

Cultural influences on the gender gap in entrepreneurship: Social hierarchy and tradition.

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Abstract

Purpose – This study examines the impact of social hierarchy and traditions on the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention, providing insights for designing culturally tailored policies to reduce this gap.

Design/methodology/approach – Data from 352 business students across seven culturally diverse countries, including Mediterranean nations (Spain, Italy, Morocco) and South American nations (Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Uruguay), were analyzed. Entrepreneurial intention was examined through Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), with Hofstede's power distance and long-term orientation serving as key indicators of their impact on the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention. Analysis was conducted using the partial least squares (PLS) algorithm with SMART-PLS software.

Findings – Power distance negatively and significantly moderates the relationship between the gender gap and entrepreneurial intention, while long-term orientation positively and significantly moderates this relationship.

Results indicate that the gender gap in entrepreneurship is smaller in highly hierarchical and traditional societies.

Practical implications – Policies to reduce the gender gap in entrepreneurship should be culturally tailored rather than universally applied. In egalitarian societies, measures should focus on work-life balance and economic incentives, while hierarchical societies should prioritize eliminating gender stereotypes and structural barriers. Long-term oriented societies should enhance women's access to financial resources, whereas

shortterm oriented societies should emphasize entrepreneurial training and education to leverage women's adaptability and opportunity recognition skills.

Originality/value – This study contributes to the entrepreneurship literature by demonstrating how hierarchical structures and cultural traditions shape entrepreneurial opportunities based on gender, reinforcing the need for context-specific policy interventions.

Keywords Gender gap, Entrepreneurship, National culture, Social hierarchy, Tradition, Equality policies

1. Introduction

Although female entrepreneurship has grown in recent decades, it remains a minority phenomenon in most countries, limiting economic development and increasing gender inequality (OECD-GWEP, 2021). This gap is driven by economic, social, and cultural barriers that restrict women's access to entrepreneurship (GEM, 2024). Various approaches have been used to analyze this issue, including institutional and economic contexts (GEM, 2023; Dheer et al., 2019), public policies and access to financing (Henry et al., 2022), individual motivation (Jafari-Sadeghi, 2020), and entrepreneurial intention. The latter is considered a key factor in understanding gender disparities in business creation (Santos et al., 2016; Shinnar et al., 2012; Wilson et al., 2007).

Factors such as perceived desirability, feasibility, social support, and self-efficacy play a crucial role in shaping entrepreneurial intentions across genders (Hamdani et al., 2023; Jalil et al., 2023). Numerous studies have shown that men tend to exhibit higher entrepreneurial intentions than women (Díaz-García & Jiménez-Moreno, 2010), partly due to lower risk propensity and weaker perceptions of self-efficacy among women (Wilson et al., 2007). These gender differences are closely linked to stereotypes, social roles, and implicit barriers that limit women's access to leadership positions and entrepreneurial activities (Liñán et al., 2024; Malmström et al., 2017; Miranda et al., 2017; Sweida & Reichard, 2013). Cultural constraints—such as gender role expectations, male-dominated networks, and family-related responsibilities—further compound these barriers (Wiig et al., 2023), especially in contexts where entrepreneurship is predominantly associated with masculine traits (Liñán et al., 2024). To address these inequalities, some scholars advocate for a comprehensive approach that considers both formal institutional structures and informal gender-biased norms (Borger et al., 2025; Raza et al., 2024). Cultural context also plays a decisive role in shaping women's

entrepreneurial behavior, as family influences, education, and social norms strongly condition decision-making processes (Gaur et al., 2023; GEM, 2023; Lopes et al., 2023). In certain settings, perceived legitimacy and the structure of equality–inequality may further influence women’s involvement in entrepreneurship (Hashim, 2023; Liu et al., 2019; Martínez Dy, 2020). However, the specific role of social hierarchy and tradition in shaping gender disparities remains insufficiently explored, despite evidence of their influence in reinforcing structural barriers—particularly among women with limited access to education, professional networks, or leadership roles (Borger et al., 2025; Costa et al., 2001; Khan et al., 2024; Ridgeway, 2001).

This study explores how cultural dimensions—specifically power distance (social hierarchy) and long-term orientation (tradition)—influence gender disparities in entrepreneurial intention. It posits that these cultural factors shape the differences between men and women in their propensity to pursue entrepreneurship, and that such disparities persist across diverse sociocultural contexts, regardless of geographical proximity. To deepen this understanding, the study addresses the following research question: How do cultural dimensions such as power distance and long-term orientation moderate the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention? In response, it sets out two main objectives: first, to analyze the moderating effect of these cultural dimensions on the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intention; and second, to determine whether these effects vary across countries with differing levels of hierarchy and traditionalism. Identifying these mechanisms may inform the development of culturally tailored public policies aimed at narrowing the entrepreneurial gender gap.

To achieve this, the study applies Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) [1] (Ajzen, 1991), which has been widely used in research on entrepreneurial intention (Liñán & Chen, 2009). The cultural framework is based on Hofstede’s model of national cultural

dimensions, which has been employed in previous studies to assess cross-country cultural differences (Hofstede, 2011). These dimensions have been analyzed as both direct antecedents of entrepreneurial intention (Liñán et al., 2011) and moderators of the relationship between intention and entrepreneurial action (Bogatyreva et al., 2019).

This research is based on a sample of 352 business students from universities and business schools in seven culturally diverse countries. The selection includes Mediterranean countries such as Spain, Italy, and Morocco, as well as South American countries such as Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, and Uruguay. These regions were selected due to their diverse sociocultural influences on gender roles and entrepreneurship, offering a broader comparative framework beyond the traditionally studied Anglo-Saxon contexts. This study expands the literature on the cultural influence on entrepreneurship, responds to recent calls to examine gender biases in entrepreneurial models across different contexts (Henry et al., 2021), and contributes to discussions on the effectiveness of entrepreneurship policies considering cultural influences in shaping gender inequalities (Arshed et al., 2014).

2. Theory and hypotheses

2.1. Entrepreneurial gender gap

Globally, one in six women intend to start a business compared to one in five men (GEM, 2023). In the European Union, female entrepreneurs represent 10% of active women, while male entrepreneurs exceed 19% (Miranda *et al.*, 2017). Traditionally, the gender gap in entrepreneurship has been linked to economic development, with lower-income countries showing greater gender parity than high-income nations (GEM, 2021). However, socio-psychological and cultural factors also play a significant role in gender disparities in entrepreneurship (Shane, 1992). Men generally exhibit greater risk-taking,

higher self-efficacy, and perceive less need for entrepreneurial education, influenced by gender stereotypes (Wilson *et al.*, 2007). These stereotypes act as barriers, restricting women's entrepreneurial opportunities and reinforcing gender disparities (Henry *et al.*, 2016; Sweida and Reichard, 2013). Beyond individual attitudes, gender biases in society further limit female entrepreneurship by reducing access to high-growth sectors, exacerbating economic crises' impact on women, and restricting financial support (Malmström *et al.*, 2017). Additional challenges include work-life balance, patriarchal societal norms, and discrimination (Baughn *et al.*, 2006), alongside structural barriers such as inadequate infrastructure, unfavorable policies (Henry *et al.*, 2022), and limited entrepreneurial training (Panda, 2018).

