STUDENTS' CAREER ADAPTABILITY AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL REGULATION AND CONTROL

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DOCTORAL THESIS

Mentor: Professor Zoran Sušanj, PhD

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Sveučilište Josipa Jurja Strossmayera u Osijeku
Ekonomski fakultet u Osijeku
Međunarodni međusveučilišni poslijediplomski interdisciplinarni doktorski studij
PODUZETNIŠTVO I INOVATIVNOST

Mia Hocenski

KARIJERNA ADAPTABILNOST I PODUZETNIČKE NAMJERE STUDENATA: MEDIJACIJSKA ULOGA EMOCIONALNE REGULACIJE I KONTROLE

DOKTORSKA DISERTACIJA

Mentor: prof.dr.sc. Zoran Sušanj

Osijek, listopad, 2021.

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STUDENTS' CAREER ADAPTABILITY AND ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL REGULATION AND CONTROL

Mia Hocenski

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Short Abstract:
Due to constant and unpredictable professional changes in the 21st century, starting one's company is merely one way of securing employment for students. With the aim of an effortless adjustment to both their private and professional surroundings, students should develop their career adaptability and learn how to regulate and control their emotions. The main goal of this doctoral research is to explore the role of *emotional regulation and control* in the relationship between students' *career adaptability* and *entrepreneurial intentions*. This research aims to contribute both theoretically and empirically to a deeper understanding of the relationships between the constructs. The primary research results indicate the importance of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control in predicting students' entrepreneurial intentions, while emotional regulation and control is proven to be a partial mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions.

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KARIJERNA ADAPTABILNOST I PODUZETNIČKE NAMJERE STUDENATA: MEDIJACIJSKA ULOGA EMOCIONALNE REGULACIJE I KONTROLE

Mia Hocenski

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Kratki sažetak doktorske disertacije:
Uslijed konstantnih i nepredvidivih životnih i poslovnih promjena, otvaranje vlastitih poduzeća studentima je jedan je od načina osiguravanja zaposlenja u 21.stoljeću. U svrhu lakše prilagodbe okolini i poslovnom okruženju studentima su također potrebne i karijerna adaptabilnost i vještina reguliranja i kontroliranja vlastitih emocija. Primarni je cilj ove doktorske disertacije istražiti ulogu *emocionalne regulacije i kontrole* u odnosu između *karijerne adaptabilnosti* i *poduzetničkih namjera* studenata. Ovim se radom nastoji i teorijski i empirijski doprinijeti dubljem razumijevanju odnosa između triju navedenih konstrukata. Rezultati istraživanja ukazuju na važnost karijerne adaptabilnosti te emocionalne regulacije i kontrole u predviđanju poduzetničkih namjera studenata, dok se emocionalna regulacija i kontrola pokazala i kao djelomičan medijator odnosa između karijerne adaptabilnosti i poduzetničkih namjera.

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Students' Career Adaptability and Entrepreneurial Intentions: The Mediating Role of Emotional Regulation and Control

ABSTRACT

One of higher education institutions' many goals is the development of students' entrepreneurial intentions with the aim of encouraging entrepreneurship. Students' entrepreneurial intentions lead towards their entrepreneurial behavior, and starting one' company is merely one way of securing employment for students during constant and unpredictable professional challenges of the 21st century. With the aim of an effortless adjustment to both their private and professional surroundings, students should develop their career adaptability as it entails readiness and resources for successfully facing professional tasks and unexpected challenges, and should learn how to regulate and control their emotions. Emotions in business have a significant role as they affect one's creativity, inductive and deductive reasoning, thought processes, and behavior, which is why emotional regulation and control has become a necessity. Previous research shows a direct influence of emotional intelligence on managerial and entrepreneurial skills acquisition. Thus, the question of how emotions affect not only people's efficiency at work, their entrepreneurial judgment and behavior, but also their career adaptability has become the focus of most recent research.

The main goal of this doctoral research is to explore the role of *emotional regulation and control* in the relationship between students' *career adaptability* and *entrepreneurial intentions.* The purpose of this research is to use the theory of planned behavior, the theory of career construction and the model of emotional intelligence to explain the theoretical background of the constructs. The empirical contribution of this doctoral research is evidenced by the verification of connections and the explanation of interrelationships between *career adaptability, emotional regulation and control,* and *entrepreneurial intentions*. Since the role of emotional regulation and control on students' entrepreneurial intentions has, thus far, not been investigated in Croatia, the primary research is conducted on the sample of students from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek. The data analyses consist of quantitative univariate, bivariate, and multivariate statistical research methods. When controlling for the effects of age, gender and family company, the primary research results indicate the importance of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control in predicting students' entrepreneurial intentions. In addition, emotional regulation and control is proven to be a partial mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. The

obtained research results may be useful to education professionals and career counselors for raising awareness of the importance of developing students' career adaptability and emotional regulation and control for setting their entrepreneurial intentions.

Keywords: entrepreneurial intentions, career adaptability, emotional regulation and control

Karijerna adaptabilnost i poduzetničke namjere studenata: Medijacijska uloga emocionalne regulacije i kontrole

SAŽETAK

Razvoj poduzetničkih namjera studenata u svrhu poticanja poduzetništva jedan je od ciljeva brojnih institucija visokog obrazovanja. Poduzetničke namjere studenata vode ka njihovom poduzetničkom ponašanju, a otvaranje vlastitih poduzeća jedan je od načina osiguravanja zaposlenja u 21.stoljeću. Uslijed konstantnih i nepredvidivih životnih i poslovnih promjena, a u svrhu lakše prilagodbe okolini i poslovnom okruženju, studentima su potrebne karijerna adaptabilnost i sposobnost regulacije i kontrole emocija. Karijerna adaptabilnost uključuje spremnost i sposobnost prilagođavanja koje su važne za uspješno suočavanje s profesionalnim zadacima, neočekivanim izazovima i mijenjanjem posla. Emocije u poslovnom okruženju imaju značajnu ulogu jer utječu na kreativnost pojedinaca, induktivno i deduktivno zaključivanje, kao i na misaone procese i ponašanje, sukladno čemu je regulacija i kontrola emocija neophodna. Prethodna istraživanja upućuju na izravan utjecaj obrazovanja u području emocionalne inteligencije na razvoj poduzetničkih i upravljačkih vještina. Stoga je u središtu novijih istraživanja pitanje ne samo na koji način emocije utječu na učinkovitost u poslu, poduzetničke namjere i ponašanje, nego i na karijernu adaptabilnost.

Primarni je cilj ove doktorske disertacije istražiti ulogu *emocionalne regulacije i kontrole* u odnosu između *karijerne adaptabilnosti* i *poduzetničkih namjera* studenata. Svrha ovog rada sastoji se od uporabe teorije planiranog ponašanja, teorije karijerne konstrukcije i modela emocionalne inteligencije kako bi se objasnile teorijske pozadine konstrukata. Empirijski doprinos istraživanja ogleda se u provjeri povezanosti i objašnjenju međusobnih odnosa triju konstrukata: *karijerne adaptabilnosti*, *emocionalne regulacije i kontrole,* i *poduzetničkih namjera*. S obzirom na to da uloga emocionalne regulacije i kontrole na poduzetničke namjere studenata do sada nije istraživana u Hrvatskoj, primarno istraživanje provedeno je na uzorku studenata s Ekonomskog fakulteta u Osijeku. U obradi rezultata istraživanja primijenjene su kvantitativne univarijatne, bivarijatne i multivarijatne statističke metode. Kada se kontroliraju doprinosi dobi, spola, i obiteljske tvrtke, rezultati istraživanja ukazuju na važnost karijerne adaptabilnosti i emocionalne regulacije i kontrole u predviđanju poduzetničkih namjera studenata, pri čemu se emocionalna regulacija i kontrola pokazala i kao djelomičan medijator odnosa između karijerne adaptabilnosti i poduzetničkih namjera. Dobiveni rezultati istraživanja mogu biti od koristi stručnjacima iz

područja obrazovanja i karijernim savjetnicima za osvješćivanje važnosti razvoja karijerne adaptabilnosti i emocionalne regulacije i kontrole kod studenata u ostvarenju njihovih poduzetničkih namjera.

Ključne riječi: poduzetničke namjere, karijerna adaptabilnost, emocionalna regulacija i kontrola

I would like to acknowledge the invaluable mentorship of professor Zoran Sušanj and thank him for his day-to-day supervision and continuous guidance. I would also like to thank professor Slavica Singer for her considerable encouragement and my enrolment in the doctoral program. My appreciation goes out to all professors and colleagues from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek and the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences in Osijek who have contributed to my knowledge acquisition during the last five years.

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You all mean the world to me.

“The art of life lies in a constant readjustment to our surroundings.”

~ Kakuzo Okakaura (1964:26)

SUMMARY

CHAPTER I

1. Introduction

In achieving success and sustainability, all world economies aim to ensure full employability, stability, and economic growth. In *The Theory of Economic Development*, Schumpeter (1934) emphasized that by innovating new products and replacing existing ones, entrepreneurs are the ones who act as critical triggers that spark economic development. Hence, entrepreneurship was considered a new value creation. Nevertheless, since intentions are known as reliable predictors of the entire entrepreneurial process (Ajzen, 1991; Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000), recently, the emphasis is also being placed on the cause of that intent (Bilgiseven & Kasimoğlu, 2019; Bird, 1988; Turuk et al., 2020).

Entrepreneurial tendencies and abilities, self-efficacy and desirability account for most of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions (Gird & Bagraim, 2008; Jakopec et al., 2013; Pfeifer et al., 2016). Research also emphasizes *internal factors* as predictors of entrepreneurial intentions such as personal characteristics (age, gender), disposition, behavior, and *external factors* that consist of social and societal factors (previous business exposure, family business, education, economic/political climate; Ozaralli & Rivenburgh, 2016; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Yıldırım et al., 2019). Additionally, among other predispositions, creativity, proactivity, opportunism, and the need for progress are considered to encourage entrepreneurial intentions (Anjum et al., 2019; Ariyibi, 2019; Jakopec et al., 2013; Kumar & Shukla, 2019; Laguia et al., 2019; Zani et al., 2016).

Today's volatile global market urges the acknowledgment of the ability to cope with various inconsistencies and changes on a daily basis. Being able to adapt both to one's environment and business-settings is seen as pivotal for persevering through the obstacles that life entails. Career adaptability focuses on the individual's resources to overcome developmental assignments necessary for future work-related roles (Wilkins et al., 2014). The four main resources are career concern, control, curiosity, and confidence, and people with such characteristics will have a higher tendency to adapt to their environmental and career changes (Savickas, 2013). Previous research has placed a focus on the strong connection between career adaptability and various personality dimensions, such as proactivity, feedback-seeking and decision-making (Gong et al., 2020; Green et al., 2019; Hou et al., 2014). However, the vocational development gender role is all but straightforward (Babarović & Šverko, 2016). For

example, in one of their studies, Coetzee et al. (2015) regarded the connection of gender and career adaptability as negligible, whereas in another study, Coetzee and Harry (2015) revealed that women had significantly higher levels of career adaptability than men. Thus, when exploring career adaptability, the presence of gender differences is evident (Zhang et al., 2021). Additionally, higher perception of emotional intelligence and emotional dispositions such as hope and optimism resulted in higher career adaptability (Celik & Storme, 2018; Coetzee & Harry, 2013; Parmentier et al., 2019; Wilkins et al., 2014). Moreover, previous research has emphasized the connection of career adaptability to graduate and self-perceived employability (Atitsogbe et al., 2019; Ismail, 2017) and entrepreneurial intentions (Neto et al., 2019; Qiao & Huang, 2019; Tolentino, Sedoglavich, et al., 2014).

By the beginning of the 21th century ground-breaking research was being conducted on emotional intelligence and the influence it has in business and economics (Ahmetoglu et al., 2011; Gabel et al., 2005; Goleman et al., 2002a; Ilić, 2008; Rhee & White, 2007; Zampetakis et al., 2008). This revelation, in turn, paved the way for researchers to continue exploring the relationship of emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions extensively. Emotional intelligence is proven to be an essential predictor and a fundamental aspect of people's personality when considering one's success not only in their personal and academic lives but also in one's professional career (Aziz et al., 2020; Bar-On, 2001, 2012; MacCann et al., 2020; Romanelli et al., 2006). Many factors account for one's behavior, and these factors are vital in predicting one's success. Nowadays, being emotionally intelligent is an advantage, however, the actual emphasis is placed on the regulation and control of one's emotions (Macuka et al., 2012). The ability to understand one's feelings and differentiate between them, let alone control them, significantly affects one's adaptation to the environment. What is more, having the capacity to regulate one's emotions in a professional setting leads not only to a stronger self-belief, which results in a tendency to have more substantial confidence when it comes to one's future career path, but also to a likelier undertaking of one's entrepreneurial endeavor.

Hence, this doctoral research is interested in exploring yet unforeseen factors that predict and contribute to a higher tendency towards entrepreneurial intentions. Consequently, although the connection between entrepreneurial intentions, career adaptability, and emotional regulation and control is research-wise becoming apparent, a lack of research connecting and explaining entrepreneurial intentions through career adaptability and emotional regulation and control still exists. Therefore, the purpose of this research is not only to provide a systematic overview of

the constructs' theoretical backgrounds, but also to empirically arrive at a more thorough understanding of the interrelationship between the three constructs.

1.1. Research Goal, Problems, and Hypotheses

The effect of students' *emotional regulation and control* (ERAC) on *entrepreneurial intentions* is rather unknown, and the role of ERAC in the relationship of *career adaptability* (CA) and *entrepreneurial intentions* (EI) is quite under-researched. Therefore, the primary goal of this research is to investigate the intervening relationships between the three mentioned constructs. Namely, this research intends to explore whether *emotional regulation and control*, in addition to *career adaptability*, has any kind of effect on students' *entrepreneurial intentions*. Thus, in line with the research goal, the following three research problems and hypotheses have been formulated.

The first research problem (P1) is to investigate the connection between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. The first hypothesis, based on the first research problem, argues:
H1: There is a positive correlation between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions.
The statistical method for the analysis of the first hypothesis will be the bivariate correlation of the mentioned constructs.

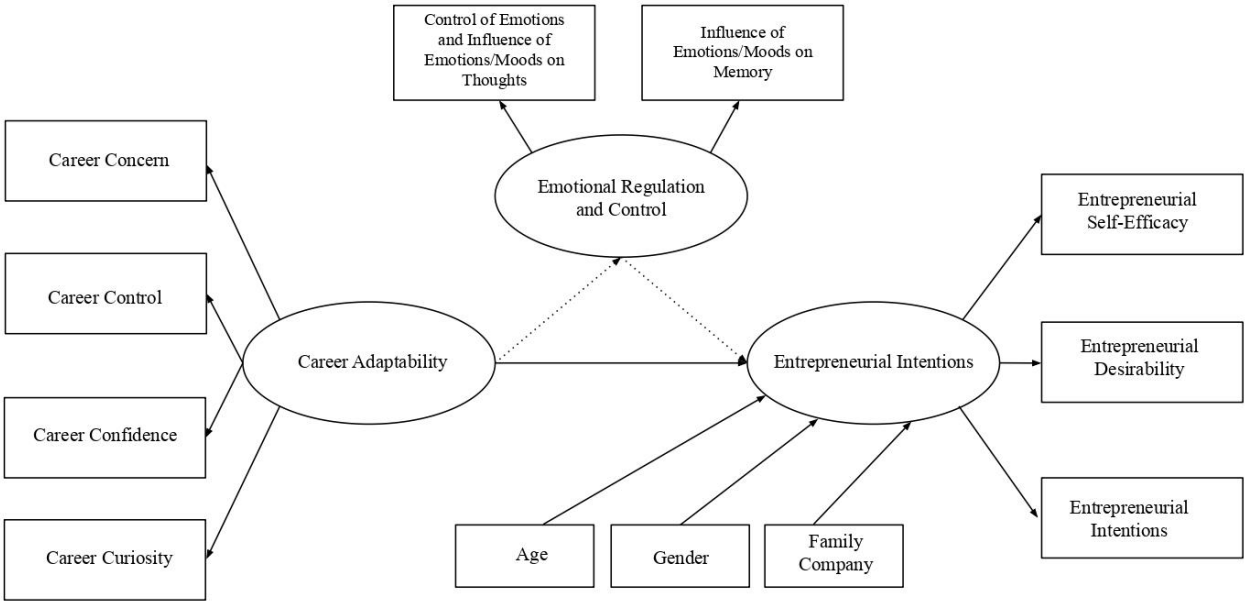
The second research problem (P2) is to explore whether emotional regulation and control contributes to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability. Accordingly, based on the second research problem, the second hypothesis states:
H2: Emotional regulation and control contributes to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability.
The statistical method for the analysis of the second hypothesis will be the regression analysis.

The last research problem (P3) is to investigate the mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. The third hypothesis argues:
H3: Emotional regulation and control is the mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions.

The method for the analysis of the third hypothesis will be the structural equation modeling (SEM) and the mediation analysis.

The theoretical framework shown in Figure 1, namely, the role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions when controlling for the effects of age, gender, and family company, will be used as the proposed conceptual research model for investigating the third research problem by conducting SEM and the mediation analysis.

Figure 1 Proposed Model of Relationships between Career Adaptability, Emotional Regulation and Control, and Entrepreneurial Intentions with Control Variables



(Source: Author's Work)

The three research problems, corresponding hypotheses and the theoretical framework are all based on the theoretical background of the three constructs and their literature overview, namely, their previous research findings provided in the following chapter of this dissertation, in sections 2.1.4. (H1), 2.1.4.1. (H2), and 2.3.4.1. (H3).

1.2. Research Sample and Data

The sample for the primary empirical research consists of third-year undergraduate and first- and second-year graduate students from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek. Students of business and economics are chosen for this research due to their likely higher awareness and presumption of their professional career path. Moreover, by being at their final years of higher education, students are faced with career decisions related to the labor market entering. What is more, business students are, to a large extent, expected to choose entrepreneurial careers (Sušanj et al., 2015). Further, as adults, students ought to be more prone to dealing with their career concerns, having more explicit work goals and skills necessary for competing with their colleagues, as well as recognizing and securing desired work (Bobek & Robbins, 2005).

The research consists of primary and secondary data. The primary data ascertains the main goal of this research. The instrument used for collecting primary data is a highly structured questionnaire that consists of three main constructs quantified into one independent variable/predictor (*career adaptability*), one dependent variable/criterion (*entrepreneurial intentions*), and one mediating variable (*emotional regulation and control*). The primary data research results were analyzed by univariate methods (descriptive data analysis methods of frequencies, arithmetic means, and standard deviations), bivariate methods (correlation analyses), and multivariate statistical methods (factor, regression, mediation analyses, and SEM). Statistical research methods were conducted in the statistical program Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) ver. 23.0, apart from factor analyses and SEM, which were conducted in the statistical program Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) ver. 21.0.

The secondary data, which entails systematically categorized previous research from scientific research articles and books, creates the theoretical part of the dissertation, namely, the literature overview. The literature overview provides an in-depth description, explanation, and theoretical backgrounds of the three constructs, and establishes the basis for addressing the research problems.

1.3. Expected Scientific Contribution

The scientific contribution of this research is expected to explain whether career adaptability and emotional regulation and control affect entrepreneurial intentions, whether students'

emotional regulation and control mediates the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions, and, finally, the mechanism by which career adaptability affects entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, expected scientific contribution will consist of suggesting additional factors that influence the tendency to have entrepreneurial intentions and, therefore, adding on to the existing body of the literature on the three constructs. This research will also offer new relevant insights into practices on career adaptability and emotional regulation and control development that can aid educators and practitioners in their teaching. Furthermore, the research will present evidence to educators, practitioners, and policy-makers of the existing role that students' career adaptability and emotional regulation and control have in setting their entrepreneurial intentions.

1.4. Research Outline

This doctoral dissertation is divided into the theoretical and the empirical part, and consists of five chapters.

