better P-E fit generally leads to better objective (e.g., promotion and salary) and subjective (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement and job performance) appraisals of career success (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Erford & Crockett, 2012; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). However, maintaining P-E fit may be an ongoing challenge. Not only does the culture of the firm change over the business life cycle (Fisher, Kotha, & Lahiri, 2016), but also the rewards to the founder change (Carter, 2011). When a firm is initially established, the create culture may be most appropriate because being responsive to opportunities is most valuable. However, as the firm grows being more competitively aggressive may be appropriate to respond to competitive threats (cf. Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). Future research should examine how goal orientation training may help facilitate P-E fit during changes to organizational culture. Future research may also consider the possibility that as certain needs are met by a founder, they may no longer motivate (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Conclusion

Many instructors know and teach their students about the role of founder(s) for setting hallmarks for culture. But, very little is known about the theory behind this. Our findings support the theoretical argument that cultural preference is based on the potential founder's desire to achieve P-E fit. Consistent with P-E fit theory, we proposed and found that the goal orientations of people with start-up

aspirations were associated with basic psychological needs and appeared to predict business culture preferences. Moreover, people with start-up aspirations have different goals in mind and this may help explain why different people recognize and exploit different entrepreneurial opportunities.

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