2.2. Gender and entrepreneurial intention

Among the models most commonly used to analyze entrepreneurial intention, Shapero's Theory of the Entrepreneurial Event (Shapero and Sokol, 1982) and Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) are widely recognized. TPB establishes a strong link between intention and actual behavior and has been extensively applied in research on entrepreneurial intention (Liñán and Chen, 2009). It is built on three key antecedents: attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioral control, and social norms (Ajzen, 1991). A stronger favorable attitude, supportive social norms, and high perceived behavioral control increase entrepreneurial intention (Ajzen, 1991).

Attitude toward entrepreneurship reflects an individual's inclination to create value through entrepreneurial behavior. Studies suggest that women exhibit lower entrepreneurial attraction than men (Shaver *et al.*, 2001) due to the perception of entrepreneurship as male-dominated, unfavorable stereotypes, and challenges in balancing work and family life (Wincent and Örtqvist, 2009). Perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy relate to feelings of empowerment and the perceived ease of

becoming an entrepreneur (Liñán and Chen, 2009). Research indicates that men have a higher perceived self-efficacy in entrepreneurship (Langowitz and Minniti, 2007), to the extent that male entrepreneurs tend to exhibit greater narcissism than their female counterparts (Leonelli, 2022). In contrast, women are generally more risk-averse and less confident in their abilities (Panda, 2018).

Women often question their potential and are more likely than men to limit their career aspirations, doubt their skills, and report lower confidence in starting a business (GEM, 2023). They also experience the "imposter phenomenon," attributing success to external factors rather than personal competence (Sanford *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, some authors suggest that women perceive a less supportive entrepreneurial environment than men (Langowitz & Minniti, 2007), partly due to the lack of female role models, which negatively influences their entrepreneurial attitudes.

Social norms shape perceptions of how entrepreneurship is viewed within an individual's immediate environment (Ajzen, 1991). Research shows that men and women are influenced differently by societal expectations, leading to gender differences in opportunity recognition (DeTienne and Chandler, 2007). Gender myths, social roles, and negative stereotypes persist, influencing how women entrepreneurs perceive and engage with entrepreneurship (Baron *et al.*, 2001). These biases continue to shape the entrepreneurial landscape, reinforcing systemic disparities.

While gender differences in entrepreneurial intention are partly explained by individual perceptions and social norms, these are deeply embedded in broader cultural contexts that shape, reinforce, or challenge gendered behaviors. The following section explores how national cultural dimensions influence entrepreneurial intention through the lens of gender, providing a macro-level perspective that complements the individual-level insights discussed above.

2.3. *Culture, gender and entrepreneurship*

Cultural contexts shape entrepreneurial behaviors by either reinforcing or discouraging them through a country's underlying value system, which influences individuals' perceptions of their entrepreneurial capacity (Díaz-García and Jiménez-Moreno, 2010). Beyond values, other factors such as behavioral codes, social norms, and traditions also influence entrepreneurial intention (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede (2001) developed a widely used model to measure cultural differences across countries based on six dimensions: individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, indulgence versus restraint, long-term orientation, and power distance. Since then, these cultural dimensions have been applied in various fields, including entrepreneurship (Dheer *et al.*, 2019; Shinnar *et al.*, 2012). This study focuses on the dimensions of power distance and long-term orientation, as they reflect the hierarchical structures and traditions embedded within each society (Hofstede, 2011). However, it is also relevant to briefly examine other cultural dimensions that have been explored in relation to the gender gap in entrepreneurship, as prior literature suggests that cultural values interact in complex ways with entrepreneurial behavior. For instance, the relationship between individualism–collectivism and entrepreneurship varies by context: individualism may foster autonomy and personal reward (Hayton *et al.*, 2002; Wennberg *et al.*, 2013), but its impact often depends on a country's level of economic development (Achim *et al.*, 2021; Kara *et al.*, 2023; Pinillos and Reyes, 2011) and individual-level orientations (Klein *et al.*, 2024). In terms of gender, individualist values such as self-determination tend to legitimize women's choices and are associated with higher levels of female employment and education (Davis and Williamson, 2019). Similarly, the Masculinity–Femininity dimension captures important contrasts between cultures oriented toward achievement and competition (masculine) and those emphasizing cooperation and quality of life

(feminine) (Hofstede, 2011). Masculine societies have traditionally shown higher levels of entrepreneurship due to the promotion of traits such as autonomy and proactivity (Ozgen, 2012; Shinnar *et al.*, 2012), although feminine societies in high-income countries may better support entrepreneurial activity, particularly for women (Achim *et al.*, 2021; Liñán *et al.*, 2024). While male-dominated cultural models have been associated with wider gender gaps (Huggins & Thompson, 2012), some studies suggest that masculinity-driven cultures can paradoxically promote female entrepreneurship by fostering autonomy and work-life flexibility (Dheer *et al.*, 2019). At the same time, other research finds no significant correlation between masculinity and gender disparities in entrepreneurship (Gawel *et al.*, 2023; Rubio-Bañón and Esteban-Lloret, 2016; Salis and Flegl, 2021), possibly due to a shift in modern societies where the stereotypical masculine entrepreneurial profile is fading (Mueller and Conway Dato-on, 2013), and feminine traits such as social responsibility are increasingly valued (Achim *et al.*, 2021). The dimension of uncertainty avoidance adds further complexity: while low uncertainty avoidance is often linked to greater entrepreneurial activity due to increased risk tolerance (Hayton *et al.*, 2002; Shinnar *et al.*, 2012), high uncertainty avoidance can also encourage entrepreneurship, particularly among women seeking control over their economic futures in insecure labor markets (Hechavarría *et al.*, 2024; Salis and Flegl, 2021; Wennekers *et al.*, 2007). Contextual factors such as industry, technological development, and national income level also shape this relationship (Achim *et al.*, 2021). Lastly, the indulgence–restraint dimension, which reflects the balance between human gratification and social regulation, has shown an ambiguous connection to entrepreneurship. Some studies associate restraint with higher entrepreneurial intention, especially in wealthier countries (Achim *et al.*, 2021; Alvarez *et al.*, 2024; Urban and Ratsimanetrimanana, 2015), and there is also evidence that stricter social norms can reduce the gender gap in

entrepreneurial activity (Cardella *et al.*, 2023; Lopes *et al.*, 2023). Taken together, these findings highlight the multifaceted ways in which different cultural dimensions intersect with both entrepreneurship and gender, reinforcing the importance of culturally informed analyses and policies.