The first chapter provides an introduction to the constructs of *entrepreneurial intentions*, *career adaptability*, and *emotional regulation and control*. In the first chapter, the research goal is explained, and the three research problems and hypotheses are presented. Further, the sample selected for conducting primary research, the data for primary and secondary research, and the expected scientific contribution are described. The first chapter ends with a concise description of all chapters.

The second chapter gives the overview of previous and recent research on entrepreneurial intentions, career adaptability, and emotional regulation and control individually. First, the definitions of constructs are provided. Then, the theoretical backgrounds of the constructs are explained; namely, *the theory of planned behavior* (TPB) and *the model of the entrepreneurial event* (MEE) for entrepreneurial intentions; *the theory of career construction* (TCC) for career adaptability; and *the model of emotional intelligence* (MEI) for emotional regulation and control. Further, the most common measurement tools for assessing each construct are presented, and the explanation of the factor structure that the constructs are composed of are provided, followed by established predictors of all constructs. Finally, each construct is systematized and the theoretical interrelationships with one another are synthesized.

The third chapter describes the methodology of the primary empirical research and starts with the research paradigm, sample description and analysis. Further, instruments for measuring the three constructs are explained, and the scales' reliability and validity are justified, followed by the description of the data collection process and data analysis. At the end of the third chapter, structural equation modelling and the mediation analysis, as the primary data analyses methods, are elaborated.

The fourth chapter consists of four subchapters which entail descriptions of the primary empirical research results. The statistical research methods used for analyzing the primary data are categorized into univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical methods based on the complexity of their analyses. The first subchapter provides the descriptive analysis of the constructs of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. In the second subchapter, by means of bivariate method of Pearson's Correlation Coefficients (*r*), the correlations between all variables are analyzed. In the third subchapter, by conducting the hierarchical regression analysis, the contribution of emotional regulation and control to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions is explored beyond career adaptability. The last subchapter deals with testing the entrepreneurial intention prediction model and mediation by means of multivariate statistical methods such as the structural equation modelling (SEM) and the mediation analysis.

In the fifth and final chapter, the obtained primary empirical research results are discussed systematically. Limitations of the conducted research are mentioned and recommendations for further research, in addition to practical implications, are explained. Further, theoretical contribution is elaborated and the final conclusion for this research is provided.

At the very end of the doctoral dissertations, the references are presented, and the lists of all tables, figures, and appendices are provided. The author's biography and bibliography conclude the doctoral dissertation.

CHAPTER II

2. Theoretical Background and Literature Review

2.1. Entrepreneurial Intentions

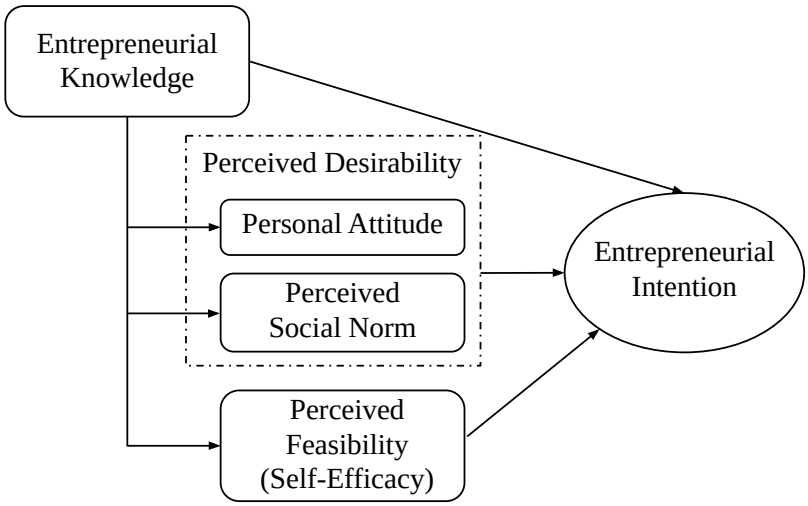
People with a tendency to become entrepreneurs have a precise idea of what they want to engage in when starting a new business. Namely, they have to construct a plan. The capacity to get and have ideas, and thereby a well-constructed plan, is not only encouraged by individuals' entrepreneurial intentions but is also best predicted by individuals' intentions towards new business creation. Thus, entrepreneurship is seen as "an intentional process in which individuals cognitively plan to carry out the behaviors of opportunity recognition, venture creation, and venture development" (Lortie & Castogiovanni, 2015:936).

Since, on both national and global scales, entrepreneurship leads to innovation and high-quality economic development (Gu et al., 2020; Matusik, 2016; Sukla, 2019), and promotes inclusive and economic growth (Adusei, 2016; Aparicio et al., 2020), it has become a national priority (Gird & Bagraim, 2008). By encouraging self-reliance and independence, entrepreneurship is an impactful instrument for poverty depletion (Nwokolo et al., 2017) and the "ultimate societal application in developing countries to address the pressing unemployment situation" (Anjum et al., 2019:84). Thus, the importance of education on entrepreneurship, at all education levels, is apparent, especially because it promotes entrepreneurial culture among university students (Nwokolo et al., 2017). In addition, in order to promote entrepreneurship among college students, their entrepreneurial intention first have to be increased (Qiao & Huang, 2019). Consequently, exploring entrepreneurial intentions is fundamental in comprehending the entire process of organizational emergence (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993) .

Literature shows that an individual entrepreneurial intent is a person's self-acknowledged conviction of planning to start a new business venture at some point in time (Thompson, 2009). To have entrepreneurial intention means to have "a conscious state of mind that affects and directs personal attention, events, and behavior toward planned entrepreneurial behavior" (Bird, 1988:442). Entrepreneurial intentions come from "perceptions of desirability, feasibility (self-efficacy), and a tendency to perform upon opportunities" (Jakopec et al., 2013:290). According to Liñán (2004), the entrepreneurial intention model consists of entrepreneurial knowledge, perceived desirability and feasibility (see Figure 2.). There is a higher tendency of developing entrepreneurial intentions if individuals consider themselves able to efficiently manage

entrepreneurial tasks, expect positive results from the entrepreneurial activity, and have great ambition towards entrepreneurship (Pfeifer et al., 2016). Additionally, support from one's family and friends plays an essential role as it lessens the negative relation between one's fear of failure and their entrepreneurial intention (Turulja et al., 2020).

Figure 2 Entrepreneurial Intention Model



(Source: Author's Work According to Liñán,2004:7)

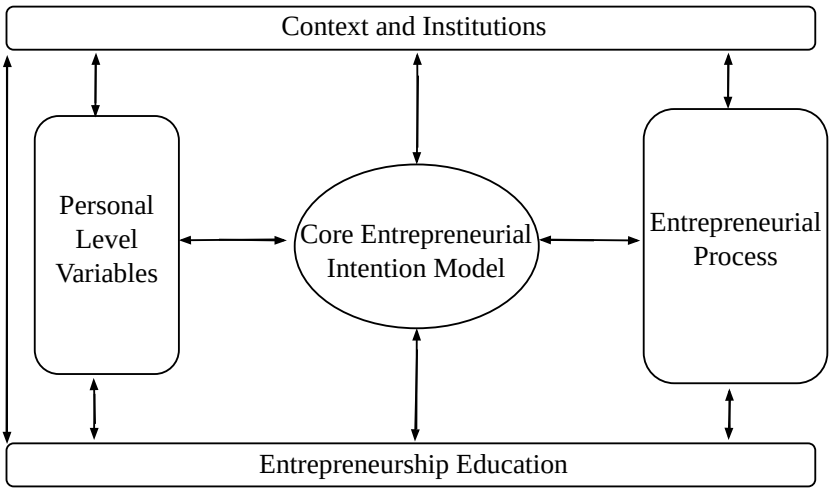
When discussing theoretical frameworks on which the entrepreneurial intentions literature is based on, it began flourishing in the 1980s when two various research strands emerged. Several fundamental theories explained the intent to perform a behavior. The first strand of research was based on social psychology, while the second on the field of entrepreneurship. On one hand, Fishbein and Ajzen elaborated on *The Theory of Reasoned Action* (1975) and together with Bandura's *Self-Efficacy Theory* (1997), they immensely contributed to the research field of social psychology. On the other hand, Shapero and Sokol (1982) created the *Social Dimension of Entrepreneurship* and *The Model of the Entrepreneurial Event*, by explaining how the social and cultural surroundings influence which entrepreneurial path an individual will take (Jakopec et al., 2013). Almost a decade later, the most significant contribution to the field of social psychology was once more made by Ajzen and the *Theory of Planned Behavior* (1991), which has been used as the main theoretical framework for entrepreneurial intent ever since.

A more recent theory emerged that tries to explain people's behavior and intentions regarding their career choices. *The Utility Maximization Model of Career Choice* was created by Douglas

and Shepherd (2002) and posits that there are three career path possibilities an individual can choose. A person can have an entrepreneurial career path, be an employee, or choose an alternative version of both, all of which is dependent upon which career path offers most satisfaction (Douglas & Shepherd, 2002). In other words, if the individual's self-employment utility surpasses the awaited utility from a high-ranking employment, then the individual will intend to become an entrepreneur (Douglas et al., 2000).

Liñán & Fayolle (2015) carried out a systematic review of the literature on entrepreneurial intentions from 2004 to 2013 and concluded with an identification of five categories of most cited papers presented in Figure 3. The main category is the core model, namely, methodological and theoretical issues. The second category consists of the influence of personal-level variables, while the third category entails entrepreneurship education. The fourth category deals with the role of context and institutions and the final category covers the entrepreneurial process and the link between intention and behavior.

Figure 3 Five Categories of Entrepreneurial Intention Literature



(Source: Author's Work According to Liñán & Fayolle, 2015:912)

Nevertheless, although the area of entrepreneurial intention is a "consolidated area of research within the field of entrepreneurship" (Fayolle & Liñán, 2014:665), the emergence of various new coherent theories on the economic model of the career decision is yet to be heralded (Douglas & Shepherd, 2002).

2.1.1. Theories Behind Entrepreneurial Intentions

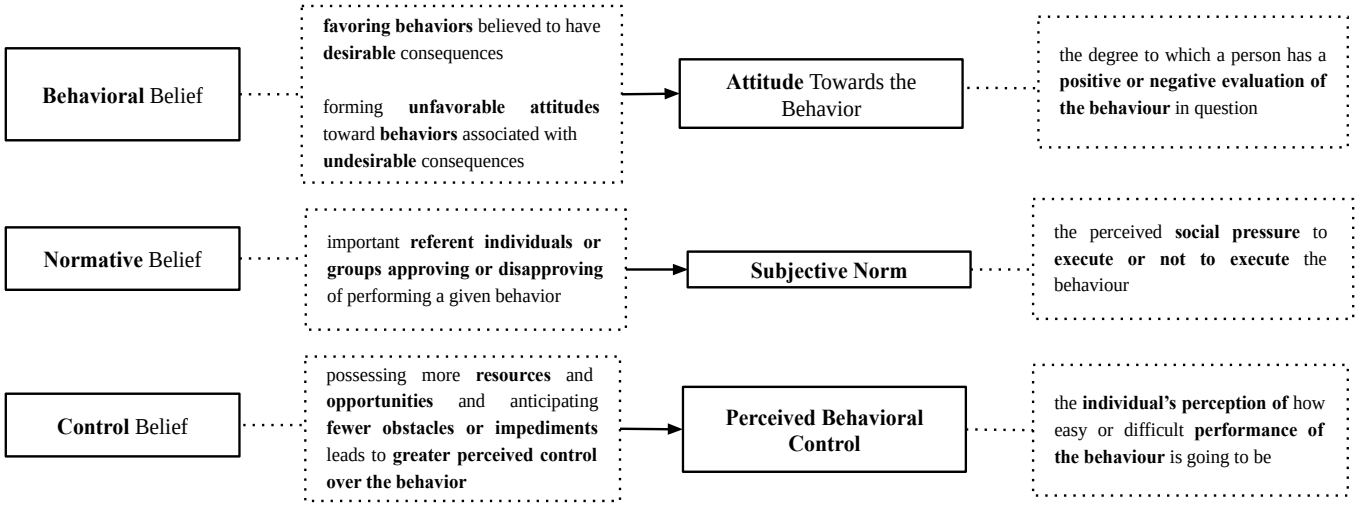
It is essential to understand the most relevant sub-areas within the entrepreneurship field, and since the *Theory of Planned Behavior* (TPB;Ajzen, 1991) and the *Model of Entrepreneurial Event* (EEM; Shapero & Sokol, 1982) interpret "the psychological processes by which beliefs that people hold about performing a behavior ultimately shape people's actions" (Yzer, 2017:1), this dissertation will focus on both, psychological and entrepreneurial, theories of entrepreneurial intentions.

The TPB was initially made to foresee and explicate human behavior in various circumstances (Ajzen, 1991). Icek Ajzen wrote the theory in 1985, and first published it in 1991. Since then, based on the Web of Science Core Collection, it has been cited more than 24000 times and has, therefore, become one of the most influential theoretical models in social psychology for predicting human behavior. The TPB "traces attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control to an underlying foundation of beliefs about the behavior" (Ajzen, 1991:206).

As shown in Figure 4, TPB differentiates between three distinct beliefs, and three divergent constructs, all of which accurately and precisely explicate intentions (Ajzen, 1991, 2011). Behavioral beliefs and attitude towards the behavior deal with differentiating between behavior and deducing whether it is positive or negative. Normative belief and subjective norms represent the decision whether or not to perform a certain behavior based on the opinion of external influences, while control belief and perceived behavioral control represent one's belief in accomplishing the behavior in question. Within the TPB, the essential determinant of behavior is the behavior performance intent (Steinmetz et al., 2016). Thus, human behavior is considered to follow a plan and is goal-oriented (Ajzen, 1985).

The foundation for the TPB is found in Fishbein and Ajzen's *Theory of Reasoned Action* (TRA; 1975), which "traces the causal links from beliefs, through attitudes and intentions, to actual behavior" (Ajzen, 1985:11). While both theories have a cognitive focus and predict intentions, there is an added concept in the TPB, namely, the perceived behavioral control (PBC; see Figure 5).

Figure 4 Elaborated Constructs from the Theory of Planned Behavior



(Source: Author's Work According to Ajzen, 1985:14)

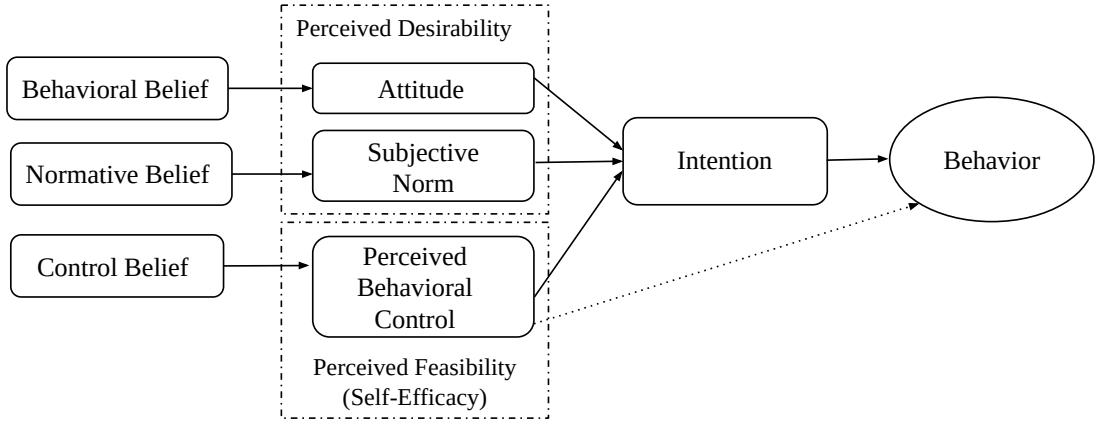
As a variable, PBC had received immense attention in social cognition models as it correlates well with behavioral performance (Ajzen, 1991), influences not only the intention and the behavior in general (Armitage & Conner, 2001) but also, in addition to personal attitudes, plays a crucial role in entrepreneurial intentions (Sitaridis & Kitsios, 2017; Utami, 2017).

Moreover, in 1982, Albert Shapero and Lisa Sokol created the multifaceted *Model of Entrepreneurial Event (EEM)*. EEM suggests that entrepreneurial intentions consist of the perceived desirability of entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial feasibility, and the propensity to act. Perceived desirability of entrepreneurship deals with the attractiveness of becoming an entrepreneur, while entrepreneurial feasibility represents perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy, namely, how efficient is an individual in their entrepreneurial intentions. The propensity to act is the likelihood of performing the behavior in question. Also, EEM asserts that inertia guides human behavior until something either positive or negative alters that inertia, but, in order for the entrepreneurial intention to lead to entrepreneurial behavior, the entrepreneurial potential should exist before that alteration occurs. The alteration can be something positive such as winning the lottery or even something negative such as a divorce (Krueger et al., 2000b; Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Uysal & Güney, 2016).

In the systematic literature review of Liñán & Fayolle (2015), the psychological TPB and the entrepreneurship-oriented EEM are integrated (Drnovšek & Erikson, 2005; Jakopec et al.,

2013; Solesvik et al., 2012). According to the authors of the review, there is a tendency in practice to substitute personal attitude and social norms for perceived desirability, and perceived behavioral control for feasibility, namely, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014), as both concepts "refer to the sense of capacity regarding the fulfillment of firm-creation behaviors" (Liñán & Chen, 2009:7), and are crucial aspects of intentional behavior (Jakopec et al., 2013; see Figure 5). On one hand, research shows that the higher the desirability of a specific behavior is, the greater the perceived entrepreneurial self-efficacy will be (Jakopec et al., 2013), whereas, on the other hand, Fitzsimmons & Douglas (2011) suggested a negative interaction between perceived desirability and feasibility.

Figure 5 Integrated Model of the Theory of Planned Behavior and the Model of Entrepreneurial Event



(Source: Author's Work According to Ajzen, 1985, and Shapero & Sokol, 1982)

Shook, Priem and McGee (2003) postulated techniques for accessing and evaluating entrepreneurial judgments and emphasized the need for integrating competing models of entrepreneurial intentions, whereas Schlaegel & Koenig (2014) created a meta-analytically literature review that compared and integrated the TPB and the EEM to achieve absolute theoretical clarity. They concluded the subjective norm to be more predictive of entrepreneurial intent than entrepreneurial self-efficacy and the perceived behavioral control to affect individual intentions directly. Moreover, personal norms, feelings, and individual's personal values all influence the choice to pursue a certain profession (Ajzen, 1991; Kruse, Wach, Costa, & Moriano, 2019; Parker, Manstead, & Stradling, 1995). Further, Lortie & Castogiovanni (2015) created an in-depth review of the existing research on the TPB in entrepreneurial

research synthesized into four main emerging themes (TPB categories: intentions and behavior; Entrepreneurship categories: venture creation and new venture development).

However, past research is not in alignment when discussing the use and validity of the mentioned theories, as, on one hand, some findings strongly support the TRA yet offer no support for the TPB (Kolvereid & Isaksen, 2006). Other findings state that certain assumptions in the TRA have been falsified (Trafimow, 2009). Also, certain researchers argue that TPB and the EEM overlap (Van Gelderen et al., 2008), while others consider the constructs as distinct (Krueger et al., 2000b). On the other hand, numerous researchers find significant value and immense importance both in the TRA and in the extension theory of TPB (such as Engle et al., 2010; Kautonen, van Gelderen, & Fink, 2015; Kautonen, van Gelderen, & Tornikoski, 2013; Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992) as well as in EEM (such as Ali, Lu, & Wang, 2013; Anjum et al., 2019; Ngugi, Gakure, Waithaka, & Kiwara, 2012; Omidi Najafabadi, Zamani, & Mirdamadi, 2016; Uysal & Güney, 2016; Zhang, Duysters, & Cloodt, 2014).