2.3.1. The moderating effect of hierarchy and tradition in the relation between gender and entrepreneurial intention

Social hierarchy and tradition correspond to the cultural dimensions of power distance and long-term orientation, respectively (Hofstede, 2011). Power distance reflects the extent to which less powerful members of society accept unequal distributions of power and wealth¹, with higher values indicating rigid hierarchies that require no social justification (Hofstede, 2011). The link between power distance and the gender gap in entrepreneurship remains underexplored, with existing research offering mixed findings.

Some studies suggest that entrepreneurial activity is higher in countries with low power distance, where autonomy and innovation are encouraged (Hayton *et al.*, 2002). Conversely, high power distance may limit access to entrepreneurial resources and inhibit innovation (Shane, 1992). This could imply that greater power distance correlates with a wider gender gap in entrepreneurship, as centralized authority and resistance to social change restrict opportunities for women. Male-dominated networks in hierarchical societies may discourage female entrepreneurship or push women into low-growth sectors. In such contexts, gender stereotypes, social roles, and implicit barriers significantly limit women's access to leadership and entrepreneurship, as rigid hierarchies legitimize male dominance and perpetuate structural inequalities (Khan *et al.*, 2024; Ridgeway, 2001). Traditional norms in these societies often assign women caregiving

¹ This dimension also manifests in family, educational, and workplace settings, where authority is rarely questioned or challenged (Hofstede, 2011).

roles, thereby reducing their participation in influential networks and limiting their visibility within the entrepreneurial ecosystem (Liñán *et al.*, 2024; Wiig *et al.*, 2023). Under these conditions, entrepreneurship continues to be associated with masculine stereotypes, undermining women's perceived legitimacy as entrepreneurs (Miranda *et al.*, 2017; Sweida & Reichard, 2013). These stereotypes act as barriers that reinforce the gender gap by limiting women's access to high-growth sectors and financial resources (Henry *et al.*, 2016; Malmström *et al.*, 2017).

However, recent research suggests that high power distance can, in certain contexts, encourage female entrepreneurship as a pathway to autonomy and economic independence. In highly hierarchical societies, women may leverage social networks and alternative resources to circumvent institutional barriers and develop their ventures (Bastian *et al.*, 2023; Wiig *et al.*, 2023). This strategy enables them to gain control over their businesses and enhance their social standing (Achim *et al.*, 2021; Bianchi & Salvatore, 2020). Salis & Flegl (2021) argue that low power distance does not necessarily guarantee a narrower gender gap, and in some traditionally hierarchical countries, no significant differences in entrepreneurial intention between men and women have been observed (Qasim *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, digitalization in recent years has expanded opportunities for women, enabling greater access to dynamic sectors and partially closing existing gaps (Gharagozloo *et al.*, 2023). Therefore we hypothesize that:

HYPOTHESIS H1: High power distance decreases the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention.

Long-term orientation reflects how societies balance maintaining traditions with adapting to future challenges (Hofstede *et al.*, 2008). Cultures with a high long-term orientation tend to prioritize pragmatism and strategic planning, while those with a low orientation are more likely to hold onto traditional values. The literature generally supports the idea

that long-term orientation fosters entrepreneurship, as it promotes future planning and recognizes that business success requires time to build partnerships and stability (Bogatyreva *et al.*, 2019; Le Breton–Miller & Miller, 2006). Several studies also suggest that such cultures typically exhibit narrower gender gaps in entrepreneurship, arguing that pragmatic attitudes encourage broader economic participation (Salis & Flegl, 2021). In these contexts, factors such as education, discipline, and family support help foster entrepreneurial intentions among women by legitimizing their economic role within the social fabric (Gaur *et al.*, 2023). Moreover, long-term oriented societies tend to reduce uncertainty through foresight, allowing women to plan their entrepreneurial careers with greater institutional backing (Lopes *et al.*, 2023).

However, one of the defining features of long-term oriented cultures—the promotion of saving and austerity as a means to accumulate capital for entrepreneurial investment—raises important challenges (Hofstede, 2011). The issue lies in the fact that access to these financial resources is often more favorable to men, reinforcing gender inequalities (Malmström *et al.*, 2017). These disparities often stem from gender stereotypes and institutional barriers, particularly in contexts where women have traditionally been excluded from economic decision-making (Hofstede, 2011). In long-term oriented societies, conservative values tend to assign rigid roles to men and women, limiting women’s entrepreneurial aspirations and legitimizing unequal access to resources (Costa *et al.*, 2001). Deviation from established gender roles is often penalized, making it harder for women to access dynamic sectors or obtain financing (Borger *et al.*, 2025; Malmström *et al.*, 2017). Gender stereotypes serve as persistent barriers that constrain their opportunities and reinforce structural inequality (Henry *et al.*, 2016; Sweida & Reichard, 2013), while institutional biases reduce their presence in high-growth sectors and worsen the economic impact of crises on women (Malmström *et al.*, 2017). As such, cultural

traditions not only influence women's entrepreneurial decisions (Gaur *et al.*, 2023), but also perpetuate myths that continue to associate entrepreneurship with masculine traits, making it more difficult for women to participate and be recognized on equal terms (Liñán *et al.*, 2024; Miranda *et al.*, 2017).

By contrast, short-term oriented cultures value immediate results and tend to promote entrepreneurship when favorable conditions arise or urgent needs must be met (Hofstede, 2001; Sarasvathy, 2001). In such settings, self-confidence and opportunity recognition play a key role, and studies have shown that women identify business opportunities more frequently than men. For instance, in Angola—one of the most short-term oriented countries in the world—women report higher levels of entrepreneurial self-confidence than men (GEM, 2021), possibly due to their historical role as short-term income generators and their ability to adapt to unstable economic environments (Quagraine *et al.*, 2020). All of this leads us to propose the following hypothesis:

HYPOTHESIS H2: The long-term orientation of a society increases the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention.

Based on the theoretical arguments and hypotheses presented above, we propose the conceptual framework illustrated in Figure 1.

[INSERT FIGURE 1 HERE]

3. Research methodology

3.1. Sample and Data Sources

This study is based on data collected through surveys administered to 352 business students enrolled in universities and business schools across seven culturally diverse countries. The sample size aligns with other cross-cultural research on entrepreneurship

(Liñán & Chen, 2009; Santos *et al.*, 2016; Shinnar *et al.*, 2012), as well as comparable studies applying structural equation modeling in entrepreneurial contexts (Falaras & Moschidis, 2024; Hamdani *et al.*, 2023; Qasim *et al.*, 2023). Data were gathered using questionnaires, a method widely adopted in gender and entrepreneurship research (Passavanti *et al.*, 2023). The survey distribution was facilitated by international MBA students from a Spanish public university, who helped disseminate the instrument among business students in their home countries.