Nonetheless, researchers consider the TPB as a "prominent formulation" (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Yzer, 2017:1) which gives researchers the ability to successfully ascertain methods and target variables (Steinmetz et al., 2016). TPB is suggested to be "parsimonious, well-grounded in theory, and robustly predicting a wide variety of planned behaviors" (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993:315). Thus, both TPB and EEM serve as theoretical bases for this dissertation since they both lay firm theoretical and empirical foundation in various situations (Uysal & Güney, 2016) and are "useful conceptual frameworks for dealing with the complexities of human social behavior" (Ajzen, 1991:206). In particular, the theoretical background of the dependent variable (entrepreneurial intentions) is explained by applying the TPB and the EEM. The theories also provide rationale for constructing and proposing the conceptualized model which will be used as the theoretical framework for this research.

2.1.2. Entrepreneurial Intention Assessment Tools

Several constructed scales that measure entrepreneurial intentions have emerged in the last twenty years; thus, choosing the appropriate measure is dependent solely on the theoretical background of the variable one chooses to observe and research.

To start with a more recent measure, Thompson (2009) presented the existing entrepreneurial

intention scales, elaborated a need for a new measure, emphasized the omission in defining entrepreneurship, and concluded with his own reliable and internationally applicable ten-item scale named *Individual Entrepreneurial Intent Scale* (IEIS). The IEIS has high content validity, is internally reliable, and is created to be used internationally. As a part of a more extensive questionnaire examining the entrepreneurial mindset, Pfeifer, Šarlija, and Zekić Sušac (2016) used Thompson's IEIS to determine the motivational processes of students' interest and intention in an entrepreneurial career. Also, Zampetakis, Bakatsaki, Litos, Kafetsios, and Moustakis (2017) used the IEIS scales to measure gender differences between entrepreneurial attitudes, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms and intention, in addition to whether these gender differences can be explained by differential item functioning (DIF). "DIF occurs in situations where members of different groups show differing probabilities of endorsing an item despite possessing the same level of the ability that the item is intended to measure" (Zampetakis et al., 2017:1). The research was concluded by DIF analysis ascertaining non-existent differences at the item and scale level between participants' gender.

In 2009, Yilmaz and Sünbül developed the *Entrepreneurship Scale*, a 36-item self-administered questionnaire used to ascertain the entrepreneurship tendencies of university students. In 2014, Tiftik and Zincirkiran conducted the *Entrepreneurship Scale* developed by Yilmaz and Sünbül (2009) on students studying economics and administrative sciences. After establishing the scale's validity and reliability, they examined the factorial structure. The seven derived factors were *self-confidence*, *benefiting from an opportunity*, *innovativeness*, *control-oriented*, *will to succeed*, *risk bearing*, and *decisiveness* (Tiftik & Zincirkiran, 2014).

In the field of psychology, the questionnaire most used to measure entrepreneurial intentions was created in 2006. Based on the existing research about the utility of the TPB to entrepreneurship, Liñán and Chen created the core entrepreneurial intention model elements, which were used to assess entrepreneurial intentions. *The Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire* (EIQ) consists of four factors, that is, professional attraction (personal attitude), social valuation (perceived social norms), entrepreneurial capacity (self-efficacy), and entrepreneurial intention. As they intended for the measure to be used internationally, their conducted research included a two-country sample, namely, Spain and Taiwan. However, although demographics contribute differently to the formation of perceptions in each country, the support for the model is found both in the combined sample, and each country sample (Liñán & Chen, 2006). Additionally, the EIQ properties, reliability and validity were proven to be

satisfactory (Liñán & Chen, 2009).

However, researchers tend to not only create but also alter versions of multi-dimensional questionnaires consisting of various validates scales to ascertain concrete predictors that explain the highest variance of entrepreneurial intentions. As an example, Lüthje and Franke (2003) constructed a scale that included constructs such as risk-taking propensity, locus of control, perceived barriers and support factors, attitude towards entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intentions to ascertain the predictors of engineering students' entrepreneurial intentions. They found out that the mentioned personality traits indirectly impact entrepreneurial intentions. Additionally, Sušanj, Jakopec & Krečar (2015) used three various scales to measure entrepreneurial tendencies, namely, the *Measure of Entrepreneurial Tendencies and Abilities-META L61*, (Ahmetoglu & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2010), *Entrepreneurial Propensity Questionnaire* (Miljković Krečar, 2008), and two scales from the EIQ (adjusted from Liñán & Chen, 2006), namely, *Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy*, and *Desirability of Entrepreneurship*. On the sample of business students, the researchers found out that entrepreneurial self-efficacy and desirability of entrepreneurship mediate the relationship between entrepreneurial characteristics and intentions. As previously mentioned, Zampetakis et al. (2017) used Thompson's IEIS and Liñán & Chen's EIQ scales to measure the theoretical constructs of attitudes towards entrepreneurship, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control. Lastly, by comparing two scales for measuring entrepreneurial self-efficacy, Kickul & D'Intino (2018) proposed a connection between self-efficacy, perceived skills and abilities to manage a new venture, and entrepreneurial intentions to start a new venture in order to suggest improvements in creating new measures that would result in benefiting both research and teaching effectiveness.

2.1.3. Validity and Reliability of the Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire

Liñán, Rodríguez-Cohard, and Rueda-Cantuche (2011) emphasized the need to test the EIQ cross-nationally to affirm its validity in various cultural settings. According to Rueda, Moriano, and Liñán (2011), the EIQ is valid in explaining the entrepreneurial intention of individuals (average variance extracted for each construct is above .5), has a strong theoretical base, shows sound psychometric properties, and is reliable (composite reliability for each construct is above .8). The EIQ assesses the similarities and differences in the intention-formation process between individuals (Rueda et al., 2011).

Researchers world-wide have conducted research using Liñán and Chen's EIQ to measure entrepreneurial intentions. Paço, Ferreira, Raposo, Rodrigues, and Dinis (2011) researched the Portuguese secondary school students' entrepreneurial intentions with the EIQ and proved the reliability and the validity of the measure. Malebana (2014) used the EIQ for researching South African students' entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurial motivation, and proved the measure's validity and reliability. Šestić, Bičo Ćar, Azra, and Softić (2017) used a modified version of the EIQ to measure entrepreneurial intentions of Bosnian students and the scale achieved satisfactory validity and reliability. Asghar, Gul, Hakkarainen, and Taşdemir (2019) researched the impact of entrepreneurship education in Pakistan by validating EIQ and concluded the measure to be valid and reliable (Cronbach's α =0.86). Conversely, although the recent research from Marire and Dhurup (2018) conducted in South Africa and Zimbabwe did not present the behavioral control as predictive of entrepreneurial intentions, the personal attitude, subjective norms, and entrepreneurial education had a positive effect on intentions, consequently, the EIQ was also considered valid and reliable.

Although Croatian researchers use alternate instruments to measure entrepreneurial intentions (such as Klindžić, Golomejić, & Cenčić, 2020; Milovanović, Krišto, & Srhoj, 2015), there are several researchers who have used the adjusted versions of the EIQ to measure entrepreneurial intentions, and had achieved satisfactory reliability and validity (such as Adrić, Stanić, & Bilandžić, 2018; Jakopec et al., 2013; Kolega, 2017; Miljković Krečar, 2013). Thus, both domestic and cross-national affirmations of Liñán and Chen's EIQ influenced the decision for this research to also use the adjusted version of the EIQ to assess entrepreneurial intentions of Croatian students.

2.1.4. Entrepreneurial Mindset and Antecedents of Entrepreneurial Intentions

In order to understand what predicts one's inclination towards entrepreneurial behavior, the focus first needs to be placed on one's disposition and personality (Isiorhovoja, Ogisi, & Inoni, 2012; Liu, Liang, Chang, Ip, & Liang, 2020; Zanabazar & Jigjiddorj, 2020; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). What is an entrepreneurial mindset, what does it entail, and how should it be achieved? Research suggests three distinct aspects of the entrepreneurial mindset, a triad of the entrepreneurial cognitive, behavioral, and emotional aspect. According to Kuratko, Fisher, and Audretsch (2020), cognitive aspects deal with the way entrepreneurs use mental models to think (thoughts), the behavioral aspects deal with the way entrepreneurs engage in opportunities

(actions), while the emotional aspects deal with how people feel in entrepreneurship (feelings). In order to measure the entrepreneurial mindset, the *Entrepreneurial Mindset Profile* (EMP) was created by Davis, Hall and Mayer (2016). Authors suggest that some aspects of the EMP were, to a certain extent, positively or negatively associated to the *Big Five Personality Dimensions* from Zhao and Seibert (2006), which will be discussed in the following chapters. Further, assessment tools were developed for educators in order to build student's entrepreneurial mindset and improve their learning outcomes through cross-functional innovation teams. The mentioned tools aid in bringing about course changes that influence student learning outcomes (Schoonmaker et al., 2020).

Considering that entrepreneurial education expands entrepreneurial understanding and leads to developing entrepreneurial skills and attitudes (Pihie & Sani, 2009; Rodriguez & Lieber, 2020) entrepreneurship education should be incorporated at all education levels to encourage the entrepreneurial mindset early on. Furthermore, entrepreneurial understanding leads to a higher awareness of one's entrepreneurial potential. Entrepreneurial potential is the combination of four distinct personal characteristics; entrepreneurial awareness, creativity, opportunism, and need for progress, all of which play a vital role in predicting intentions (Jakopec et al., 2013). Interestingly, the TPB triad is confirmed as a reliable predictor of the intention to become an entrepreneur (Engle et al., 2010). Hence, by taking the TPB triad into account, namely, the attitude towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control, in addition to social norms, family wealth, and personal business exposure, the entrepreneurial identity and potential, as well as self-efficacy, seem to be the best predictors of entrepreneurial intentions (Jakopec et al., 2013; Kautonen et al., 2013; Pfeifer et al., 2016; Sancho et al., 2020).

According to Armitage and Conner (2001), who quantitatively explored existing research on TPB as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions, the TPB mostly explains 27-39% of entrepreneurial intentions variance. Such is evident from the research of Gird and Bagraim (2008), who confirmed the explanation of 27% of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions, or from the research of Zainuddin and Ismail (2011), who explicated more than half of the variance of student's entrepreneurial intentions (51%). Moreover, findings on the TPB affirm that the model accounts for 41% of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions (Kautonen et al., 2013), as well as that the total cumulative variance of the TPB factors for the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions is 64.5% (Sitaridis & Kitsios, 2017).

The probability of becoming a nascent entrepreneur peaks at an early age and then decreases (Arenius & Minniti, 2005), whereas the likelihood of being an entrepreneur is more probable among older individuals (Blanchflower, 2004). Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, education, and parents' occupation affect entrepreneurial intentions (Criaco et al., 2017; Isiorhovoja et al., 2012), which is why researchers tend to include such control variables in the models exploring entrepreneurial intentions (Aragon-Sanchez et al., 2017; Chlosta et al., 2012; Zeffane, 2014). In their research, Zaman et al. (2020) found that age does not influence entrepreneurial intentions, in contrast to gender and family business exposure, which do. Contrastingly, although the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial intentions achieved a poor model fit, the relationship between age and entrepreneurial intentions achieved an excellent model fit (Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014). Zhao et al. (2020) concluded that age does not affect male entrepreneurs, however, it positively and statistically significantly affects female entrepreneurs.

"Men and women's entrepreneurial intentions are strongly influenced by gender stereotypes in contemporary society" (Gupta et al., 2009:413). How entrepreneurial intentions are affected by one's gender has been a topical issue for researchers. According to Lin (2019:31), the gender-balanced view of society shows "physical and mental differences between males and females in their intention to be an entrepreneur", which is supported by her finding that men, in Taiwan, are more prone to having entrepreneurial intentions than women. Accordingly, entrepreneurial behaviour correlates with gender in such a way that men are more likely to become entrepreneurs (Miljković Krečar, 2013). Gupta et al. (2009:397) explored "the role of socially constructed gender stereotypes in entrepreneurship", and concluded that entrepreneurs are associated with "stereotypically masculine characteristics". This finding is in line with the research of Adamus et al. (2021), who reported that women have lower entrepreneurial intentions than men and perceive efficient entrepreneurs as masculine. Consequently, men have a higher tendency towards entrepreneurial intentions than women (Haus et al., 2013). Statistically significant gender differences also exist in the context of higher education institutions (Paray & Kumar, 2020). Nonetheless, Širola (2020) found that gender does not statistically significantly influence entrepreneurial intentions, whereas Jena (2020) specified that gender does not affect the relationship between attitude towards entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention. However, the essential factor for women to become entrepreneurs is their attitude towards entrepreneurship (Margaça et al., 2021). The most recent research

shows that men favour starting new companies, whereas women favour takeovers (Bakkar et al., 2021).

Furthermore, being raised within an entrepreneurial family is a stepping stone for entrepreneurship (Miljković Krečar, 2013), especially since family background affects individuals' desirability to become entrepreneurs (Drennan et al., 2004) and their entrepreneurial intentions (Drennan et al., 2004; Hussain et al., 2021; Krueger, 1993; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Parents who own a business are seen as role models to their children (Isiorhovoja et al., 2012), and are, thereby, "important motivators" for their children to become self-employed (Chlosta et al., 2012:135). Furthermore, individuals who come from an entrepreneurial family background learn from everyday experiences, and, consequently, have a higher tendency towards entrepreneurial intentions than those who do not have such a background (Georgescu & Herman, 2020). In particular, men whose parents are entrepreneurs are nearly two times more likely to decide on an entrepreneurial career than are women whose parents are entrepreneurs (Bloemen-Bekx et al., 2019). Previous research also suggests that if the entrepreneur within the family is the father, the child raised within that family is more likely to have a positive attitude towards entrepreneurship and greater entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Basu & Virick, 2008; Krueger, 1993). A family business is, thus, "synonymous to business incubation centres that serve as a training platform for acquiring entrepreneurial skills for future business start-ups" (Oluwafunmilayo et al., 2018:9).

A plethora of entrepreneurial intention predictors from various perspectives and contexts has been discovered and emphasized world-wide in the past two decades, yet the most relevant ones for this research are outlined in Table 1. Researchers have argued that entrepreneurial intentions are predicted by emotional (De Cock et al., 2020; Zampetakis et al., 2008), social, and cognitive competencies (Bonesso et al., 2018; Karimi, 2019), as well as personality attributes (risk-taking, creativity, optimism, innovativeness; Dan-Dan et al., 2010; Laguia et al., 2019; Padilla-Angulo, 2019; Zani et al., 2016), and various socio-economic factors (such as age, gender, education, the occupation of parents; Isiorhovoja et al., 2012). Accordingly, one would expect a positive connection between student's career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. However, a lack of empirical literature which deals with the connection of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions shows a need for further empirical exploration of these constructs. This leads us to the first research problem for this dissertation which aimed at investigating the connection

between the constructs of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions (*H1: There is a positive correlation between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions.).*

Table 1 Overview of Relevant Entrepreneurial Intention Predictors

PREDICTORS	AUTHORS
Career Adaptability	Tolentino et al., 2014; Qiao & Huang, 2019; Lin,2019; Qiao, 2019
Emotional Intelligence, Regulation and Control	Zampetakis et al., 2008; Tiwari, Bhat, & Tikoria, 2017 Archana & Vasanthi Kumari, 2018; Kanonuhwa et al.,2018 Bonesso, Gerli, Pizzi, & Cortellazzo, 2018; De Cock,Denoo, & Clarysse, 2020
Socio-Economic Factors	Hessels, Van Gelderen, & Thurik, 2008; Isiorhovoja, Ogisi, & Inoni, 2012
Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy, Desirability of Entrepreneurship	Sušanj et al., 2015; Sancho, Martín-Navarro, & Ramos -Rodríguez, 2020
Personality Attributes	Ozaralli &Rivenburgh, 2016; Zani et al., 2016; Tiwari et al., 2017 Laguia et al., 2019; Yildrim et al., 2019; Anjum, Ramani Bai, & Nazar, 2020 Ramos-Rodríguez, 2020; Liu, Liang, Chang, Ip, & Liang, 2020

(Source: Author's Work)

2.1.4.1. Entrepreneurial Intentions and Emotional Intelligence, Regulation, and Control

"Entrepreneurship is an emotional rollercoaster, in which highs and lows quickly alternate in unpredictable ways" (De Cock, Denoo, & Clarysse, 2020:15). Moreover, reacting to the world we live in is shaped by our positive and negative emotions. The effort to influence these emotions to increase the possibility of them being positive is the primary connotation of emotion regulation (Gross, 2015). Besides, individuals who possess emotional intelligence have higher entrepreneurial intentions "due to the fit between their personal characteristics and the work demands of entrepreneurial careers" (Miao, Humphrey, Qian, & Pollack, 2018:4).

Until two decades ago, research in the entrepreneurship field that focused on the role of emotional intelligence was scarce (McLaughlin, 2012). However, recent global international research that is primarily conducted on students exhibits the existing positive relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intention. The advantage of emotional intelligence for understanding entrepreneurship-relevant outcomes was first highlighted in the theoretical model of Zampetakis et al. (2008), where its relationship to antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, namely, trait emotional intelligence, creativity and proactivity, was suggested for business, engineering and science students. Consequently, creativity and proactivity were shown to be full mediators of the emotional intelligence positive effect on attitudes towards entrepreneurship. On the other hand, perceived entrepreneurial desirability was a full mediator of the relationship between student creativity, proactivity, and entrepreneurial intentions (Zampetakis, 2008; Zampetakis et al., 2008). Moreover, increased perception of emotional self-efficiency was shown to foster entrepreneurship of Lithuanian students (Zakarevičius & Župerka, 2010).

Developed Intentions Model was a conceptual model that suggested emotional intelligence to efficiently affect entrepreneurial behavior (Neghabi et al., 2011). Moreover, Dehkordi, Sasani, Fathi, and Khanmohammadi (2012) explored personality traits and emotional intelligence as factors that affect Iranian students' entrepreneurial intentions. The authors concluded that personality traits need for achievement, tendency to risk, and internal locus of control are the main three influential factors. When focusing on emotional intelligence factors, social consciousness and self-control are ranked the following to influence entrepreneurial intentions. Individuals who intent to start a business venture and possess high levels of self-control are more likely to start that venture (Kautonen et al., 2015). Further, research on American students suggested that emotional intelligence and political skills are related, and in turn, political skills positively influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions (Davis & Peake, 2014).

Moreover, extensive research on Indian students showed encouraging results regarding entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship, which is aimed at identifying opportunities for creating social impact and change (Hockerts, 2017). Examples of such results reveal that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy have a significant positive relationship with social

entrepreneurial intentions[1] (Tiwari et al., 2017b). Additionally, emotional, social and cognitive competencies have a positive relationship with social entrepreneurial intentions (Bonesso, Gerli, Pizzi, & Cortellazzo, 2018; Tiwari, Bhat, & Tikoria, 2017a). Emotional intelligence significantly impacts students' entrepreneurial intentions (Archana & Vasanthi Kumari, 2018), and a significant positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence, entrepreneurial attitudes, and entrepreneurial intentions for both management and non-management Indian students, which is also in line with the research of Zampetakis et al. (Chakraborty & Gupta, 2019).

Since the research exploring entrepreneurial intentions and emotional intelligence has gotten more common over the last five years, additional factors explaining both constructs are being considered and researched. Namely, entrepreneurial intentions were suggested to be directly and positively affected by problem-solving skills (which also directly and positively affected creativity), emotional self-awareness, and impulse control (Yıldırım et al., 2019). High entrepreneurial self-efficacy and emotional intelligence result in higher entrepreneurial career intentions (McLaughlin, 2019). Furthermore, in addition to emotional intelligence, there are two additional types of intelligence, that is, intellectual and spiritual, which directly influence entrepreneurial intention, and indirectly through the three aspects of the TPB, attitude towards the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control (Nursiah et al., 2020). Intellectual intelligence is "the ability of one's insight and intelligence to adapt effectively and dynamically", and consists of the ability to solve problems, verbal intelligence (conveying ideas) and practical intelligence (executing decisions), whereas spiritual intelligence is "the intelligence of the soul that helps a person to develop themselves intact through the creation of the possibility to apply positive values" (Nursiah et al., 2020:3). Five elements of spiritual intelligence are spiritual resource problem solving, spiritual utilization and practice in daily life, higher level of self-awareness, recognizing aspects of non-material life, and behaving well. The latest research suggests increasing student's entrepreneurial motivation by developing their entrepreneurial psychological and social skills, i.e., emotional dimension and critical thinking (Nursiah et al., 2020; Swarupa & Goyal, 2020).

Being emotionally intelligent means being able to differentiate between one's emotions, which is merely the pathway towards its regulation and control (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Takšić et

[1] Social entrepreneurial intentions are intentions to creating businesses aimed at solving social problems (Mair et al., 2006).

al., 2006). Emotional regulation leads to the control of one's psychological state, which, in turn, further affects one's perception of their social and physical environment (Baumeister & Vohs, 2004). It is, therefore, suggested that emotional regulation and control influences individuals' entrepreneurial intentions, even beyond the effect of career adaptability. Since a lack of research that focuses on the relationship between the regulation and control of emotions and entrepreneurial intentions exists not only in Croatia but also in general to this day, this doctoral research aimed to address this gap in the empirical literature. Hence, the contribution of emotional regulation and control to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability will be investigated as the second research problem for this dissertation (*H2: Emotional regulation and control contributes to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability*).

2.2. Career Adaptability

Ever since the beginning of time, change has been the only omnipresent aspect in life. People who adjusted their behavior in specific ways were more easily adapted to their surroundings. In 1859, Charles Darwin's *Origin of Species* affirmed that the ability to adapt is the sole route to survival. More than a century later, Potts (2002) elaborated on the existing connection between the evolution of biological complexity and adaptability in organisms. Namely, "adaptive versatility is evolvable" and is, thus, key to "understanding the ecological and adaptive history of humans characterized by two different ecological themes: habitat-specific adaptation and increased adaptability" (Potts, 2002:34).

The beginning of the 20th century revealed the initial signs of the necessity for adaptability both in people's personal and professional lives. Industrialization led to a plethora of diversely paid professions that created a demand for helping individuals deal with various types of employment. Also, new boundaryless careers characterized by individuals' increased flexibility and self-directedness emerged and replaced traditional ones (see Table 2; Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan, 1999). Five presumptions about individuals and their work lives include contextual possibilities, dynamic processes, non-linear progression, multiple perspectives, and personal patterns (Savickas et al., 2009). Hence, the contextualized life-designing model for career intervention is "based on social constructionism where individual's knowledge and identity are the product of social interaction" (Savickas et al., 2009:239). Social constructionism argues that reality does not exist independent of people. Namely, people construct their reality through social processes and interpersonal relationships (Savickas, 2013).

Adaptability, in itself, is the willingness to change to suit different conditions, and, in turn, that change cultivates personal development. Nevertheless, according to Savickas (2013), change requires notable effort. Since individuals get accustomed to their routines quickly, changes are usually not proactively undertaken by individuals. What prompts individuals to change are certain external social events Savickas classified as vocational development tasks, work-related transitions, and work traumas. Thus, career adaptability, dependent upon social, institutional, and cultural context (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012), is defined as "the readiness to cope with predictable tasks of preparing for and participating in work roles, and with the unpredictable adjustments prompted by changes in work and working conditions" (Savickas, 1997:254). It is considered a "psychosocial construct which includes readiness and resources for successfully

facing vocational tasks, occupational transitions, and unexpected challenges" (Johnston, 2018:3; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012) and entails four conceptualized constructs: career concern, control, curiosity, and confidence (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Table 2 Difference between Traditional and Boundaryless Careers

	Traditional	***Boundaryless***
Employment relationship	Job security for loyalty	Employability for performance and flexibility
Boundaries	One or two firms	Multiple firms
Skills	Firm specific	Transferable
Success measured by	Pay, promotion, status	Psychologically meaningful work
Responsibility for career management	Organization	Individual
Training	Formal programs	On-the-job
Milestones	Age-related	Learning-related

(Source: Author's Work According to Sullivan, 1999:458)

A more contemporary definition of career adaptability proposes career adaptability as the ability to "make self-adjustment in the career scene in the form of capacity, will, and commitment for self-control to cope with tasks, transitions, or trauma as well as to anticipate all possibilities in the vocational future" (Kusyadi, 2020:24).

Technological advancement in the 21st century has left its mark and profoundly altered the traditional way of establishing one's career, which was being employed in one company for all one's life. According to the literature review of Dreyer (2020), *Millennials/Generation Y* born from 1981-1996, and *Post-Millennials/Generation Z* born from 1997-2012, do not only have utterly divergent perspectives on employment than *Generation X*, that is, their previous generation, but are also becoming more aware of the high level of career adaptation requirement. Moreover, especially in the last three years, educators and researchers have been focusing intensely on researching the concept of career adaptability as well as career adaptability development (such as Coetzee, Bester, Ferreira, & Potgieter, 2020; Gregor et al., 2020; Jia, Hou, Zhang, & Xiao, 2020; Johnston, 2018; Spurk, Volmer, Orth, & Göritz, 2020). Higher education institutions should engage in various activities to intensively support students in career planning. Such activities could include setting up career centers and counseling

(Rossier et al., 2017), internships opportunities (Ocampo et al., 2020), or even including career-related resources and giving seminars on professional topics (Bal & Arikan, 2020).

2.2.1. The Theory and Practice of Career Construction

The Theory of Career Construction (CCT) was brought to light by Mark L. Savickas in the final decades of the 20th century. This period of radical changes in people's life and work led to a necessity in dealing with career interventions and negotiating career changes (Dix, 2020). CCT is a structural counseling model for career construction since individuals are aided in establishing themselves as actors, agents, and authors and are encouraged to use their adaptability and identity to construct themselves a more rewarding life (Savickas, 2013). Hence, CCT explains human behavior as adaptable to its social environment aiming at integration between the person and the environment (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012). Moreover, Savickas (2013:147) postulates that the CCT deals with "the interpretive and interpersonal processes through which individuals construct themselves, impose direction on their vocational behavior, and make meaning of their careers."

Savickas (2013) believes that confidence arises from daily problem-solving tasks such as everyday chores or hobbies, however, it is essential in constructing one's career as reflected in self-esteem and self-efficacy. According to Ajzen (1991), cognitive self-regulation is a valuable aspect of human behavior. In addition to actors and their self-construction, adaptability and identity are elaborated as two necessary meta-competencies for career construction in the 21st century. Adaptability presents the willingness and the ability to direct one's work-life, while identity gives meaning to vocational behavior and work-related activities. The three perspectives of the self are self as an *actor* (co-constructing reputation and person types), self as an *agent* (adapting to tasks, transitions, and traumas), and self as an *author* (narrating a career story; Savickas, 2013).

Furthermore, CCT roots from the *Career Development Theory* (CDT) from Super (1992) and represents a "contemporary vision of careers by using social constructionism as a metatheory with which to reconceptualize central concepts of vocational development theory" (Savickas, 2005:42). In the CDT, Super proposed the idea of lifelong occupational transitions.

On the other hand, Dix (2020) sees the CCT as an improved autobiography, namely, as a *life-writing*:

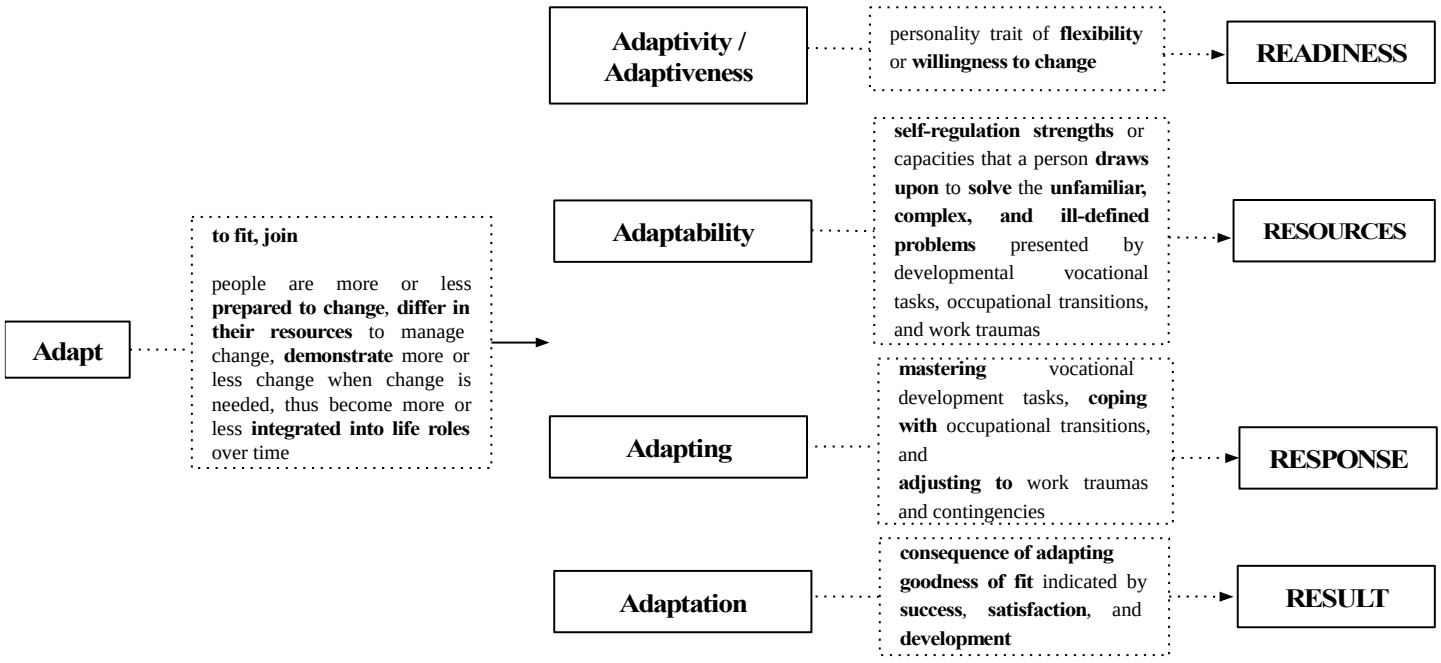
> "By encouraging clients to see their careers as stories of which they are both the metaphorical authors and the main protagonists, career construction counsellors enable them to envisage the next chapter in those stories. Periods of troubling change or uncertainty, when people do not know what to do next in their lives, are thus treated as experiences akin to 'writer's block', experiences which can be overcome first by imagining new character arcs, then by narrating them and finally by performing them." (Dix, 2020:1)

Despite the general wide-spread use of the CCT in literature, research reveals further theories on which career adaptability can be based, such as *The Social Cognitive Career Theory* (SCCT; Bandura, 1989; Lent et al., 2002). SCCT explores the relation of the individual to their career-related behavior and contexts. Motivational factors from the SCCT are self-efficacy beliefs, outcome expectations, and goals, which develop vocational interests and are key in making choices, and attaining levels of work satisfaction and success (Bobek & Robbins, 2005). Other theories include the *Self-Regulation Theory* (Creed et al., 2009), and the *Motivational Systems Theory* (Ford, 1992), both of which are concerned with career adaptability being internal, that is, rooted within a person, in a career context.

2.2.1.1. Adaptability Readiness, Resources, Responses and Results

According to the Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology (Hoad, 1996), the English word and verb *"to adapt"* dates back to the 15th century and comes from the Latin words *"aptus"* and *"adaptare"*, and the old French word *"adapter"*, which means "to fit something, for some purpose". As elaborated in Figure 6, there are clear distinctions between derivatives of the word *"adapt"* based on the Savickas' *CCT*. These include adaptivity or adaptiveness, adaptability, adapting, and adaptation (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), or, in other words, adaptation readiness, resources, responses, and results. Adaptation results are outcomes accomplished by people who are willing (they have achieved adaptive readiness), and able (who possess adaptability resources) to carry out coping behaviors that deal with changes (adapting responses; Savickas,2013).

Figure 6 Derivatives of the Word "Adapt" and its Meaning for Career Construction Theory



(Source: Author's Work According to Savickas and Porfeli, 2012:749)

Savickas and Porfeli (2012:663) admirably illustrated the CCT example on an analogy to airline travel:

> "In preparing to depart, flight attendants ask passengers seated in an exit row whether they are "willing and able" to assist in an emergency. Some people may be willing yet unable; other people may be unwilling yet able. In the language of career construction theory, the attendant is asking the passengers whether they have the willingness and resources that may be needed to act in an emergency. Career construction theory views "willing and able" as "adaptivity and adaptability" or as "readiness and resources". To continue the analogy, the airplane emergency might require some lifesaving actions. In career construction, this adapting or "doing" involves the behaviors that function to accomplish orientation, exploration, establishment, management, and disengagement. The adapting, in turn, leads to some outcome or adaptation that is judged for its goodness of fit as indicated by development, satisfaction, success, and stability."

The CCT was additionally theoretically refined by the delivery of the concept of four career adaptability dimensions (Savickas, 1997, 2005, 2013; Savickas et al., 2009; Savickas & Porfeli,

2012). As depicted in Table 3, the four adapt-ability resources or dimensions, also named the model of 4C's, include *career concern* (planning), *career control* (decision making), *career curiosity* (exploring), and *career confidence* (problem solving). The model of 4C's supports self-regulation strategies (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Table 3 Career Adapt-Ability Resources

Adaptability Dimensions	Attitudes and Beliefs	Competence	Career Problem	Coping Behaviors
CONCERN	Planful	Planning	Indifference	Aware, Involved, Preparing
CONTROL	Decisive	Decision making	Indecision	Assertive, Disciplined, Willful
CURIOSITY	Inquisitive	Exploring	Unrealism	Experimenting, Risk-Taking, Inquiring
CONFIDENCE	Efficacious	Problem solving	Inhibition	Persisting, Striving, Industrious

(Source: Author's Work According to Savickas, 2013:158)

Johnston (2018) explains *career concern* as thinking ahead and planning for what is to come, while *career control* deals with personal management in regard to shaping one's future. *Career curiosity* explores various roles an individual can have, whereas *career confidence* is seen as a belief that individuals can exercise choices about their careers and attain their goals. The model of 4C's is used as a guideline when discussing and measuring career adaptability (Hirschi, 2009; Koen et al., 2010).

2.2.2. Career Adaptability Assessment Tools

Over the last decade and a half, various scales and measurement approaches to career adaptability have been created (see Table 4). In choosing the most appropriate scale to measure career adaptability, it is compulsory to have a coherent theoretical framework that explains whether a measurement specific of a career is required, or a more global one (Johnston, 2018).

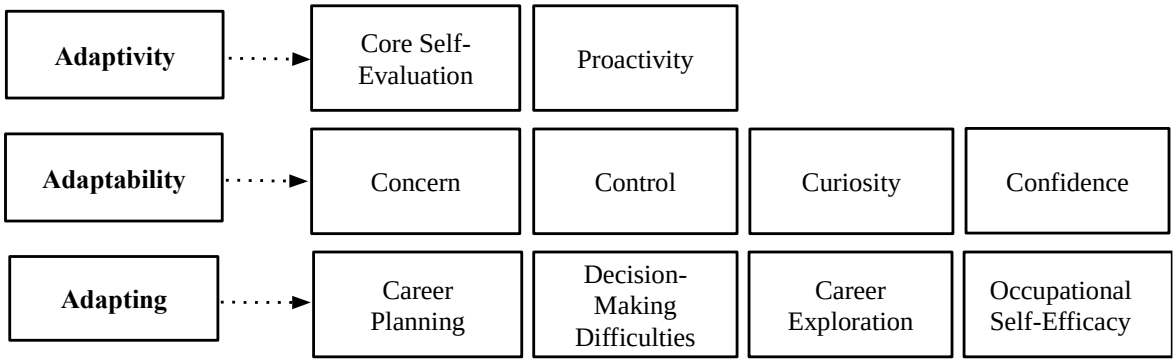
Table 4 Overview of Career Adaptability Assessment Tools

MEASURES	AUTHORS	YEAR	SUBDIMENSIONS	ITEMS
Career Futures Inventory	Rottinghaus, Day and Borgen	2005	Career Adaptability, Career Optimism, Perceived Knowledge	25
I-Adapt Scale	Ployhart and Bliese	2006	Culture, Uncertainty, Physical, Interpersonal, Learning,Work, Stress, Creativity, Crisis	55
Student's Career Construction Inventory	Savickas	2009	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Cooperation	25
Career Maturity Inventory – Form C	Savickas and Porfeli	2011	Career Choice Readiness, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Consultation	24
Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)	Savickas and Porfeli	2012	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence	24
Career and Work Adaptability Questionnaire	Nota, Ginevra and Soresi	2012	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence	50
Career Adaptability Inventory	Ferreira, Coetzee and Masenge	2013	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Cooperation	55
Career Adapt-Abilities Scale-Short Form	Maggiori, Rossier and Savickas	2017	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence	12
Five-Factor CAAS	Nye, Leong, Prasad,Gardner and Tien	2018	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Cooperation	30
Five-Factor CAAS-Short Form	Sou, Yuen and Chen	2020	Concern, Control, Curiosity, Confidence, Cooperation	15

(Source: Johnston, 2018:7 Expanded by the Author)

Consequently, Hirschi, Herrmann, and Keller (2015) theoretically combined several measurement approaches (see Figure 7), and concluded that career adaptability partially mediates the effects of trait-like adaptivity on various career-specific adapting behavioral forms.

Figure 7 Various Traits of Adaptivity, Adaptability and Adapting



(Source: Author's Work According to Hirschi,2015:3)

However, the most widely used scale to measure career adaptability is the *Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* (CAAS) from Savickas and Porfeli (2012). Namely, in 2008, an international team of, so called "Life Design", psychologists from 18 countries (Australia, Belgium, Brazil, China, England, France, Germany, Hong Kong, Iceland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Netherlands, Portugal, South Africa, Switzerland, Taiwan, and the USA), held a symposium in Berlin aiming to construct an international scale to measure the construct of career adaptability in the same way world-wide. The psychologists decided to construct the international scale in the English language and then translate it to their respective languages.

The CAAS framework consists of four scales, i.e., "adapt-abilities" of career concern, control, curiosity, and confidence as psychosocial resources, each consisting of six items (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012). Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted, internal consistency estimates were excellent, and the reliability and construct validity ranged from acceptable to excellent across countries. Hence, the measure has large utility in the internationalization of career development research in the 21st century world-wide (such as Park & Park, 2020; Porfeli & Savickas, 2012; Rossier, Zecca, Stauffer, Maggiori, & Dauwalder, 2012; Ryba, Zhang, Huang, & Aunola, 2017; Savickas & Porfeli, 2012; Šverko & Babarović, 2019; Tak, 2012; Tien, Lin,

Hsieh, & Jin, 2014; Urbanaviciute, Kairys, Pociute, & Liniauskaite, 2014; Van Vianen, Klehe, Koen, & Dries, 2012; Vilhjálmsdóttir, Kjartansdóttir, Smáradóttir, & Einarsdóttir, 2012). Maggiori, Rossier, and Savickas (2015) created a short form of the CAAS (CAAS-SF) as an "economical" alternative, where each dimension is measured by only three items (twelve items in total). Invariance conditions consist of configural, scalar and metric invariance and ascertain whether latent construct measurement vary across multiple groups. According to Xu and Tracey (2017:75) "configural invariance refers to a qualitatively invariant measurement pattern of latent constructs across groups, metric invariance refers to a quantitatively invariant measurement model of latent constructs across groups, while scale invariance refers to invariant mean levels of latent constructs across groups". The CAAS-SF had satisfactory configural, full metric and scalar invariance, and was, thus, validated as reliable for measuring career adaptability (Işık et al., 2018; Paradniké & Bandzevičienė, 2016; Yu et al., 2019). Moreover, the latest research from Sou, Yuen, and Chen (2020) incorporated an additional factor to the CAAS-SF. The fifth factor, *cooperation*, was an additional predictor of career success, resulting in the author's creation of a five-factor version of the CAAS-SF.