The sample includes Mediterranean countries—Spain (n=62), Italy (n=91), and Morocco (n=32)—and South American countries—Chile (n=48), Ecuador (n=34), Mexico (n=53), and Uruguay (n=32). These regions were selected due to their sociocultural diversity regarding gender roles and entrepreneurship, offering a broader comparative perspective beyond the traditionally studied Anglo-Saxon contexts (Passavanti *et al.*, 2023). According to Hofstede's cultural dimensions, the highest power distance scores—indicative of more hierarchical societies—were found in Mexico (81) and Ecuador (78), while the lowest was in Italy (50). Regarding long-term orientation, Spain and Chile (both 86) exhibited the highest scores, followed by Italy (75), whereas Morocco (14) was the most tradition-oriented society in the sample (Hofstede, 2024)².

3.2 Variables and Measures Instruments

The dependent variable in this study is entrepreneurial intention, measured through the Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire developed by Liñán *et al.* (2011). This questionnaire, widely used in entrepreneurship research, employs 7-point Likert scales (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) and has demonstrated high reliability. Its design builds on previous studies conducted by Liñán & Fayolle (2015), Rueda *et al.* (2015), and

² Hofstede's dimension country comparison. Available at <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison>.

Sahinidis *et al.* (2012). In line with the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991), the questionnaire jointly measures the three key constructs that determine entrepreneurial intention: attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioral control, and social norms. The specific items used to evaluate each construct can be found in the results section. Attitude reflects the individual's evaluation of entrepreneurship as a career option and is strongly associated with entrepreneurial intention (Liñán & Chen, 2009). However, research suggests that women often show lower attraction due to stereotypes and work-life balance barriers (Shaver *et al.*, 2001; Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). Perceived behavioral control, linked to self-efficacy, also shows gender disparities: men tend to report higher confidence, while women are generally more risk-averse (Langowitz & Minniti, 2007; Panda, 2018). Social norms, although less consistently influential, affect intention depending on the cultural and family environment (Ajzen, 2020; DeTienne & Chandler, 2007; Rueda *et al.*, 2015). The joint measurement of these constructs adheres to the original theoretical model and has been validated across multiple empirical studies (Liñán & Chen, 2009; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014).

The independent variable is gender, measured as a binary variable in which 1 represents male and 0 represents female respondents. As moderating variables, we included two of Hofstede's national cultural dimensions—power distance and long-term orientation—as they represent key aspects of hierarchy and tradition, respectively. Data for these dimensions were obtained from the Hofstede Insights Network (2024). Lastly, we incorporated commonly used control variables in entrepreneurial intention research, including age (Hayton *et al.*, 2002), educational level and socio-economic background (Newbery *et al.*, 2018), work experience (including both employment and self-employment), and the presence of entrepreneurial family members. Additionally, the three TPB constructs—attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioral control,

and social norms—were included again as controls using the validated scales from Liñán & Chen (2009).

3.3. Statistical Analysis

The sample is diverse in terms of gender, age, work experience, and education level, as shown in Table 1, which ensures broad representation of entrepreneurial perspectives.

[INSERT TABLE 1 HERE]

4. Results and analysis

4.1. Measurement Model

Statistical analysis was conducted using structural equation modeling (SEM) with Partial Least Squares (PLS-SEM) in Smart PLS 3.3. The model was validated through an iterative estimation process combining single and multiple regressions (Ringle *et al.*, 2005), allowing for distribution-free assumptions, as PLS-SEM does not require normality and avoids issues of indeterminacy. To assess the reflective measurement model, reliability, internal consistency, and validity were examined (Hair *et al.*, 2019). Table 2 confirms that all item loadings are significant at $p < 0.01$, Cronbach's α exceeds 0.9, and composite reliability is above 0.7 (Chin, 1998). Convergent validity, tested via Average Variance Extracted (AVE), meets the >0.5 threshold for all constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The analysis of both measurements indicates that the study demonstrates solid reliability and provides an accurate reflection of the target population.

[INSERT TABLE 2 HERE]

Discriminant validity was verified using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) criterion, ensuring the square root of AVE is greater than inter-construct correlations, and each item loads higher on its respective construct than on others. The Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT)

was also examined, meeting the threshold <0.85 with confidence intervals excluding 1 (Henseler, Hubona, & Ray, 2016). Results confirm strong psychometric properties across all constructs (Table 3).

[INSERT TABLE 3 HERE]

To evaluate model fit and minimize misspecification, the Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) was used (Henseler *et al.*, 2016). Table 4 shows SRMR values remain below 0.08, indicating a good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

4.2 Structural Model

Hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analysis, sequentially introducing variable sets into the PLS model to assess their explanatory effects and interactions. Given the correlation between Hofstede's cultural dimensions, they were estimated in separate models (Table 4). Bootstrapping (5000 subsamples) was applied to obtain standard errors and t-statistics (Chin, 1998).

[INSERT TABLE 4 HERE]

As shown in Table 4, Model 1 evaluates control variables, revealing a negative and significant relationship between entrepreneurial intention and the presence of entrepreneurs in the individual's close environment ($\beta = -0.151$, $p = 0.006$). Model 2 integrates Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), confirming its validity as all dimensions positively influence entrepreneurial intention: Attitude towards Entrepreneurship ($\beta = 0.296$, $p = 0.000$), Perceived Behavioral Control ($\beta = 0.461$, $p = 0.000$), and Social Norms ($\beta = 0.129$, $p = 0.022$). The hypotheses of our study are tested in Models 3 and 4.

Hypothesis 1 corresponds to Model 3, which introduces the moderating effect of power distance (social hierarchy), showing a negative and significant effect ($\beta = -0.061$, $p = 0.037$) on gender and entrepreneurial intention. This structural model explains 63.3% of the variance in Entrepreneurial Intention ($R^2 = 0.633$). A hypothesis testing was also conducted to examine the practical relevance of the significant effect by evaluating the effect size in the relationship between variables (H1: Mean = 0.045, SD = 0.023, t-value = 1.836, p-value = 0.033, $F^2 = 0.042$), resulting in a Weak Effect, as the F^2 value falls between 0.02 and 0.15 (Cohen, 1988). Thus, Hypothesis 1 is supported. Figure 2 illustrates the moderating effect of social hierarchy, showing that high power distance decreases the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention.

[INSERT FIGURE 2 HERE]

Model 4 examines the moderating effect of long-term orientation (cultural tradition), revealing a positive and significant influence ($\beta = 0.079$, $p = 0.028$) on gender and entrepreneurial intention. This model explains 63.7% of the variance ($R^2 = 0.637$), with a Weak Effect size (H2: Mean = 0.060, SD = 0.031, t-value = 1.779, p-value = 0.038, $F^2 = 0.055$). Thus, Hypothesis 2 is also supported. Figure 3 shows the moderating effect of cultural tradition, indicating that the long-term orientation of a society increases the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention.

[INSERT FIGURE 3 HERE]

The results support the study's objectives by confirming that both power distance and long-term orientation significantly moderate the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intention. These findings validate the proposed hypotheses and demonstrate how cultural dimensions shape gender disparities in entrepreneurship across different contexts.

5. Discussion

Recent literature highlights that gender differences in entrepreneurial intention are influenced by factors such as perceived desirability, self-efficacy, and social support (Hamdani *et al.*, 2023; Jalil *et al.*, 2023). Men tend to report higher entrepreneurial intention, which is partly attributed to greater risk tolerance and confidence in their capabilities (Díaz-García & Jiménez-Moreno, 2010; Wilson *et al.*, 2007). These disparities are further reinforced by gender stereotypes, traditional roles, and the association of entrepreneurship with masculine traits (Liñán *et al.*, 2024; Malmström *et al.*, 2017; Miranda *et al.*, 2017; Sweida & Reichard, 2013), as well as by male-dominated networks and caregiving responsibilities (Gaur *et al.*, 2023; Lopes *et al.*, 2023; Wiig *et al.*, 2023). However, such differences vary across countries and cannot be explained solely by economic development (Achim *et al.*, 2021; GEM, 2023). Cultural norms shape perceptions of legitimacy (Liu *et al.*, 2019), reinforce social status and power structures (Martinez Dy, 2020), and influence the institutional context that governs entrepreneurial behavior (Henry *et al.*, 2022).

A growing body of research has sparked extensive debate regarding the role of certain Hofstede cultural dimensions in shaping the gender gap in entrepreneurship, including individualism (Davis & Williamson, 2019), masculinity (Dheer *et al.*, 2019; Gawel *et al.*, 2023), uncertainty avoidance, and indulgence–restraint (Alvarez *et al.*, 2024; Cardella *et al.*, 2023; Lopes *et al.*, 2023). Nevertheless, the specific influence of power distance (linked to social hierarchy) and long-term orientation (associated with tradition) on the entrepreneurial gender gap remains underexplored. Several scholars have called for further investigation in this area (Borger *et al.*, 2025; Costa *et al.*, 2001; Khan *et al.*, 2024; Ridgeway, 2001). This study aims to address that gap by providing new insights into how these cultural dimensions shape gender inequalities in entrepreneurship.

Regarding hierarchy, the significant and negative influence of the power distance dimension supports our hypothesis that high social hierarchy may reduce the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention. In our sample, Mexico and Ecuador show the highest levels of power distance, while Spain and Italy stand out as the least hierarchical societies (Hofstede, 2024). These findings help explain seemingly counterintuitive phenomena, such as the fact that Latin America reports the highest rate of Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) among women³, while Italy presents one of the widest gender gaps (GEM, 2021). Our results are consistent with studies suggesting that in highly hierarchical contexts, elevated power distance can promote female entrepreneurship by providing a path toward autonomy and improved social status. In such environments, shaped by gender stereotypes, traditional roles, and male-dominated networks, women face barriers that restrict their participation and leadership (Henry *et al.*, 2016; Khan *et al.*, 2024; Liñán *et al.*, 2024; Malmström *et al.*, 2017; Miranda *et al.*, 2017; Ridgeway, 2001; Sweida & Reichard, 2013; Wiig *et al.*, 2023). Nonetheless, we suggest that women may overcome these obstacles, possibly through the strategic use of social networks and alternative resources, which enables them to consolidate their entrepreneurial initiatives even in institutionally adverse contexts (Bastian *et al.*, 2023; Bianchi & Salvatore, 2020; Thurik & Dejardin, 2012; Treviño *et al.*, 2018).

Concerning the influence of tradition, the positive and significant moderating effect of long-term orientation on the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intention supports our hypothesis that societies with a strong focus on long-term planning exhibit a wider gender gap. Among the countries in our study, Italy has the highest long-term orientation score, while Mexico and Morocco are at the lower end of the spectrum

³ This may reflect both opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurship, given the lower stability of formal employment in many countries in the región.

(Hofstede, 2024). Long-term oriented cultures emphasize patience, strategic planning, and financial prudence (Le Breton–Miller & Miller, 2006), encouraging a preference for saving and long-term investment (Hofstede, 2011). However, these financial resources are more accessible to men than to women due to factors such as wage inequality and restricted financial inclusion (Henry *et al.*, 2022; Malmström *et al.*, 2017). This is likely because traditional values tend to reinforce rigid gender roles, limiting women’s entrepreneurial aspirations and legitimizing their unequal access to key resources (Borger *et al.*, 2025; Costa *et al.*, 2001; Malmström *et al.*, 2017). Persistent stereotypes and institutional biases further hinder women’s entry into dynamic sectors and increase their economic vulnerability (Henry *et al.*, 2016; Sweida & Reichard, 2013). In contrast, short-term oriented societies prioritize immediate gains and tend to promote entrepreneurial activity when favorable conditions arise (Sarasvathy, 2001). In these contexts, women—who often excel at identifying entrepreneurial opportunities—may start businesses on more equal footing with men. For example, in Morocco, a highly short-term oriented country, women report strong entrepreneurial intentions and confidence in their ability to create businesses (GEM, 2021). Additionally, in short-term oriented societies, women have historically adapted to economic fluctuations through flexible employment or entrepreneurial initiatives, especially during periods of crisis or uncertainty, such as the COVID-19 pandemic (GEM, 2021).

5.1 Theoretical contribution

The study's findings offer a cultural perspective on the gender gap in entrepreneurship, highlighting the role of hierarchy and tradition—factors that have been largely underexplored to date. The study also integrates Ajzen’s Theory of Planned Behavior with Hofstede’s cultural framework, providing a theoretical contribution that bridges micro-level models of entrepreneurial intention with macro-level cultural variables.

While previous research has emphasized economic development as the main explanation for the gender gap (Achim *et al.*, 2021; Hechavarría *et al.*, 2024), global studies on female entrepreneurship continue to reveal paradoxes and inconsistencies that economic approaches alone cannot fully explain (GEM, 2023; GEM, 2024). Regarding the cultural perspective, scholarly debate has emerged around the role of certain Hofstede dimensions, particularly individualism (Davis & Williamson, 2019), masculinity (Dheer *et al.*, 2019; Gawel *et al.*, 2023), uncertainty avoidance, and indulgence–restraint (Alvarez *et al.*, 2024; Cardella *et al.*, 2023; Lopes *et al.*, 2023), with less frequent focus on power distance and long-term orientation.