The utility of CAAS is so remarkably widespread that even researchers from countries not included in its creation have been using the scale to measure the career adaptability construct, such as Australia (Tolentino, Garcia, et al., 2014), Brazil (Cammarosano et al., 2019), Croatia (Babarović & Šverko, 2016), Iran (McKenna et al., 2016), Lithuania (Urbanaviciute et al., 2014), Papua New Guinea (de Guzman & Choi, 2013), or Serbia (Mirković et al., 2020; Tolentino, Sedoglavich, et al., 2014). Hence, the CAAS's common international utility for career adaptability research is apparent, which is why in this research the Savickas and Porfeli's CAAS and all its self-report items will be used to assess the career adaptability construct.

2.2.3. Previous Research on Career Adaptability and its Antecedents

Adaptability as a psychosocial construct is extremely sensitive to context and age (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), which is why the acquisition of career adaptability should start at a young age. Children need to learn to imagine their future, make educational and career choices, mindfully think about themselves and their professions and deal with problems (Hartung, Porfeli, & Vondracek, 2008). Zacher (2014b) affirmed that age, education, and future temporal focus predict a change in overall career adaptability. Additionally, resources and responses contribute

to positive transitions and personal functioning from teenage years to adulthood (Johnston, 2018).

Research exploring gender differences in career adaptability shows ambiguous findings (Babarović & Šverko, 2016). Many researchers find no evidence of statistically significant differences between gender (such as Maggiori et al., 2015; Rossier et al., 2012; Rudolph et al., 2017). Kelly and Colangelo (1990) investigated the effect of gender on career maturity and ascertained no differences, which is in line with the research of Patton et al. (2002) who concluded that career maturity is not affected by gender. Hsiu-Lan et al. (2014) found no mean differences between gender when exploring career adaptability, however, the reason for that may be the fact that their sample consisted of middle and high school students who are perceived to be less mature than, for example, university students (Bar-On, 1997). On the other hand, gender is found to correlate with career adaptability (Patton & Lokan, 2001), and gender differences seem to exist in the relationship between vocational identity and career adaptability (Zhang et al., 2021). In particular, Urbanaviciute et al. (2014) found that women perceive themselves to be *sticking up for their beliefs*, which is one of items from the CAAS, more than men do. Duarte et al. (2012) concluded that women are more concerned and curious about their future career than are men, which is in line with the research of Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2018). In addition, women who are older and who also possess high emotional intelligence tend to develop career adaptability over time (Bato ÇiZel, 2018; Hirschi, 2009). Career decision self-efficacy is perceived to be more important for women's career adaptability than it is for men's (Dostanić et al., 2021). Interestingly, Han and Rojewski (2015) found evidence of men being more influenced by career adaptability in experiencing job satisfaction than women.

As claimed by Chen et al. (2020), Web of Science search under the topic of career adaptability from 2010 to 2020 shows connections between career adaptability scale, career construction, and personality. Research by Veres and Szamosközi (2017) revealed personality traits, work experience, and grade point average (GPA) as predictors of career adaptability. Moreover, within-person variability in personality predicts career adaptability (Storme et al., 2020). Within-person variability is a flexibility in personality states, i.e. an "indication of the extent to which the expression of the individual's personality is influenced by contextual

factors" (Storme et al., 2020:2), and stems from the *Whole Trait Theory*[2] (Fleeson & Jayawickreme, 2015). Career adaptability is moderately related to personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism, however, personality traits which strongly predict career exploration are openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Šverko & Babarović, 2016; Van Vianen et al., 2012; Zacher, 2014b). While confidence correlates highly with the need for achievement and internal locus of control, it has inverse relation to trait anxiety and fear of failure (Pouyaud et al., 2012). Team-work skills and the development of individual's emotional intelligence are suggested to result in strengthened career adaptability (Coetzee & Harry, 2013; de Guzman & Choi, 2013), and career adaptability also predicts daily tasks, jobs, career performance and satisfaction (Spurk et al., 2020; Zacher, 2014a, 2015).

The research in the last decade exhibits the mediating influence of career adaptability in the relationship between:

- person and environmental variables and career concerns (Creed et al., 2009)
- personality traits and career exploration behavior (Y. Li et al., 2015),
- calling and career competencies (Dumulescu et al., 2015)
- personality and career engagement (Nilforooshan & Salimi, 2016)
- dark triad traits (Machiavellianism, narcissism, psychopathy) and attitudes towards organizational changes (Suvajdžić, 2018)
- entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention (Qiao & Huang, 2019)
- career orientation and career optimism (Chui et al., 2020).
- personality traits (employee resilience, focus on opportunity, work-related curiosity) and innovative work behavior (Abukhait et al., 2020)

The success in one's career is dependent upon the individual's cumulated behaviors during an extensive period of time. Thus, productivity is crucial as it explains both the objective and the subjective career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999). Subjective career success is positively related to inner resources, namely, motivational and environmental career resources, while objective career success is positively related to knowledge and skills (Haenggli & Hirschi, 2020). However, subjective career success is predicted by career adaptability beyond personality traits and core self-evaluations (Zacher, 2014a).

[2] Whole trait theory proposes that traits describe how people behave, but they also consist of mechanisms capable of differentiating between situations.

Career indecisiveness has a negative correlation to extraversion and emotional stability, perceived social support, and career decision self-efficacy (Di Fabio et al., 2013). Nevertheless, while resilience, hope, and optimism as positive personality traits positively predict career adaptability (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016), perceptions of barriers negatively predict career adaptability through grit and coping with barriers (Gregor et al., 2020). Moreover, religious individuals are more confident in their career decisions making process and tend to explore various career options (Duffy & Blustein, 2005).

The *Career Adapt-Ability Scale* captures an element of self-efficacy and a desire to develop and work well (Johnston,2018). Moreover, career self-efficacy is the strongest predictor of career adaptability, followed by personal goal orientation, career concern, and perceived social support (Ebenehi et al., 2016). Both career adaptability and self-efficacy are positively related to self-perceived employability (Atitsogbe et al., 2019). While various personal and environmental factors influence one's career path, career adaptability and career resilience are merely two resources that encourage employability and promote a fortunate life (Rossier et al., 2017; Tien & Wang, 2017). High levels of career adaptability in individuals result in high graduate employability (Coetzee et al., 2015; de Guzman & Choi, 2013), and according to Kwon (2019), career adaptability and work volition also predict employability. Thus, there is a need for young adults to be enabled to cope with the demands of the 21st century by developing their career adaptability and graduate employability capacities (Ismail, 2017).

Hirschi (2009) stated that, over time, career adaptability development predicts a higher sense of power and experience of life satisfaction. Predictors of career adaptability development are positive emotional disposition, goal decidedness, capability beliefs, and social context beliefs. (Hirschi, 2009). Thus, for an easier transition into the labor market, students need to be provided with career management resources to control their attributes (Monteiro et al., 2020). Consequently, there has been an increase in successful student career development courses, as students are being taught proactiveness and how to develop career adaptability resources to enhance adapting responses after the course (Bal & Arikan, 2020; Green et al., 2019). Career adaptability and career competencies are resources that not only predict and contribute to life satisfaction, but also to academic performance (Akkermans et al., 2018), which is in line with the research of Negru-Subtirica and Pop (2016), who posit that career concern predicts academic achievement.

Yang, Feng, Meng, & Qiu (2019) incorporated the Chinese social aspect of networking, which is called *guanxi*, into career adaptability research, and concluded that when *guanxi* is low, career adaptability has a stronger indirect effect on employee well-being through work engagement. Additionally, seeking proactive feedback is suggested to positively influence employers' career adaptability (Gong et al., 2020). Moreover, career optimism and developmental leadership, "a style of leadership aimed at developing and enhancing employees' work-related knowledge, skills, and competences and facilitating their personal and career development" (Delle & Searle, 2020:3), are positively related to career adaptability, which is, in turn, positively related to ambidextrous behavior[3] (Affum-Osei et al., 2019). As there is a positive relationship between career adaptabilities and future employment status (Maggiori et al.,2017), individuals should focus on developing their proactiveness, as proactivity is not only a predictor of career adaptability (Hirschi et al., 2015) but it also promotes thriving at work (Jiang, 2016). Moreover, proactive personality is a common antecedent in career and entrepreneurship research (Uy et al., 2015).

The most contemporary research on career adaptability includes the motivational role of future time perspective as adaptivity in the career construction model of adaptation (Jia, Hou, & Shen, 2020), while the 21st-century adaptive readiness consists of technological adaptivity, agile learning, and career navigation function (Coetzee et al., 2020).

2.2.3.1. Career Adaptability and Entrepreneurial Intentions

The employment conditions nowadays demand individuals to be adaptable and resilient in their career self-management (Coetzee et al., 2020). Having a proactive personality supports alertness to opportunities which results in a boundaryless career mindset and career adaptability (Uy et al., 2015). Furthermore, career adaptability is significantly related to entrepreneurial intention (Lin, 2019; Qiao, 2019; Tolentino, Sedoglavich, et al., 2014). As Johnston (2018) stated, the predictor of adaptability resource is the temporal focus whereas its correlates are the perceived barriers, and entrepreneurial intentions are the outcome.

Furthermore, entrepreneurial mindset gains are positively associated with future career success (Rodriguez & Lieber, 2020). Learning how to make a business plan, or industrial and

[3] the individual's ability to simultaneously handle the new competence exploration with existing competence exploitation at work

commercial tax registration, increases entrepreneurial knowledge of financial and enterprise management, which results in enhancing students' entrepreneurial intentions (Qiao & Huang, 2019). Tolentino et al. (2014) affirmed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy is the mediator in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. In turn, Qiao & Huang (2019) stated that career adaptability has a mediating effect on the relationship between entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention of students. The same was stated by McKenna et al. (2016), since overall career adaptability, with all its dimensions, was related to entrepreneurial intentions in such a way that individuals less pleased with their careers were likelier to develop entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, entrepreneurial alertness is the most salient predictor of both entrepreneurial intentions and career adaptability. Self-efficacy and resilience predict entrepreneurial alertness, which in turn mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and resilience, and career adaptability (Obschonka et al., 2018). Although Atitsogbe et al. (2019) assumed that career adaptability would have a negative effect on self-efficacy in predicting entrepreneurial intentions, their assumption was not supported. Namely, entrepreneurial intentions were affirmed to be context-dependent, while career adaptability was considered essential for employability. Thus, adaptive individuals, successful in performing entrepreneurial roles, are more equipped to develop business intentions (Tolentino, Sedoglavich, et al., 2014), and their career adaptability has predictive validity for many career, work, and well-being outcomes (Rudolph et al., 2017).

At the beginning of 2020, an outbreak and pandemic of the COVID-19 virus emerged throughout the globe, menacing the public's health and safety and bringing about a global sense of unpredictability (Hite & McDonald, 2020). The World Health Organization's emphasis was not immediately placed as much on damage control as it was on coping mechanisms for all health-care practitioners who attempted to deal with instantaneous changes. The health-care providers were the first who needed to adapt to the uncertainties in their day-to-day work rapidly. The shock of career consequences of the on-going pandemic remains tangible as individuals in low-income occupations are most affected (Akkermans et al., 2020) and are forced to adapt to the new normal. In line with the research of Neto et al. (2019) and Neto and Lusinchi (2020), career adaptability is related to and predicts the entrepreneurial behavior of educators, which, amid current pandemic, is being proven incredibly valuable as educators worldwide manage efficient ways of providing education. Due to immense job-losses, counseling is suggested as a way of coping and adapting (Wen, Chen, Li, et al., 2020). Nonetheless, the pandemic may contribute to flexible employment (Spurk & Straub, 2020) and

if individuals effectively regulate their emotions, they will increase their career adaptability (Restubog et al., 2020).

As evidenced in the previous two subchapters, research on career adaptability, amongst other relationships, places emphasis on the connection to entrepreneurial intentions, but also to emotional intelligence. However, the inter-connected relationship of these constructs has, so far, not been explored despite numerous research findings on their separate connections. Therefore, this research aimed at exploring the constructs (career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, entrepreneurial intentions) in a novel way, which will be described in the last section of this chapter. Additionally, due to previous research findings on the likelihood of career adaptability differences between women and men, the effect of gender will also be additionally controlled for in the entrepreneurial intention prediction model created for this dissertation.

2.3. Emotional Intelligence, Regulation and Control

"He is a man of intelligence, but to act sensibly, intelligence is not enough."

~ Fyodor Dostoevsky (1993:299)

2.3.1. The Emergence of the Emotional Intelligence Concept

In 1872, Charles Darwin elaborated upon the significance of expressing emotions for survival and adaptation as a slightly wider area of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 2006). Three decades later, Charles Spearman, who was the originator of the factor analysis, in 1904 had published *A Two-Factor Theory of Intelligence* that entailed the *general factor of intelligence (g),* which represented the general ability, and the *specific factor of intelligence (s)*, which represented the ability that was specific to a given test (Williams et al., 2003). However, it was not before the beginning of the 20th century when the social intelligence was appropriately acknowledged as "an intelligence where the situation to which we respond is a direct, immediate, personal, human situation" (Thorndike, 1920:229). The expression was coined by Thorndike, an American psychologist, who explicated social intelligence as the ability to act wisely in social relations by understanding and managing individuals.

In 1938, Louis Leon Thurstone published *Primary Mental Abilities*, which was a theory of intelligence that expanded Spearman's theory and elaborated on seven mental abilities (*verbal-literary, verbal-linguistic, arithmetical, visuo-spatial, classification, memory, relational, audio-rhythmic;* Thurstone, 1938). Two years later, David Wechsler, a psychologist at Bellevue Psychiatric Hospital in New York, asserted that intelligent behavior consists of *non-intellective* factors, namely, the personality capacities and traits (Krishnan & Awang, 2020; Wechsler, 1940, 1943). In 1939, Wechsler created a clinical instrument named the *Wechsler-Bellevue Scale of Intelligence* based on anthropometric mental testing, association psychology, Binet-Simon scales[4], immigrants performance tests, and military recruits group testing. The scale was used to research the lateralization of certain intellectual functions in the brain (Carroll, 1941; Boake, 2002; Dhaliwal, 2016).

[4] The Binet and Simon's Measuring Scale of Intelligence is a combination of various mental tests developed by Binet and his colleagues used for achieving a composite score in the foundation of intelligence scales (Boake, 2002)

Further, in 1956, Joy Paul Guilford created the *Structure of Intellect* model in which he argued that intelligence consists of numerous mental abilities, i.e. factors, separated into dimensions of *operations*, *content*, and *products*. Guilford's final model entailed 180 intelligence factors (Guilford, 1956). Then, in 1983, Howard Gardner, a Harvard psychologist, asserted that the existence of inherited and culturally derived *Multiple Intelligences* of a person is employed in various every day, educational, and work settings (Green, Hill, Friday, & Friday, 2005). The eight intelligence types that he had diversified were *linguistic*, *logical-mathematical*, *spatial*, *bodily-kinesthetic*, *musical*, *interpersonal*, *intrapersonal*, and *natural intelligence* (Gardner, 1983, 1999). *Intrapersonal intelligence* is the ability to understand one's own emotions and feelings, while *interpersonal intelligence* consists of understanding other's emotions and feeling and creating successful relationships (Behjat, 2012; Takšić et al., 2006). Thus, the differentiation of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence was essential for developing the basic concept of emotional intelligence, especially since emotional intelligence is viewed as incorporating the understanding and differentiation of one's and other's emotional states in order to solve potential problems and regulate behavior (Takšić et al., 2006).

Furthermore, Sternberg (1985) elaborated upon the *Triarchic Intelligence Theory* by explaining three sub-theories. The *componential sub-theory* represents academic proficiency and entails the *analytical* type of intelligence. The *experiential sub-theory* represents innovativeness, and flexibility, and includes the *creative* type of intelligence, while the *contextual sub-theory* represents adaptation to the environment and consists of the *practical* type of intelligence. Gardner's and Sternberg's alternate theories were initially met with opposition, but were eventually equally acknowledged in society just as the theories of intelligence by Spearman, Thurstone, and Guilford (Takšić, 2001). As evidenced, at the time, the concept of various intelligence types was thought-provoking and has, therefore, gradually laid the groundwork for the emergence of the emotional intelligence concept.

Emotions are reactions that create an individual's responses to relevant occurrences, and which take an essential part in the evolution of consciousness and the operations of all mental processes (Izard, 2009). Gross and Levenson (1993:970) mentioned that "emotions unfold over a relatively brief time course, are malleable, and have components in the domains of physiological response, subjective experience, and expressive behavior". Also, emotions are multifaceted and should not be seen as a single process (Izard, 2009; Tamminen & Bennett, 2017). Salovey and Mayer (1989:189) were the leading psychologists who affirmed emotional

intelligence as the "subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". Their *model of emotional intelligence* consists of four-branch adaptive abilities, namely, *the appraisal of one's and others emotions* (emotion perception), *expression of emotion* (emotion understanding), *regulation of emotion in the self and others* (emotion regulation), and *utilization of emotion in solving problems* (emotion facilitation; Avsec et al., 2020; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Roberts, MacCann, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2010; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995). Therefore, for this research, the theoretical frameworks explaining the literature review of past and present research on emotional intelligence includes both Gardner's (1983) *Multiple Intelligence Theory (MIT),* and *The Emotional Intelligence Model* by Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Moreover, emotional intelligence entails the ability to adaptively understand and manage ones and other's emotions, making individuals less vulnerable to the effects of environmental influences on a positive mood (Schutte et al.,2002). Also, flexible planning, creative thinking, redirecting attention, and motivation are incorporated into the utilization of emotions (Schutte et al., 1998). As shown by Takšić (2002), emotional intelligence is adaptive and positively connected to sensitivity for one's and others' emotions, emotional self-concept, coping with stress, maintaining a positive mood, and openness.

Further, emotional intelligence was brought to the forefront of public opinion, familiarized in business, and popularized by Daniel Goleman's (1998) first and second book E*motional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* and *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. In his research both on emotional intelligence and emotional intelligence in business, the construct was expanded by acknowledging and adding self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, and empathy to the already extensive list of social and communication skills necessary for success in the workplace (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 1999; Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, 2001; Goleman & Boyatzis, 1996; Goleman et al., 2002; Schutte et al., 1998). Table 5 includes a more recent framework of four emotional intelligence domains and their twelve competencies.

Nonetheless, the explanation of the emotional intelligence concept is threefold as it is viewed either as a *cognitive ability* (Caruso et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer,

1990), a *personality trait* (Bar-On, 1997, 2001, 2006; Petrides, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) or a *mixture of both*. So far, the concept was elaborated upon the cognitive ability perspective. Yet, if discussing emotional intelligence as a personality trait, then the theoretical base roots from the traits and motivational disposition.

Table 5 Emotional Intelligence Domains and Competencies

Self-Awareness	Self-Management	Social Awareness	Relationship Management
Emotional Self-Awareness	Emotional Self-control	Empathy	Influence
			Coach and Mentor
	Adaptability		Conflict Management
	Achievement Orientation	Organization Awareness	
	Positive Outlook		Teamwork
			Inspiration Leadership

(Source: Author's Work According to Goleman & Boyatzis, 2017:3)

An essential perspective of a trait emotional intelligence was portrayed by Reuven Bar-On, an Israeli psychologist. Bar-On's (1997c, 2006b) social and emotional intelligence model entails a multi-factorial array of competencies and skills combined into five broad domains underlying emotional intelligence. The domains include: *intrapersonal* domain, which assesses self-awareness and self-expression; *interpersonal* domain, which deals with social awareness and interpersonal relationships; *stress management*, which incorporates emotional management and regulation; *adaptability*, which assesses change management, and *general mood*, which includes self-motivation. Further elaboration of all models follows in the next section of this dissertation. Table 6 provides an overview of more than nine decades of research on the emotional intelligence concept and theory.

However, over the years, research has revealed a difference in opinion regarding emotional intelligence. While some researchers believe the construct to be elusive, lacking empirical support, strenuous to validate, and in need of further theoretical development (Matthews et al., 2003; Waterhouse, 2006; Zeidner et al., 2001), others consider the concept grounded in scientific advances in the study of emotion, and, thus, essential for accomplishing a high-quality life throughout (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Di Fabio & Kenny, 2015; Ilić, 2008; López-Núñez

et al., 2020; Mayer et al., 2004; Smoljić et al., 2015; Udayar et al., 2018; Wilson, 2020). According to Pfeiffer (2001:138), emotional intelligence was perceived as "a result of a new Zeitgeist that embraced nontraditional views of intelligence that yet hold the promise for solving many of society's most pressing problems". However, almost two decades later, emotional intelligence is considered "a mainstay concept in leadership and team development" (Ackley, 2016), and is acknowledged as *sine qua non*, i.e., an essential condition (Walter et al., 2011).

Table 6 - Development of the Emotional Intelligence Concept

Year	Theory	Author
1904	*A Two-Factor Theory of Intelligence*	Charles Spearman
1920	*Social Intelligence*	Edward Lee Thorndike
1938	*Primary Mental Abilities*	Louis Leon Thurstone
1940	*Intelligence*	David Wechsler
1956	*Structure of Intellect*	Joy Paul Guilford
1983	*Multiple Intelligence*	Howard Gardner
1985	*Triarchic Theory of Human Intelligence*	Robert Sternberg
1990	*Emotional Intelligence*	John Mayer, Peter Salovey
1995	*Theory of Job and Work Performance*	Daniel Goleman
1997	*Emotional and Social Intelligence*	Reuven Bar-On

(Source: Author's Work Expanded from Krishnan & Awang,2020:88)

2.3.2. Emotional Intelligence Models and Assessment Tools

The three distinct emotional intelligence streams affirm the emotional intelligence concept as either a *cognitive ability*, a *personality trait*, or a *mixture of both* (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Krishnan & Awang, 2020). John Mayer and Peter Salovey's (1997) cognitive ability model of emotional intelligence is the first stream. The second stream is the personality trait model of emotional intelligence created by Petrides and Furnham (2000), while the last stream comprises of the mixed model of emotional intelligence established by Daniel

Goleman (1996) and Bar-On (1997c). Although the streams measure the same construct, a weak correlation exists between them. However, they differ both in theory and practice, are associated with widely used instruments, and all supply the evidence of reliability and validity (Ackley, 2016; Krishnan & Awang, 2020).

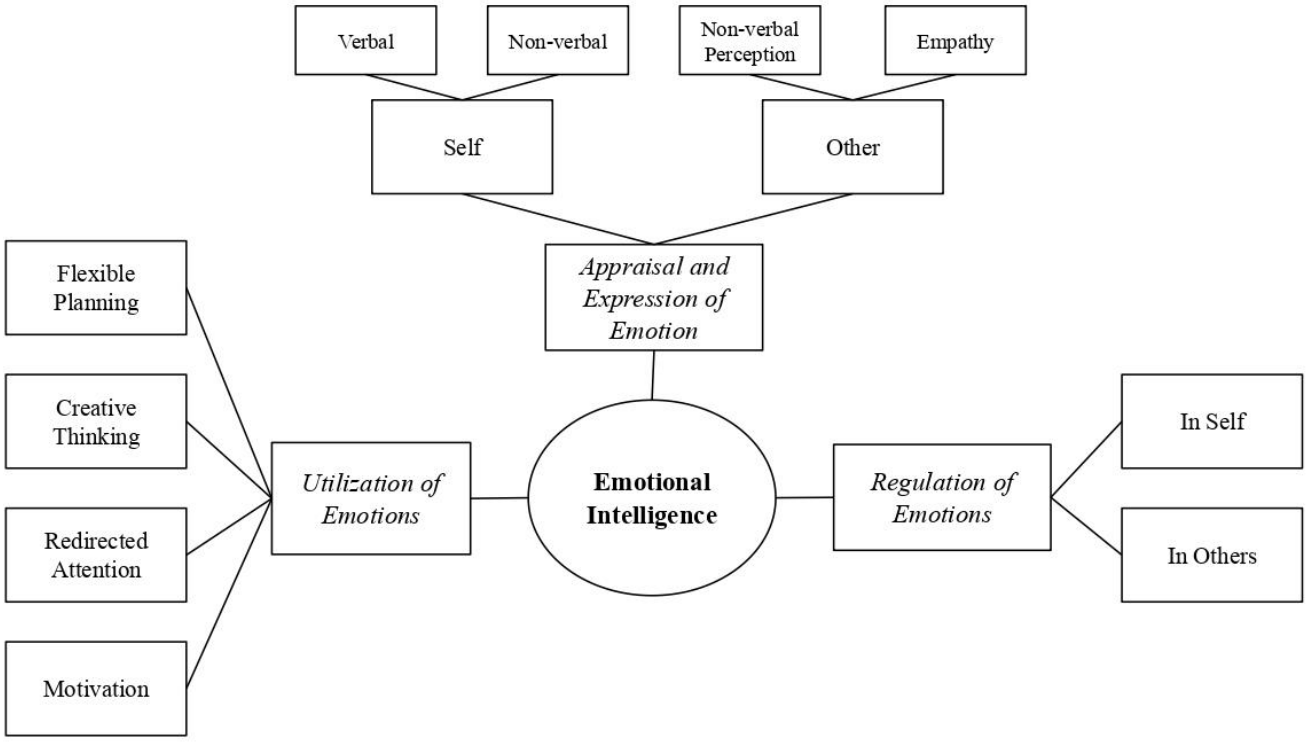
In the last two decades, the divergent opinions on emotional intelligence components gained tremendous attention in literature leading to a broad-spectrum of emotional intelligence measurements as more than thirty scales measuring the three streams of trait, ability and mixed emotional intelligence have emerged world-wide (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Avsec et al., 2020; O'Connor, Hill, Kaya, & Martin, 2019; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Nonetheless, Australian researchers are considered to be at the forefront of emotional intelligence assessment (Bucich & MacCann, 2019), and their chosen measures are distinguished based on authors' theoretical frameworks and understandings of the emotional intelligence concept. Moreover, according to the interpretation of the emotional intelligence research, various ways of scoring the achievement in an emotional intelligence test might provide contrasting results (Takšić et al., 2006).

2.3.2.1. Cognitive Ability Emotional Intelligence

The cognitive ability model of emotional intelligence is not only the "only logical construct to bear the label *emotional intelligence*" (Roberts, MacCann, Matthews, & Zeidner, 2010:821) but is also the "only strictly valid model of emotional intelligence" (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005:447). In 1990, Peter Salovey and John Mayer published two academic papers on emotional intelligence and created EI90, the first emotional intelligence model with three components consisting of additional dimensions, as presented in Figure 8.

The model's main components include *emotion's utilization, appraisal and expression of emotion*, and *regulation of emotions*. The utilization of emotions consists of flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention, and motivation. The branch of appraisal and expression of emotions consists of *self*, which is composed of verbal and non-verbal subcomponents, and of *others'* emotions, which comprises non-verbal perception and empathy. In addition, the regulation of emotions is divided into regulating one's own and other's emotions. Namely, EI90 explains how people perceive, express, and use their emotions and how they try to control or influence emotions of other people.

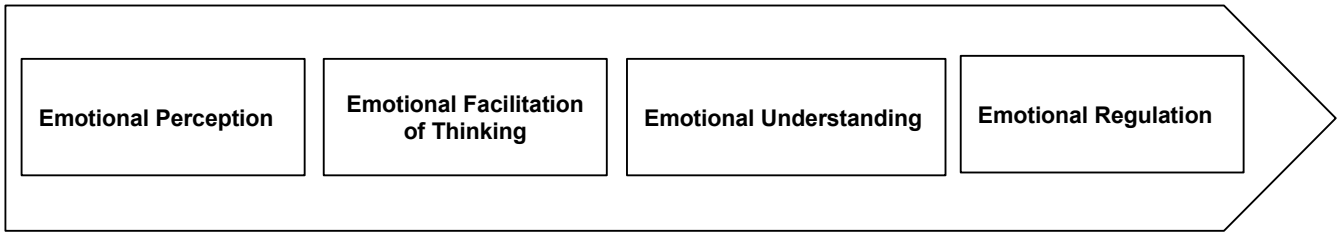
Figure 8 EI90 Model of Emotional Intelligence



(Source: Author's Work According to Salovey & Mayer, 1990:190)

The authors revised their initial EI90 model by explicating the EI97 model, namely, the four-branch abilities model consisting of *perception of emotion in self and others*, *emotional facilitation of thinking*, *understanding of emotion*, and *regulating emotion in self and others*. The revised EI97 model rigorously distinguished emotional intelligence as a mental ability concept from the Big Five personality traits and incorporated an additional performance-related domain of *emotional facilitation of thinkin*g (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). Moreover, according to Borah (2020), the EI97 model consists of four ability branches ranging from basic to complex. The first is *emotional perception*, which concerns differentiating emotions through facial expressions and body language that aids the individual express their emotions and perceive emotions in others. The second branch is the *emotional facilitation of thinking*, which regards the emotional input that helps thinking. The third is *emotional understanding*, which deals with categorizing, diversifying, and acknowledging emotions. The fourth branch is *emotional regulation*, which emphasizes the use of emotions to adjust reactions to one's surroundings (see Figure 9 and Figure 10).

Figure 9 Revised EI97 Model of Basic to Complex Ability Branches

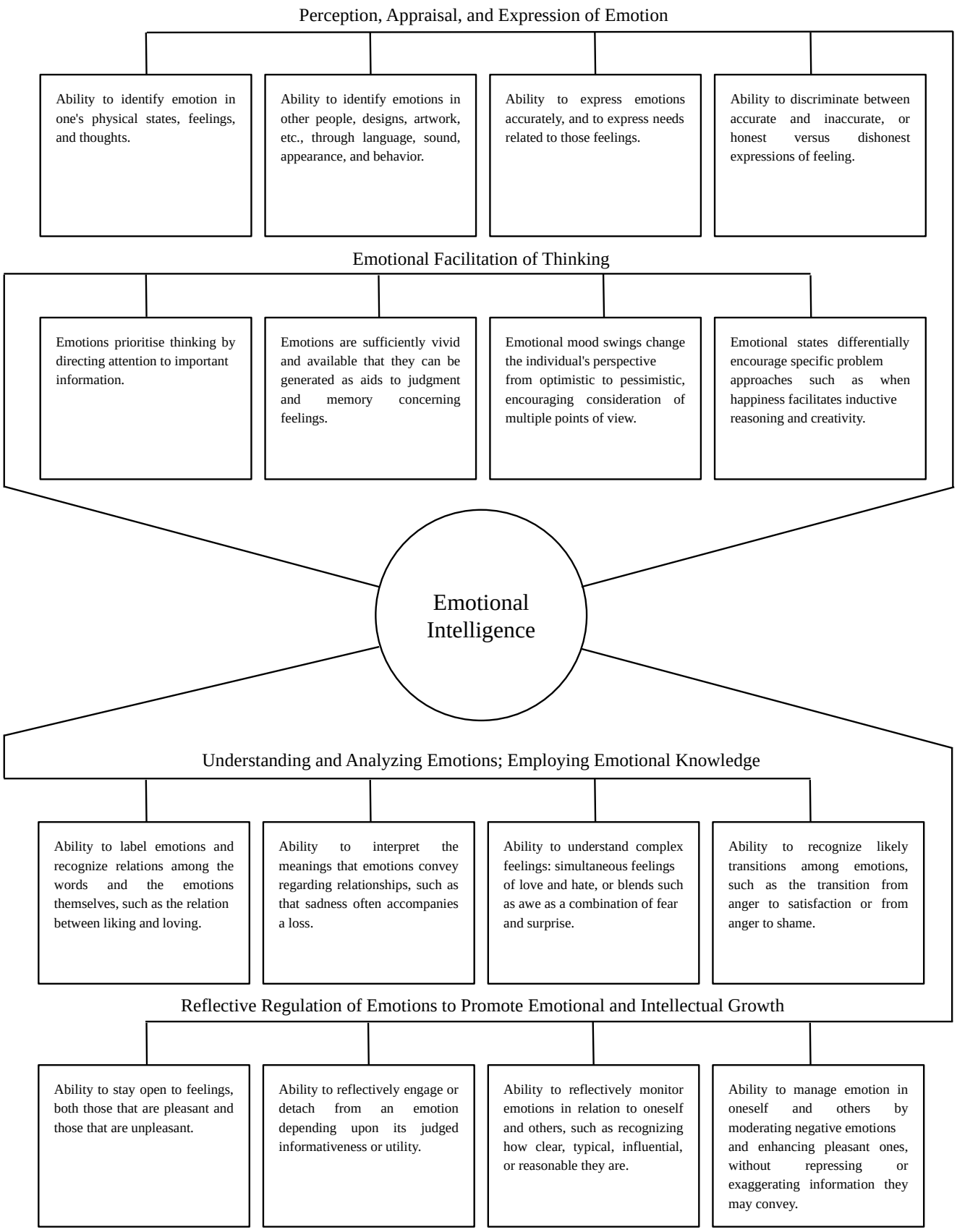


(Source: Author's Work According to Mayer & Salovey, 1997)

Mayer and Salovey (1997) accompanied their initial research on the first stream of emotional intelligence concept with the first cognitive ability test created on a modified version of emotional intelligence. The test was named *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale* (*MEIS*) and was hitherto the only published ability model of emotional intelligence (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). Moreover, in measurements of ability, individuals solve emotion-related problems that have either correct or incorrect answers and may, thus, achieve maximal performance (O'Connor, Hill, Kaya, & Martin, 2019). The MEIS ability measure was updated and operationalized to *The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* (MSCEIT; Salovey et al., 2003), which had discriminant validity in relation to personality traits. The subscale of managing emotions did not only clarify the quality of social interaction better than the Big Five personality dimensions or self-report emotional regulation measures, but it also positively contributed to the quality of social interaction (Lopes et al., 2004). Additionally, the associations between emotion regulation constructs and the Big Five personality dimensions are suggested to be modest as emotional regulation constructs relate to the much broader Big Five trait constructs (Balzarotti et al., 2010). According to Daus and Ashkanasy (2005), emotional intelligence ability model manifests discriminant validity from the Big Five personality model.

Furthermore, apart from Mayer and Salovey in the USA, Australian researchers MacCann and Roberts (2008) developed two validated paradigms for assessing ability emotional intelligence. Based on the ability to understand emotions, they created the reliable and validated *Situational Test of Emotional Understanding* (STEU). STEU consists of 42 items which describe a situation for which the participants choose one out of five emotions most likely to result from that situation. The second validated yet less reliable paradigm based on the ability to regulate one's emotions is the *Situational Test of Emotion Management* (STEM).

Figure 10 Mayer and Salovey's 1997 Elaborated Four-Branch Ability Model



(Source: Author's Work as in Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005:37)

STEM entails 44 items, namely, short details of an emotional situation, for which the participants choose the most effective response. The aim is to manage both emotions and problems faced for that particular situation. Research show that STEU and STEM correlate significantly, which suggests a common latent variable measuring ability emotional intelligence (Udayar et al., 2020).

2.3.2.2. Personality Trait Emotional Intelligence

The second stream of emotional intelligence, the personality trait emotional intelligence, also referred to as the trait emotional self-efficacy (Petrides et al., 2007), is based on self- and peer-reports. It is a model opposite to the ability emotional intelligence since it identifies the innate subjectivity of emotional experience (Petrides, 2010). The trait model emphasizes certain personality traits useful in perceiving and regulating emotions. Namely, emotional self-perceptions and emotional traits in one's personality play a vital role in one's emotional intelligence (Borah, 2020).

Moreover, trait emotional self-efficacy is a "constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Petrides, 2010:137), which "captures individual differences in affective self-evaluations and organizes them into a single framework, thus integrating the emotion-related facets that are presently scattered across the basic personality dimensions" (Petrides et al., 2007:287).

Trait emotional intelligence measures overall emotional intelligence and its subscales, that is, typical behavior rather than maximal performance by using self-report items (O'Connor et al., 2019). Its framework entails an "operationalization of emotion-related self-perceptions that can be integrated into the mainstream taxonomies of personality" (Petrides et al., 2007:287). Moreover, it consists of "behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions in processing emotional information from the personality perspective" (Krishnan & Awang, 2020:88), and includes personal and social intelligence, empathy, and impulsiveness. Personality trait measures are referred to as emotional self-efficacy measures as individuals who achieve high results on trait measures have high self-efficacy levels regarding emotion-related behaviors, thus, are capable in managing and regulating emotions in themselves and others (O'Connor et al., 2019).

Furthermore, researchers argue that from all emotion-related outcomes, trait emotional intelligence tends to be the strongest predictor, and therefore, the trait-based measure should be used in researching emotional intelligence. According to Petrides and Furnham (2000), trait emotional intelligence measures tend to be good predictors of behaviors in various situations. Also, the higher trait emotional intelligence is, the higher is also the quality of personal and professional life (Neghabi et al., 2011).

The most prominent and versatile trait emotional self-efficacy scales are the *Self-Report Scale* (Schutte et al., 1998), the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* (TEIQue; Petrides, 2001;Petrides & Furnham, 2003), the *Wong-Law EI Scale* (WLEIS; Law et al., 2004; Wong & Law, 2002), and the *Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI*; Palmer et al., 2009). The *Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale* (SREIS) by Schutte et al. (1998) was "the fourth most-cited article on emotional intelligence in the world at the time of writing" (Bucich & MacCann, 2019:61). The three aspects included in the 33-item validated model are *appraisal and expression of emotion*, *regulation of emotion*, and *using emotions in solving problems* (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). A scale with high correlation to Schutte's SREIS is *the Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire* (*ESCQ*) created by Takšić, Mohorić and Duran (2009) and translated into several languages. ESCQ is a validated self-report 45-item measure of emotional intelligence that entails three subscales: *perceiving and understanding emotions*, *expressing and labelling emotions*, and *managing and regulating emotions*. Furthermore, based on ESCQ, Avsec et al. (2020) constructed the *Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Emotional Competence Questionnaire* (IIECQ), a psychometrically sound, valid and reliable measure of *intrapersonal emotional competence* (namely, the ability to describe one's inner emotional state) and *interpersonal emotional competences* (a precise detection of emotions in others, and the ability to explain how people feel and why).

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) developed by Petrides and Furnham (2001; 2003) incorporates thirteen facets measuring four factors: *emotionality* (trait empathy, emotion perception and expression, relationships), *sociability* (emotion management, assertiveness, social awareness), *well-being* (self-esteem, trait optimism, happiness) and *self-control* (emotion regulation, impulsiveness, stress management). Two additional facets, namely, *adaptability* and *self-motivation*, feed directly into the global trait emotional intelligence score. Also, a short form of the TEIQue consisting of 30 items was created to provide a more reliable global trait emotional intelligence score (Perazzo et al., 2020; Petrides,

2009). Additionally, the short form of the questionnaire is more appropriate when individuals are interested in measuring only the four broad emotional intelligence factors (emotionality, sociability, well-being, self-control; O'Conner et al., 2019). Furthermore, the latest trait measure of Wong and Law named WLEIS (Law et al., 2004; Wong & Law, 2002) consists of sixteen items measuring four construct: *self-emotions appraisal*, *others-emotions appraisal*, *use of emotion,* and *regulation of emotion*. The scale has high reliability, and differs from the big five dimensions of personality (Law et al., 2004).