We find that in highly hierarchical and authoritarian societies, the gender gap in entrepreneurship is smaller—not necessarily because these societies facilitate women's entrepreneurial efforts, as women in these contexts often face cultural barriers such as restrictive gender roles, male-dominated networks, and expectations to prioritize family responsibilities (Shah *et al.*, 2025; Wiig *et al.*, 2023), but rather because structural inequalities may drive women toward entrepreneurship as a means of achieving independence, autonomy, and upward social mobility (Thurik & Dejardin, 2012; Treviño *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, in traditional societies, our findings suggest that short-term orientation reduces the gender gap in entrepreneurship. However, this is not because these societies offer inclusive entrepreneurial ecosystems for women (Borger *et al.*, 2025; Henry *et al.*, 2016; Malmström *et al.*, 2017), but rather because women in these environments tend to be especially skilled at recognizing business opportunities and adapting to dynamic conditions. Finally, our theoretical contributions regarding the cultural influence of hierarchy and tradition on women's entrepreneurial intentions may prove valuable in emerging debates about the role of digital technologies in mitigating these barriers—particularly among populations with a high perception of entrepreneurial

opportunities (Gharagozloo *et al.*, 2023; Mouazen & Hernández-Lara, 2023; Mousa *et al.*, 2024).

5.2. Practical implications

Our findings highlight the importance of designing public policies that are adapted to the sociocultural context in order to reduce the gender gap in entrepreneurship. Rather than applying one-size-fits-all strategies, we propose measures that align with the cultural characteristics of each society, as suggested by Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2011). This approach is consistent with studies that advocate for the contextualization of policies supporting female entrepreneurship, emphasizing that their effectiveness depends on how well they fit local realities (Bullough *et al.*, 2019; Karatas-Ozkan *et al.*, 2024; Martins *et al.*, 2024). Moreover, our work contributes a complementary perspective to recent research analyzing how institutional and cultural factors influence entrepreneurial activity (Diaz Tautiva *et al.*, 2023; Kara *et al.*, 2023;), and aligns with scholars who argue that only a deep understanding of gender dynamics can inform inclusive and effective interventions (Pereira *et al.*, 2024; Raza *et al.*, 2024).

In line with this, in egalitarian and less hierarchical societies, where power distribution is more equitable, policies should prioritize improving work-life balance (Guo & Zhu, 2023) and providing economic incentives for female entrepreneurs (Agrawal *et al.*, 2023), rather than promoting status enhancements, which may be less relevant in such contexts. Conversely, in highly hierarchical and authoritarian societies, characterized by a greater acceptance of structural inequalities, strategies should focus on eliminating gender stereotypes and institutional barriers that still limit women's access to entrepreneurial activity (Henry *et al.*, 2022).

In long-term oriented societies, where planning and financial stability are key, efforts should be made to improve women's access to financial resources (Kato, 2023) and social networks (Harrison *et al.*, 2024) that support business creation and help address the economic disparities hindering their participation in entrepreneurship. In contrast, in short-term oriented societies—where immediacy and adaptability to rapid change prevail—high-quality entrepreneurial training and education should be prioritized (Jiang *et al.*, 2023; Mousa *et al.*, 2024), leveraging women's ability to identify opportunities and drive innovation and business creation.

5.3. Limitations and future research opportunities

This study has several limitations. Although it includes culturally diverse countries, expanding the sample to additional regions would enhance the generalizability of the findings. Anglo-Saxon countries were deliberately excluded due to their overrepresentation in previous studies. Additionally, Ecuador was excluded from the analysis of long-term orientation due to a lack of data (Hofstede, 2024), highlighting the need for more comprehensive datasets in cross-cultural research.

Finally, adopting an intersectional approach that considers factors such as age, race, or geographic inequalities—beyond gender—could further illuminate the structural disparities that affect entrepreneurs across different demographic profiles.

6. Conclusions

This study offers new insights into the cultural factors that influence the gender gap in entrepreneurial intention, focusing specifically on the role of power distance (social hierarchy) and long-term orientation (tradition). By integrating Hofstede's cultural framework with Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior, the research adopts a multilevel perspective that reveals how macro-level cultural dimensions interact with individual-

level entrepreneurial intentions. The findings confirm that both power distance and long-term orientation significantly moderate the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intention, showing that highly hierarchical and long-term oriented societies tend to exhibit narrower gender gaps—though for different underlying reasons.

In hierarchical contexts, entrepreneurship can serve as a pathway to empowerment for women who navigate structural barriers. Conversely, in societies with strong long-term orientation, rigid traditional roles and unequal access to resources often exacerbate gender inequalities. These conclusions challenge the conventional assumption that social hierarchy uniformly hinders female entrepreneurship and underscore the importance of considering cultural context when designing policies aimed at promoting gender equality in entrepreneurship.

From a theoretical standpoint, this study expands the discourse on gender and entrepreneurship by emphasizing the impact of underexplored cultural variables. It provides empirical evidence on the differentiated effects of power distance (hierarchy) and long-term orientation (tradition), complementing previous research on individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and indulgence–restraint.

Practically, the findings underscore the need for culturally tailored public policies. In egalitarian societies, efforts should focus on improving work-life balance and offering economic incentives. In more hierarchical or traditional settings, strategies should prioritize dismantling gender stereotypes and expanding women’s access to resources and entrepreneurial networks. Furthermore, digital advancement may serve as a valuable tool for reducing gender gaps in entrepreneurial opportunity.

Future research should explore additional cultural dimensions and adopt intersectional approaches that account for variables such as age, race, and geographic inequality, thus

offering a more comprehensive understanding of the structural disparities that shape entrepreneurial engagement.

7. References

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Table 1. Sample description %

COUNTRY		Chile (n=48)	Ecuador (n=34)	Italy (n=91)	Mexico (n=53)	Morocco (n=32)	Spain (n=62)	Uruguay (n=32)	Total (n=352)
GENDER									
	Female	33.33	58.82	47.25	41.51	37.50	29.03	28.13	60.33
	Male	66.67	41.18	52.75	58.49	62.50	70.97	71.88	39.67
AGE									
	≤25	6.25	2.94	73.63	13.21	15.63	25.81	6.25	28.69
	26-30	20.83	82.35	18.68	47.17	37.50	11.29	37.50	31.53
	31-35	12.50	8.82	0.00	16.98	15.63	9.68	0.00	8.24
	36-39	8.33	2.94	1.10	15.09	21.88	6.45	0.00	7.1
	≥ 40	52.08	2.94	6.59	7.55	9.38	46.77	56.25	23.40
EDUCATION LEVEL									
	Basic education	4.17	0.00	1.10	1.89	0.00	9.68	0.00	2.84
	Baccalaureate or Voc. Training	33.33	8.82	24.18	5.66	9.38	25.81	28.13	20.45
	Dip. or Bachelor's Degree	35.42	73.53	51.65	64.15	34.38	45.16	37.50	49.43
	Postgraduate or Master's Degree	25.00	17.65	21.98	28.30	31.25	16.13	28.13	23.30
	PhD	2.08	0.00	1.10	0.00	25.00	3.23	6.25	3.98
SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUP									
	Low	0.00	0.00	3.30	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.85
	Lower-Middle	2.08	2.94	16.48	7.55	15.63	6.45	0.00	8.52
	Mediu	31.25	52.94	63.74	60.38	68.75	70.97	43.75	57.67
	Upper-Middle	58.33	44.12	14.29	28.30	12.50	22.58	46.88	29.55
	High	8.33	0.00	2.20	3.77	3.13	0.00	9.38	3.41
WORK EXPERIENCE (YEARS AS EMPLOYEE)									
	0	10.42	5.88	39.56	3.77	21.88	11.29	18.75	18.47
	≤5	20.83	52.94	49.45	30.19	34.38	20.97	18.75	33.81
	6-10	18.75	29.41	3.30	43.40	15.63	16.13	31.25	19.89
	11-20	27.08	11.76	4.40	18.87	25.00	22.58	9.38	15.91
	>20	22.92	0.00	3.30	3.77	3.13	29.03	21.88	11.93
EXPERIENCE AS A FREELANCER OR ENTREPRENEUR (YEARS)									
	0	52.08	52.94	87.91	73.58	81.25	70.97	21.88	67.90
	≤5	29.17	41.18	10.99	20.75	12.50	14.52	21.88	19.60
	6-10	14.58	2.94	0.00	1.89	3.13	6.45	9.38	4.83
	11-20	2.08	2.94	0.00	1.89	3.13	4.84	18.75	3.69
	>20	2.08	0.00	1.10	1.89	0.00	3.23	28.13	3.98
EXISTENCE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL RELATIVES IN THE FAMILY									
	Yes	79.17	91.18	43.96	46.88	81.13	79.03	90.63	69.60
	No	20.83	8.82	56.04	53.13	18.87	20.97	9.38	30.40