Moreover, the most recent second stream model of emotional intelligence emerged in Australia when Ben Palmer and Con Stough at Swinburne University propounded the concise and short form of the *Genos Model of Emotional Intelligence* as they saw a need for a model that addressed the business perspective and the workplace (Gignac, 2008; Gignac, 2010; Palmer et al., 2009). According to Gignac (2010), the concise emotional intelligence model should consist of psychological attributes directly related to recognizing, using, and dealing with emotions. Therefore, Palmer and Stough's *Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI)* consists of core emotional intelligence dimensions, all of which contain productive and unproductive states. The seven core dimensions are *emotional self-awareness*, *emotional expression*, *emotional awareness of others*, *emotional reasoning*, *emotional self-management*, *emotional management of others,* and *emotional self-control* (Gignac, 2010; Palmer et al., 2009). Nonetheless, although Genos EI does not measure emotional intelligence per-se, it measures the demonstration of emotionally intelligent behavior at the workplace as an indication of emotional intelligence (Borah, 2020; Palmer et al., 2009), and creates reliable and valid emotional intelligence scores for use in a variety of workplace contexts (Gignac, 2010).

The conceptual advantage of the personality trait emotional intelligence theory lies in its relation to differential psychological models, such as the big five dimensions. It is even more so since the trait emotional intelligence shares 50% of the variance of the big five personality dimensions (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides et al., 2007, 2010). Nonetheless, certain researchers propose that trait emotional intelligence is a distinct, compound construct that lies "at the lower levels of personality hierarchies as it is oblique, rather than orthogonal to the Big Five" (Pérez-González & Sanchez-Ruiz, 2014; Petrides et al., 2007:283). However, other researchers present contrasting results, as emotional intelligence dimensions are incorporated into various factors mixed with personality traits (Alegre et al., 2019). Consequently, the

outcomes of the factor analyses are heavily dependent upon the use of the theoretical framework and the instrument used to measure trait emotional intelligence.

When deliberating the theoretical development of the personality concept, the foundation was created by Goldberg (1990) and his *Big-Five Factor Structure*, which was thoroughly operationalized by McCrae and Costa's comprehensive *Five-Factor Theory of Personality* (1999). Each of the five personality dimensions represent a broad domain consisting of specific traits. As a result of both conceptualizations, Zhao and Seibert (2006) created the *Big Five Personality Dimensions*. These dimensions are referred to as the *OCEAN* of personality dimensions (John & Srivastava, 1999; Vega-Gómez et al., 2020) as they measure one's personality type (Robinson et al., 2020) and consist of *openness to experience, conscientiousness*, *extraversion, agreeableness,* and *neuroticism* (shown in Figure 10).

Furthermore, higher levels of *OCEA* dimensions, in addition to lower levels of neuroticism (*N*), lead to higher levels of *reappraisal*, *problem-solving*, and *mindfulness* and lower levels of *avoidance* and *suppression* (Barańczuk, 2019). The *OCEAN* dimensions correlate highly with trait emotional intelligence and it's four factors, and are also connected to emotional regulation (Petrides et al., 2010).

Figure 10 OCEAN Personality Dimensions and Characteristics

Openness to Experience	*imagination, independence, intellect*
Conscientiousness	*responsibility, dependence*
Extraversion	*talkativeness, assertiveness*
Agreeableness	*cooperation, trust*
Neuroticism	*anxiety, depression, vulnerability vs. self-confidence, calmness*

(Source: Author's Work According to John & Srivastava, 1999)

2.3.2.3. The Mixed Emotional Intelligence Model

The mixed emotional intelligence model is the third stream that entails emotional intelligence aspects not solely incorporated in cognitive ability or trait emotional self-efficacy models. The expression "mixed" signifies a label for various personality characteristics that predict success

in professional and everyday contexts (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005), and is measured by either self-reporting instruments or 360-degree assessment forms[5] (O'Connor et al., 2019). Neubauer and Freudenthaler (2005) view mixed emotional intelligence as incorporating a collection of abilities and non-ability traits and a mixture of dimensions both related and not related to emotional intelligence (Borah, 2020; Gignac, 2010). Such models are assessed by the Bar On's (1997c) *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-I) and the *Emotional Competency Inventory* (ECI) by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (1999).

In 1997, inspired by Goleman's first book and based on his own doctoral dissertation measure on psychological well-being, Bar-On created the standardized psychometric self-report instrument *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-I; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). The EQ-I evaluates individuals' perceptions (Krishnan & Awang, 2020), and measures and estimates various aspects of underlying emotionally and socially intelligent behavior and intelligence (Bar-On, 1997, 2006, 2012; Bar-On et al., 2003). The measure consists of five areas that contribute to everyday success: *intrapersonal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, *adaptability*, *stress management*, and *general mood*, depicted in Figure 11.

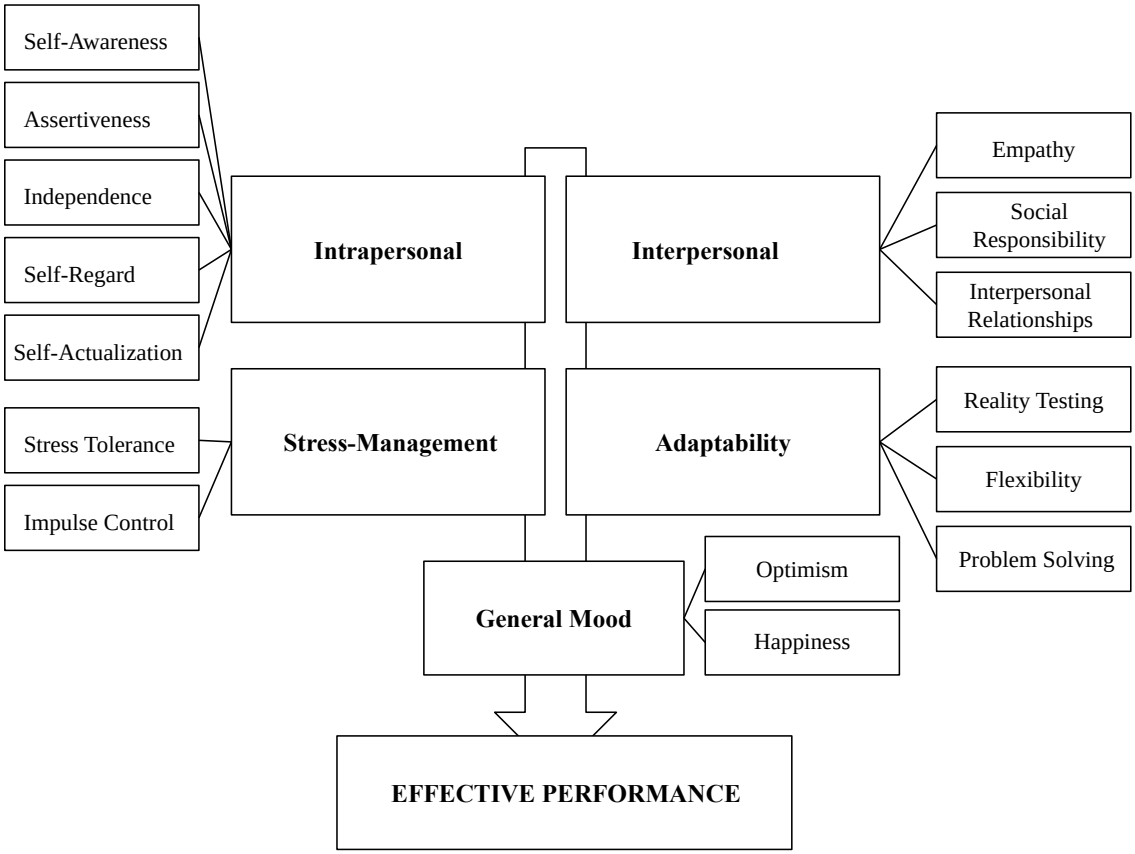
Daniel Goleman placed the emotional intelligence concept in the context of workplace and business and proposed that emotional intelligence is not only connected to intelligence and emotion, but also to personality traits and characteristics. Thus, it can be taught and learned (Bar-On, 2012; Krishnan & Awang, 2020). In the mixed model of emotional intelligence, Goleman (1998, 2001) created five constructs: *self-awareness*, *self-regulation*, *motivation*, *empathy*, and *social skills*. Based on his mixed model, the *Emotional Competency Inventory* (ECI; Boyatzis et al., 1999) was established as a 360-degree instrument that assesses the emotional competencies of individuals and organizations (Ackley, 2016). ECI consists of eighteen competencies and four clusters: *self-awareness*, *self-management*, *social awareness*, and *relationship management*.

Additionally, in the book *Social Intelligence*, Goleman (2006) elaborates on the emotional intelligence performance model by adding personal and social competence. The performance model of emotional intelligence entails *personal competence*, which deals with effective management and constructs such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, and social cognition, while *social competence* concerns negotiating and managing complex social

[5] assessment forms consisting of self- and peer-reports

relationships and environments, and entails empathy, synchrony, self-presentation, influence, and concern (Borah, 2020).

Figure 11 Reuven Bar On's Model of Emotional Intelligence



(Source: Author's Work According to Borah, 2020:71)

Although ECI has inferior psychometric properties to the EQ-I (Ackley, 2016), both consist of personality aspects and social competence not included in Salovey and Mayer's emotional intelligence definition, and are prevalent in the management consultation context (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005).

To conclude the section on emotional intelligence models and measures, Table 7 provides a chronological overview of emotional intelligence dimensions, its authors as creators, and the corresponding assessment tools that measure the personality trait, cognitive ability or mixed model of the emotional intelligence concept.

Table 7 Chronological Overview of Emotional Intelligence Dimensions

Year	Author	Variables	Research
1990	Mayer & Salovey	Identifying Emotions, Using Emotions to Facilitate Thoughts, Understanding Emotions, Managing Emotions	This model defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities of an individual. MEIS was operationalized to MSCEIT which consists of 141 items.
1997	Bar-On	Intra- and Interpersonal skills, Stress Management, Adaptability, General Mood	EQ-I is a standardized psychometric self-report measure of emotional and social intelligence comprised of 5 areas that contribute to everyday success.
1998	Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, Dornheim	Appraisal and Expression of Emotions, Regulation of Emotion, Utilization of Emotion for Solving Problems	SREIS is a self report measure with 33 items consisting of 3 aspects that focus on average emotional intelligence.
1999	Boyatzis, Goleman, Rhee	Self Awareness, Self- Management, Relationship Management, Social Awareness	ECI is a 360-degree instrument which measures 18 emotional competencies arranged in 4 clusters.
2002	Wong & Law	Self Emotion Appraisal, Others' Emotion Appraisal, Regulation of Emotion, Use of Emotion	WLEIS is a self-report EI measure that consists of 2 parts, 4 constructs and 16 items.
2003	Petrides & Furnham	Emotion Perception (Self and Others), Adaptability, Assertiveness, Emotion Expression, Emotion Management, Emotion Regulation, Impulsiveness, Relationships, Self-Esteem	TEIQue is a self-report inventory that comprehensively covers the sampling domain of trait EI. It comprises 153 items, measuring 15 distinct facets, 4 factors, and a global trait EI.
2008	MacCann & Roberts	Ability to Understand Emotions, Ability to Regulate One's Emotions	2 paradigms for assessing ability emotional intelligence. STEU consists of 42 items, STEM consists of 44 items.
2009	Takšić, Mohorić, Duran	Perceiving and Understanding Emotions, Expressing and Labelling Emotions, Managing and Regulating Emotions	ESCQ is a self-report 45-item measure of emotional intelligence that entails 3 subscales.
2009	Palmer & Stough	Emotional: Self-Awareness, Expression, Self-Management, Awareness of Others, Reasoning, Management of Others, Self-Control	GENOS EI is a 70-item multi-rater assessment designed specifically for workplace use that measures how often people demonstrate emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors.

(Source: Author's Work Adjusted from Nagi & Prakash, 2020:93)

2.3.3. Emotional Regulation and Control

People's main objective in life is to succeed and be successful in all regards. Therefore, individuals habitually adapt and regulate their emotions to behave more appropriately in social environments, to operate more effectively at work, or to merely feel better. All individual's coping efforts come under the broad definition of emotion regulation (Garnefski, Kraaij, & Spinhoven, 2001). Hence, emotional intelligence cannot be comprehended adequately unless emotional regulation and control is acknowledged as its integral unmissable component.

In the opinion of Gross (1998:275), a psychologist and the pioneer on emotional regulation, the essence of emotional regulation incorporates ways in which "individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express them". Moreover, emotional regulation is the manipulation of emotion antecedents or certain physiological, subjective, or behavioral aspects of the emotional response in the self or someone else (Gross & Levenson, 1993). However, there is a distinction between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic emotion regulation*. When an individual has the aim of regulating one's own emotions, *intrinsic* regulation takes place; conversely, if an individual wants to regulate other people's emotions, *extrinsic* emotion regulation occurs (Gross, 2015). Niculita and Korniejczuk (2018:65) state that emotional regulation represents "the sum of conscious and subconscious processes through which people modify their emotions in order to adapt to the environment". For example, individuals trying to comfort their partners during a loss that their partner had experienced represents a conscious extrinsic emotion regulation, while an example of unconscious intrinsic emotion regulation would be individuals trying to hide their disappointment when presented with an unappealing gift (Gross, 2015). However, regardless whether the construct of emotional regulation is a conscious or a subconscious process, it is undoubtedly omnipresent.

Mayer and Stevens (1994) created a comprehensive description of meta-experience states, which consists of four evaluative dimensions: *clarity, acceptance, typicality*, and *influence*; and three regulatory dimensions, i.e., the regulatory triad: *mood repair*, *dampening*, and *maintenance*. Takšić (2003) asserts that individuals experience their moods in two ways, as *immediate* and as *reflexive*. *Immediate* moods occur with both pleasant and unpleasant emotions in life, while *reflexive* moods entail knowledge of one's and others' emotions acquired through experience, which enables monitoring, evaluating, and regulating these emotions. Moreover, if a person can monitor and evaluate their moods, it denotes them taking note of their feelings,

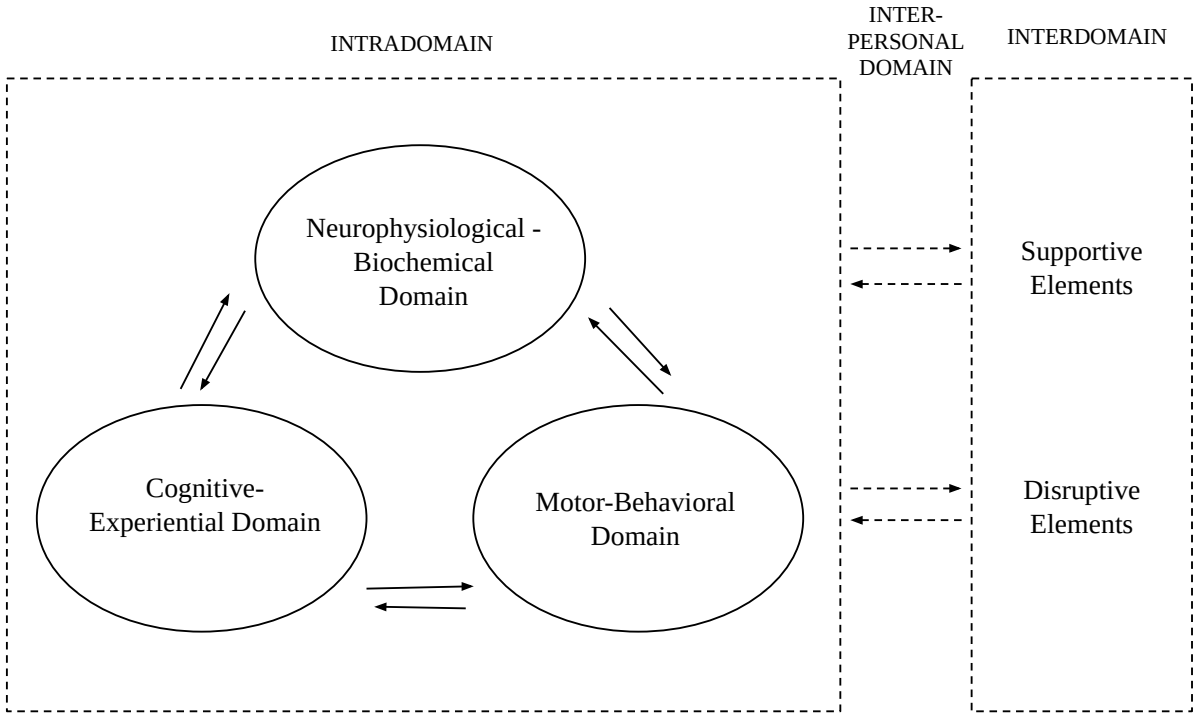
understanding, estimating, and regulating them. "Decreasing negative emotion appears to be the most common regulation goal in everyday life, followed by increasing positive emotion" (Gross, 2015:5). Thus, in attempts to maintain a positive mood, an emotionally intelligent person from then on selects situations that previously evoked positive emotions (Takšić, 2003).

Furthermore, emotional regulation is a "developmental achievement coordination acquired during early life" (Garber & Dodge, 1991:8). The first occurrence individuals have with regulating emotions is while they are infants. Namely, mothers as the caregivers are the external environment and aim to forward the control to their infants. Then, infants use interpersonal information from their mothers to regulate their emotional responses (Walden & Ogan, 1988). The developmental achievement that follows is the acquisition of language skills followed by the control of physiological and motor responses (Garber & Dodge, 1991). All mentioned stages of the developmental process create and complete the cycle of early emotional response regulation. Nonetheless, in case individuals do not succeed in acquiring emotional regulation early on, that is, if there is an omission of regulation, then, dysregulation or emotional vulnerability takes place in the form of anxiety, behavioral excess, or even psychopathology[6] (Garber & Dodge, 1991). Differences in an individual's experience of negative situations lead to further differences in the individual's emotional vulnerability (Higgins et al., 1986). Thus, it is assuredly more effective for one's adjustment to occur sooner on the emotional path than later (Gross, 2001).

In the last century, the researchers were keenly interested in exploring the definition and measurements of emotions and emotional intelligence. Nevertheless, the last two decades have presented the emotional regulation field as prevalent and more prominent. The emotional regulation genesis traces back to the beginning of the 20th century when Sigmund Freud, the Austrian neurologist and founder of psychoanalysis, concluded that the control of emotional desires entails its redirection through defense mechanisms such as sublimation or reaction formation (Garber & Dodge, 1991). By the end of the 20th century, Garber and Dodge (1991) conceptualized emotion regulation domains intro three forms by differentiating the domain of the self, i.e., *the intradomain*, the domain of the environment, i.e., *the interdomain* and the domain of the interaction of the self and the environment, i.e., *the interpersonal* domain, as depicted in Figure 12.

[6] The dictionary of American Psychology Association (n.d.) defines psychopathology as "a study of mental disorders", or "the behavioural or cognitive manifestation of such disorders".

Figure 12 Conceptualized Emotion Regulation Domains



(Source: Author's Work According to Garber & Dodge, 1991:7)

Gross (2015) extended the original process model for emotional regulation by adding *identification*, *selection*, and *implementation stages*. Emotional regulation was suggested to be connected to, yet divergent from, coping, mood regulation and repair, defense, and affect regulation (Gross, 1998), while two emphasized strategies for down-regulating negative emotions were the *cognitive reappraisal* and *expressive suppression*. Moreover, as negative emotions can be down-regulated, positive emotions can be up-regulated, which may result in mood repair and happiness-seeking (Livingstone & Srivastava, 2012; Quoidbach et al., 2010; Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007). Regulating emotions predates emotional intelligence (Mestre et al., 2016).

Nevertheless, the field of emotional regulation has lately progressed on a large scale by providing a cornucopia of research, yet, the theoretical, empirical, and sociological challenges of the field still prevail. Consequently, Gross (2013) suggested that multi-disciplinary researchers collaborate to facilitate research on the causes and consequences of emotion regulation.