Source: Authors own work.

Table 2. Measurement scales and psychometric properties

Measurement items	Mean (S.D.)	Factor loadings
Entrepreneurial Intention ^a ($\alpha = 0.949$, AVE = 0.831, CR = 0.961)		
Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:		
I am ready to do anything to be an entrepreneur	4.35 (1.79)	0.859**
My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur	4.35 (1.86)	0.918**
I will make any effort to start up and run my own firm	4.68 (1.89)	0.926**
I am determined to create a firm in the future	4.53 (1.85)	0.931**
I have been thinking of starting up a firm very seriously	4.44 (1.87)	0.920**
Attitude Towards Entrepreneurship ^a ($\alpha = 0.937$, AVE = 0.802, CR = 0.953)		
Indicate your level of agreement with the following sentences:		
Being an entrepreneur has more advantages than disadvantages	4.57 (1.78)	0.765**
A career as entrepreneur is attractive	5.26 (1.79)	0.917**
If I had the opportunity and resources, I'd like to start up a firm	5.41 (1.86)	0.919**
Being an entrepreneur would be very satisfactory	5.29 (1.82)	0.932**
Among various options, I'd rather be an entrepreneur	5.14 (1.75)	0.933**
Perceived Behavioral Control ^a ($\alpha = 0.933$, AVE = 0.789, CR = 0.949)		
To what extent do you agree with the following statements regarding your entrepreneurial ability?		
To start up a firm and keep it in business would be easy for me	3.83 (1.74)	0.824**
I am prepared to start a viable firm	4.11 (1.86)	0.910**
I can control the start-up process of a new firm	4.23 (1.80)	0.934**
I know the necessary practical details to start up a firm	3.94 (1.82)	0.883**
If I tried to start up a firm, I would have a high chance of success	4.43 (1.69)	0.885**
Social Norms ^a ($\alpha = 0.918$, AVE = 0.859, CR = 0.948)		
If you decided to start up a firm, would people in your close environment approve that decision?		
Your close family	5.02 (1.86)	0.892**
Your friends	5.25 (1.61)	0.959**
Your colleagues / classmates	5.21 (1.59)	0.930**
Gender ^b		
Female or male	0.38 (0.49)	-
Age		
Number of years	34.52 (13.19)	-
Experience as self-employed ^c		
Have you ever been a self-employed?	2.69 (6.90)	-
Close entrepreneur ^d		
Has anyone in your family been an entrepreneur or has had a business of their own?	0.33 (0.47)	-
Work Experience (as employee) ^e		
What is your work experience (working for others)?	8.95 (10.35)	-
Education Level ^e		
What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?	3.05 (0.87)	-
Socio-economic group ^f		
Which social-economic group do you identify with regarding to your country?	3.25 (0.71)	-
Power distance ^g		
Hofstede's dimensions scale	61.61 (10.64)	-
Long Term Orientation ^g		
Hofstede's dimensions scale	39.52 (16.79)	-

^a Likert scale ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 7= strongly agree.

^b 0 = female; 1 = male.

^c Number of years (0 years = no experience)

^d 0 = yes; 1 = no.

^e Scale ranging : 1= Primary school, 2= High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent, 3= Bachelor's degree, 4 = Master's degree and 5= PhD/Doctorate degree.

^f Scale ranging : 1= Low, 2= Medium-low, 3= Medium, 4 = Medium-high and 5= High

^g Hofstede's dimensions scale, from 0= low value to 100 = high value

α = Cronbach's alpha. CR = composite reliability. AVE = average variance extracted. ** $p \leq 0.01$. * $p \leq 0.05$.

Source: Authors own work.

Table 3. Zero-order correlations and discriminant validity

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Entrepreneurial intention	0.912	0.701	0.762	0.576	0.046	0.073	0.041	0.142	0.116	0.070	0.032	0.379	0.321
2. Attitude Towards Entrepreneurship	0.667	0.896	0.670	0.642	0.090	0.085	0.048	0.058	0.073	0.079	0.009	0.329	0.283
3. Perceived Behavioral Control	0.718	0.629	0.888	0.535	0.048	0.032	0.087	0.133	0.028	0.047	0.104	0.308	0.224
4. Social Norms	0.540	0.596	0.494	0.927	0.097	0.063	0.053	0.148	0.067	0.122	0.102	0.406	0.346
5. Gender	0.001	-0.082	0.046	-0.092		0.076	0.042	0.029	0.017	0.020	0.110	0.029	0.072
6. Age	-0.071	-0.056	0.003	-0.062	-0.076		0.470	0.131	0.795	0.148	0.139	0.069	0.234
7. Experience as self-employee	0.032	-0.002	0.083	-0.053	-0.042	0.470		0.107	0.218	0.016	0.153	0.021	0.186
8. Closer entrepreneur	-0.139	-0.053	-0.128	-0.140	0.029	-0.131	-0.107		0.143	0.007	0.128	0.192	0.196
9. Work Experience (as employee)	-0.113	-0.048	-0.011	-0.066	-0.017	0.795	0.218	-0.143		0.214	0.117	0.122	0.190
10. Education level	0.068	0.077	0.040	0.117	-0.020	-0.148	0.016	-0.007	-0.214		0.022	0.158	0.196
11. Socio-economic group	0.021	-0.002	0.100	0.094	0.110	0.139	0.153	-0.128	0.117	0.022		0.140	0.223
12. Power distance	0.369	0.322	0.297	0.389	-0.029	0.069	0.021	-0.192	0.122	0.158	0.140		n.a
13. Long term orientation	-0.313	-0.274	-0.218	-0.332	0.072	-0.234	-0.186	0.196	-0.190	-0.196	-0.223	n.a.	

Note: The diagonal elements (in bold) are the values of the square root of the AVE. The values below the diagonal are the zero-order correlation coefficients. The elements above the diagonal are the values of HTMT ratio. n.a. = not

Source: Authors own work.

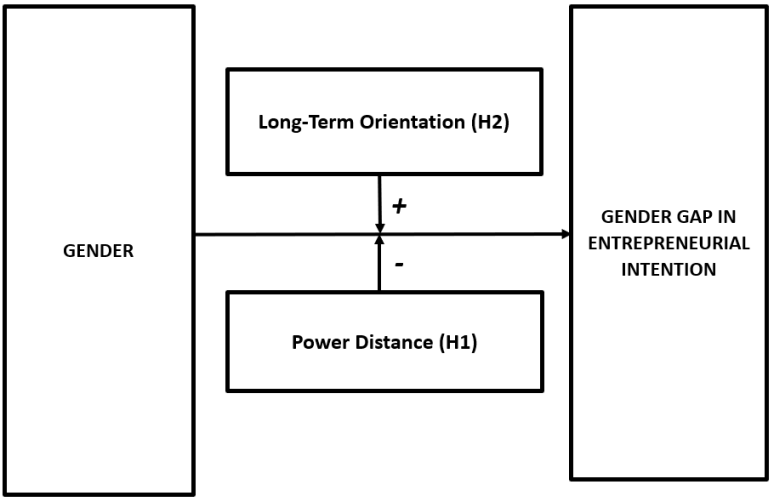
Table 4. Standardized regression coefficients of the testing model.

<i>Dependent variable: Entrepreneurial Intention</i>	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	0.006	0.024	0.025	0.027
<i>Control variables</i>				
Age	0.009	0.056	0.069	0.036
Experience as self-employee	0.042	0.005	0.010	-0.006
Closer entrepreneur	-0.151**	-0.063	-0.051	-0.054
Work Experience (as employee)	-0.150	-0.136*	-0.170**	-0.151*
Education Level	0.037	-0.009	-0.031	-0.041
Socio-economic group	0.008	-0.040	-0.053	-0.065
<i>TPB variables</i>				
Attitude Towards Entrepreneurship		0.296**	0.287**	0.279**
Perceived Behavioral Control		0.461**	0.445**	0.457**
Social Norms		0.129*	0.099	0.101
<i>Hypothesized relationships</i>				
Power Distance*Gender → Entrepreneurial Intention (H1)			-0.061*	
Long Term Orientation* Gender → Entrepreneurial Intention (H2)				0.079*
R ²	0.042	0.617	0.633	0.637
SRMR	0.030	0.040	0.039	0.039

Note: * $p \leq 0.05$. ** $p \leq 0.01$.

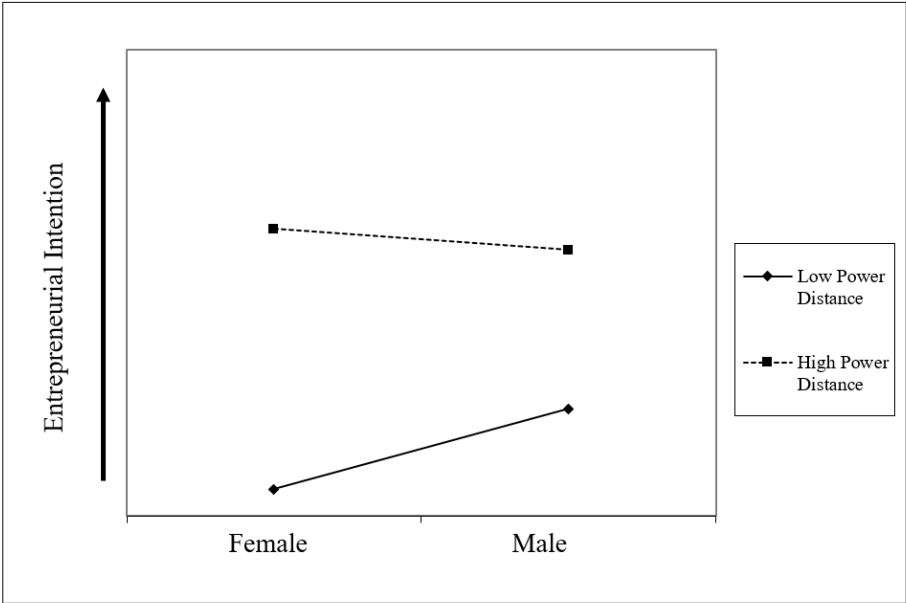
Source: Authors own work.

Figure 1. Conceptual framework.



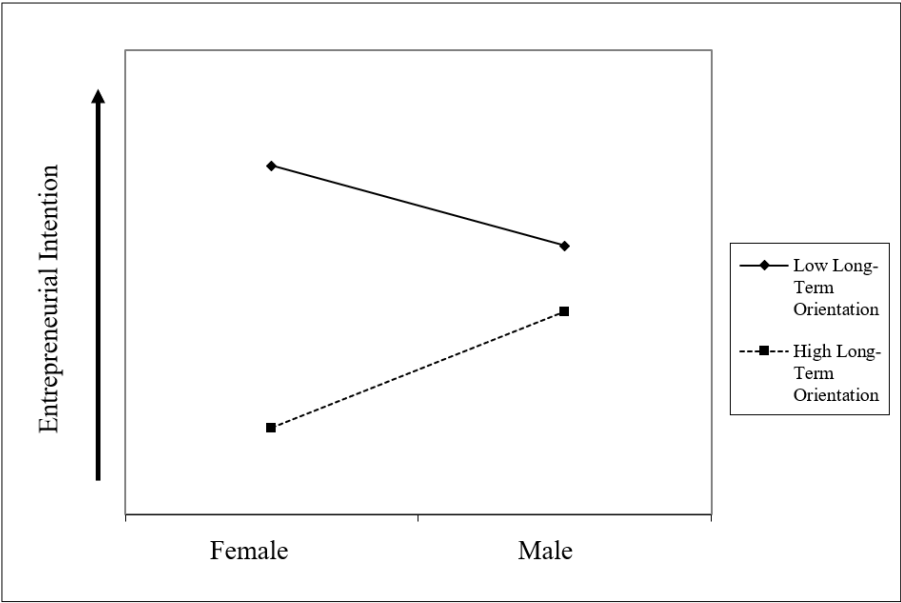
Source: Authors own work.

Figure 2. Interaction effect of Power Distance on the gender gap in entrepreneurship.



Source: Authors own work.

Figure 3. Interaction effect of Long-Term Orientation on the gender gap in entrepreneurship.



Source: Authors own work.