2.3.3.1. Emotional Regulation and Control Assessment Tools

Since emotional regulation and control is an essential component of emotional intelligence, its assessment can be found in every emotional intelligence stream and almost every model in various forms. Mayer and Salovey's earliest attempts at developing a self-report scale of one's emotional regulation ability were made in the late '80s. The scales assessed understanding and reflexive emotional regulation, thus creating the *State Meta-Mood Scale* (Mayer & Gaschke, 1988) and the *Trait Meta-Mood Scale* (Salovey et al., 1995). According to Takšić (2003), reflexive processes entail the evaluation of one's mood. Namely, individuals pay attention to their mood, and consequently, understand and regulate it. More recent and common emotional regulation assessment tools are the *Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire* (CERQ*;* Garnefski, Kraaij, & Spinhoven, 2001), the *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire* (ERQ*;* Gross & John, 2003), and the *Emotional Regulation and Control Scale* (ERAC; Takšić, 2003).

The *Cognitive Emotion Regulation Questionnaire* (CERQ) was created in the Netherlands by three psychologists, Nadia Garnefski, Vivian Kraaij, and Philip Spinhoven (2001), as they saw a need for an instrument that measures the cognitive components of emotional regulation (Garnefski & Kraaij, 2007). The 36-item CERQ assesses nine cognitive emotional regulation strategies divided into theoretically more and less adaptive strategies that individuals implement after having gone through adverse life events. The positive or *more adaptive strategies* consist of positive refocusing and reappraisal, putting into perspective, and refocus on planning and acceptance, while the negative, or *less adaptive strategies* include self-blame, rumination, blaming others, and catastrophizing (Garnefski et al., 2001). Half a decade later, Garnefski and Kraaij (2006) constructed the short form of the inventory consisting of 18 items with supported reliability and validity. Since the emergence, the CERQ and CERQ-SF have been validated in world-wide contexts such as in France (Jermann et al., 2006), Spain (Chamizo-Nieto et al., 2020), Indonesia (Prastuti et al., 2020), Turkey (Cakmak & Cevik, 2010), Peru (Dominguez Lara & Medrano, 2016), Germany (Loch et al., 2011), and Iran (Abdi et al., 2012; Besharat & Bazzazian, 2014).

The *Emotion Regulation Questionnaire* (ERQ) is a validated measure created by James Gross and Oliver John (2003) that investigates the regulative processes of emotions. ERQ is a 10-item self-report measure that consists of two factors, *cognitive reappraisal*, and *expressive suppression*. *Reappraisal* is a cognitive re-evaluation of an emotion-eliciting situation to lessen

its emotional impact, while *suppression* is a response-focused modulation where an individual impedes occurring emotion-expressive behavior (Gross, 2001, 2002). Gross (2002, 2013; Gross & John, 2003) explained that reappraisal is consistently more strongly favored over suppression as it leads to more positive emotions, well-being, enhanced memory, and better interpersonal functioning. Researchers mostly use ERQ to measure student's regulative emotional processes (Abler & Kessler, 2009; Gračanin, Kardum, & Gross, 2020; Koval et al., 2020). However, Preece et al. (2018) conducted their research on the Australian general community sample and concluded that ERQ also has strong psychometric properties on their chosen sample. Further, Gullone and Taffe (2012) revised the ERQ version into ERQ for Children and Adolescents (ERQ-CA) and revealed its psychometric soundness.

Finally, based on Mayer and Salovey's two meta-mood scales, the first validated Croatian scale on emotional regulation named the *Emotional Regulation and Control Scale* (ERAC) was created in 2002. ERAC consists of three factors created by Takšić (2002b), a Croatian psychologist, scientist, and the author of the *Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire* (ESCQ). ERAC measures the influence of negative emotions and moods on thoughts, memory, behavior, and the individuals' emotional regulation ability. It entails 20 reverse-coded items, thus, a higher score on the scale indicates higher emotional regulation and control. ERAC can be used as a single factor model with satisfactory internal consistency (overall emotional regulation and control), a two-factor model (first factor - control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts; second factor - influence of emotions/moods on memory), or a three-factor model, which entails the best goodness-of-fit indices (first factor - influence of emotions/moods on thoughts; second factor - influence of emotions/moods on memory; third factor - control of emotions). According to Takšić (2003), weak reliability of the second and sometimes the third factor suggests using the two-factor model created by combining the first and the third factor into one. The use of a two-factor model is appropriate for the sample of adults, where the reliability of both factors is satisfactory. Although adolescents, in addition to women, display a lower emotional regulation ability, the more experience individuals have, the better they will be able to differentiate between their emotions and emotional reactions (Takšić, 2003). In research, ERAC showed satisfactory goodness-of-fit indices, internal consistency of a single factor model, and was first translated to English by Bubić (2015).

When searching for a suitable measure, it is crucial to discover a measure that entails evidence for the reliability, adequate validity evidence, evidence of construct validity, and one based on

a well-supported theory. In some instances, it is not necessary to measure overall emotional intelligence but its single dimension (O' Conner et al.,2019). Hence, although the previously mentioned emotional regulation questionnaires from Garnefski and Gross are research-wise quite wide-spread, ERAC tends to be more frequently used in the Balkan region on the student sample (Bubić, 2015; Ivanišević, 2017; Krulić, 2012; Macuka & Burić, 2015; Penezić et al., 2013; Radošević, 2019), and other samples, e.g. women who have given birth (Fazlagić & Soleša-Grijak, 2012). For this research, the ERAC scale from Takšić (2002b) will be used to assess one aspect of emotional intelligence in young adults, namely, the aspect of emotional regulation and control.

2.3.4. Previous Research on Emotional Intelligence, Regulation and Control

Initially, both the international and Croatian research on emotional intelligence was based predominantly on the field of psychology, e.g. advances in clinical child psychology (Lahey & Kazdin, 1981), approaches to understanding multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1999), the relationship of emotional intelligence to alexithymia[7] (Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2001), the connection of emotional intelligence to positive psychology (Takšić et al., 2006), or applications of emotion recognition in speech (Lugović et al., 2016) etc.

Nonetheless, ever more interdisciplinary papers combining emotional intelligence with constructs of various research fields emerge daily. Heavy emphasis is placed on the explanation of the emotional intelligence and personality dimensions distinction, and consequently, the distinction was ascertained and agreed upon. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) asserted that their wide understanding of emotional intelligence goes beyond the borders of personality, whereas Law, Wong, and Song (2004) argued on the conceptual distinction between emotional intelligence and personality. Emotional intelligence is found to contribute to one's personal development (Zakarevičius & Župerka, 2010), physical health and well-being (Bar-On, 2012), interpersonal relationships (Schutte, Malouff, Simunek, McKenley, & Hollander, 2002), adjustment to new surroundings (Zahratulliza et al., 2020), and job performance (Ono et al., 2011). Additionally, political skills are considered viable precursors of effective emotional intelligence (Davis & Peake, 2014; Sunindijo & Maghrebi, 2020), and a strong connection to

[7] a personality trait of having difficulties in identifying and describing feelings, and having a limited imaginative capacity

creativity is emphasized as Salovey and Mayer (1990) included creative thinking as a part of utilization of emotions in their emotional intelligence conceptualization. More than a decade later, Zampetakis et al. (2008) revealed creativity as a mediator of the relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions.

Emotional intelligence was initially popularized in leadership research by Goleman (1998a, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008). According to George (2000:1046), "leadership is an emotion-laden process, both from a leader and a follower perspective". From then on, many researchers have investigated the essential role of emotional intelligence for effective leadership (such as George, 2000; Marić, Kovač, & Habek, 2018; Walter et al., 2011). Emotional intelligence may account for "how effective leaders monitor and respond to subordinates and make them feel at work" (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001:5). High emotional intelligence aids the leader in creating an interactive environment and employee commitment (Lubbadeh, 2020). Walter et al. (2011) encourage the inclusion of emotional intelligence into leadership education and training, as its dimensions also directly impact students' perceived employability (Aziz et al., 2020), and facilitate the career decision-making process leading to "decisions that more fully satisfy career-related interests, values, and aspirations" (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003:153; Jiang & Park, 2012).

The most recent research focuses on the relationship between emotional intelligence and instructional leadership competences of teachers to improve school academic performance (Burkhanova & Tazhina, 2020). Also, a positive and direct relationship exists between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, a leadership characterized by a leader's desire and approved authority to cause change. This relationship acknowledges the necessity of understanding, regulating and controlling one's emotions for becoming an efficient leader (Zurita-Ortega, Olmedo-Moreno, Chacón-Cuberos, López, & Martínez-Martínez, 2020).

Certain authors provide no evidence that emotional intelligence predicts academic success (e.g., Tok & Morali, 2013). Petrides, Sanchez-Ruiz, Siegling, Saklofske, and Mavroveli (2018) even insisted on contemporary systematic research to elaborate on mechanism through which emotional intelligence influences academic achievements. Conversly, others believe emotional intelligence to be essential for academic achievement (Perera, 2015) and provide proof of their positive connection (Bhatt & Pujar, 2020; Ergin et al., 2020). Moreover, emotional intelligence

is also found to be an antecedent of success in online learning contexts (Engel & Van den Broeck, 2012).

The 21st century marks emotional intelligence in business as a compelling research topic. Namely, the centrality of emotions in business was first recognized in the '90s (Goleman, 1996, 1998), while two decades later Kanonuhwa (2018) researched ways in which emotions affect entrepreneurial judgment and behavior. According to Zampetakis et al. (2008), trait emotional intelligence is a predictor of attitudes towards entrepreneurship, while overall emotional intelligence predicts entrepreneurial intention (Rodrigues et al., 2019). Research suggests that the more emotionally intelligent individuals are, the greater will also be their entrepreneurial career intentions (such as Miao et al., 2018; Mortan, Ripoll, Carvalho, & Bernal, 2014). In particular, McLaughlin (2012, 2019) asserted that emotional intelligence is significantly related to personal entrepreneurial success, while Archana and Kumari (2018) advocated that emotional intelligence influences the perception of being an effective entrepreneur. On the other hand, Huezo-Ponce, Fernández-Pérez, and Rodríguez-Ariza (2020) did not support their hypothesis of emotional competence directly influencing overall entrepreneurial intentions. Nonetheless, they found out that it did affect certain entrepreneurial intention dimensions such as attitude towards entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and, thus concluded, that the more strengthened emotional competencies are, the more likely will individuals be to consider entrepreneurship as a career choice. What is more, employability skills such as interpersonal communication, problem-solving abilities, and the ability to organize work are all related to emotional intelligence and are essential for college graduates (Walters, 2018). Additionally, problem-solving skills, emotional self-awareness, and impulse control directly influence entrepreneurial intentions (Mwange, 2018; Yıldırım et al., 2019). Therefore, the necessity of exploring emotions in the context of entrepreneurship is evident.

What is more, self-efficacy serves as a mediator of the relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions (Mortan et al., 2014), and between emotional intelligence and performance (Udayar et al., 2020). According to Zhao and Xie (2020), positive entrepreneurial emotion, which is the emotional reaction to optimism appraisal processes, is a mediator of the relationship between optimism and entrepreneurship intention. Contrastingly, negative entrepreneurial emotion, which is the emotional reaction to overconfidence, mediates the relationship between overconfidence and entrepreneurship intention. Entrepreneurial education should enhance appropriate emotion-based factors (such as passion, inspiration,

uncertainty, ambiguity tolerance, and dispositional optimism) to encourage entrepreneurial intentions (Haddoud et al., 2020).

Finally, in the latest publication of *Trait Emotional Intelligence: Foundations, Assessment, and Education* (Pérez-González, Saklofske, & Mavroveli, 2020), amongst other findings, trait emotional intelligence was affirmed to measure the same personality construct as the Big Five (Alegre et al., 2019). Trait emotional intelligence was also proven to be the mediator of the relationship between self-esteem and university anxiety (Guil et al., 2019), whereas mindfulness development and competence was significantly related to emotional intelligence as it results in "having better general empathy skills or being better socially adjusted to the school context" (Rodríguez-Ledo, Orejudo, Cardoso, Balaguer, & Zarza-Alzugaray, 2018:1). Additionally, job satisfaction of teachers was found to partially mediate the positive relationship between trait emotional intelligence of teachers and their job performance (Li, Pérez-Díaz, Mao, & Petrides, 2018).

When discussing emotional regulation and control, the latest research deals with emotional regulation's aspects from the point of view of neuroscience and psychotherapy (Gregucci et al., 2017). Various findings emerged, such as that emotional regulation does not predict response in cognitive behavioral therapy (Nielsen et al., 2019), mindfulness leads to higher levels of positive emotions' and moods' regulation (Jimenez et al., 2010), and emotional regulation does not correlate with sadness (Schindler & Querengässer, 2019). Additionally, sleep is found to impact emotional experiences (Palmer & Alfano, 2017). Emotional regulation abilities impact the quality of social interactions and, thus, emotional regulation development may assist individuals in more efficient social interactions (Lopes et al., 2005).

Croatian researchers mostly focus on emotional regulation in children and adolescents. They have ascertained emotional regulation to be a mediator between parental behavior and children's adjustment, as well as that emotional regulation, temperament, and parental behavior contribute to the explanation of higher GPA of male students (Macuka et al., 2012; Macuka & Burić, 2015). Also, emotional regulation and control successfully predicts the life satisfaction of high school students (Takšić, 1998). Additionally, in the field of physical activity, a narrative approach to emotions that looks at how individuals discuss their emotions and the words they use to talk about their emotional experiences, can advance research on emotions by examining how emotions occur in the context of social relationships (Tamminen & Bennett, 2017).

Researchers strongly emphasize the connection of emotional regulation to personality traits. For example, the Croatian version of the ERQ (Gračanin et al., 2020) exhibits the connection to personality criterion variables, and, among other findings, the reappraisal factor of emotional regulation is positively related to extraversion. There is also evidence of the relationship between personality traits and emotion regulation stages of identification, selection, and implementation (Hughes et al., 2020). Nonetheless, although emotional regulation and utilization of emotions positively influence entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Mortan et al., 2014), the effect of emotional regulation on entrepreneurial intentions is rather under-explored (as explained in chapter II, section 2.1.4.1.).

Further research emphasizes the digital emotional regulation as an interdisciplinary field that deals with the reasons people regulate emotions within the digital and virtual contexts (such as Lehtonen, Page, Miloseva, & Thorsteinsson, 2008; Wadley, Smith, Koval, & Gross, 2020).

Several papers discussed the role of emotional regulation in various forms of work-related context. Tamir, Chiu, and Gross (2007) elaborated on the use of pleasant and unpleasant emotions and concluded that individuals consider approach emotions (such as excitement) practical for procuring rewards, while avoidance emotions (such as worry) convenient for circumventing threats. De Cock et al. (2020) researched the roles of the two well-established types of emotion regulation, the cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression, on the venture survival probability, and concluded that both types have a lower survival likelihood, however, the survival also depends on the venture's performance. Bubić (2015) examined the role of emotional regulation in two decision-making styles, maximizing and satisficing. Maximizing is an inclination towards achieving the best outcome, while satisficing is an inclination towards settling with an acceptable outcome. The findings reveal that maximizing is related to emotional regulation and control, which explains "why maximizers are more likely to experience negative affect and often regret the outcomes of their decisions" (Bubić, 2015:71). MacCann and Roberts (2008:548) deduced that "people with a thinking style oriented toward social and emotional phenomena rather than toward concrete external facts develop better understanding and better regulation strategies".

According to Tugade and Fredrickson (2007), controlled coping processes explain ways in which resilient individuals develop coping skills during stress. Some of the coping strategies entail relaxation and optimistic thinking, whereas emotional help-seeking seems to be

connected to nonproductive coping (Lipshits-Braziler et al., 2016). The coping conceptualizations are twofold, emotion-focused and problem-focused. However, due to the emotional approach, the coping process has an adaptive potential (Stanton et al., 2012).

Furthermore, research on emotional regulation and control during the COVID-19 pandemic shows that regulating and controlling one's emotions at a time of crisis can aid in alleviating the negative effects of the crisis on people's lives and their work. Namely, the appraisal of one's emotions averts the individuals from being in a state of shock, stress, and being susceptible to destructive emotions (Restubog et al., 2020).

2.3.4.1. Emotional Intelligence, Regulation, Control, and Career Adaptability

Scientific empirical research from the last fifteen years reveals a connection between emotional intelligence, regulation and control, and career intentions, while in the last five years, a connection between emotional intelligence, regulation and control, and career adaptability. The emotional intelligence construct affirms various adaptive roles emotions have in an individual's life (Takšić, 1998). Even though emotions are predictors of risk assessment in one's career decisions (Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003), the coping aspect of career indecision correlates minimally with academic achievement and personality types (Larson et al., 1994).

Kafetsios et al. (2009) researched the differences in emotional intelligence traits and abilities among various career paths individuals take and questioned mechanism that may overcome those differences. Wilking et al. (2014) explained that positive emotional dispositions, such as hope and optimism, significantly predict career adaptability dimensions. Also, positive and negative emotions are partial mediators of the relationship between trait emotional intelligence and career indecision (Farnia et al., 2018). Additionally, career adaptability is a full mediator of the effect of trait emotional intelligence on self-perceived employability and career decision-making difficulties (Udayar et al., 2018).

Trait emotional intelligence positively predicts academic satisfaction, while career adaptability is the mediator in this relationship (Celik & Storme, 2018). Furthermore, trait emotional intelligence relates not only to greater levels of career adaptability on academic engagement (Merino-Tejedor,2018), but it predicts career adaptability as well (Eryılmaz et al., 2020). Thus, both constructs are "important meta-competencies which foster adaptive behavior, and

ultimately facilitate individuals' adaptation to career challenges and individual well-being" (Parmentier et al., 2019:5). High levels of emotional intelligence predict low levels of career indecision (Di Fabio et al., 2013), while goal striving and setting fully mediate the emotional intelligence effect on career adaptability (Eryılmaz et al., 2020). Hence, substantial evidence supports encouraging emotional intelligence for strengthening one's career adaptability (Coetzee & Harry,2013).

Thus, as evidenced in this chapter, previous research findings show the connection between career adaptability and emotional intelligence, career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (as described in subchapter 2.2.3.2.1.), and emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions (as described in subchapter 2.1.4.1.). This research aimed at exploring one branch of emotional intelligence in particular more thoroughly, namely, the branch of emotional regulation and control. Emotional regulation is considered the most complex branch of emotional intelligence (Borah, 2020), and, as evidenced in this subchapter, is relevant and connected to many aspects of one's life, especially from a professional standpoint. Nonetheless, according to our knowledge and findings, there is no literature which focuses specifically on the role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. What is more, in Croatia, the constructs have not been explored together nor integrated into the entrepreneurship literature. Therefore, this study aimed at providing a comprehension of the necessity and importance of emotional regulation and control, and thereby, overall emotional intelligence, in addition to career adaptability, to encourage setting entrepreneurial intentions.

This leads us to the hypothesized theoretical framework from Figure 1., which was built for this research based on the overview of previous research provided in this chapter. The theoretical framework proposes an inter-connected relationship between constructs which have not yet been explored together in empirical literature. Namely, it proposes a connection between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions with emotional regulation and control being the mediator in that relationship. Accordingly, the third research problem for this doctoral research aimed at exploring the mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (*H3: Emotional regulation and control is the mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions).*

CHAPTER III

3. Methodology of the Empirical Research

3.1. Research Paradigm

Research methodologies are classified into many paradigms which "guide scientific discoveries through their assumptions and principles" (Park et al., 2020:690). These paradigms are diversified based on: "the philosophies and theories that inform the approach, how each approach perceives or explains the nature of reality (*ontology*), knowledge (*epistemology*), values (*axiology*), and the *methodology* used in the research" (Bagele, 2011:39). In this section, the paradigm discussion will be limited to the one chosen for this research.

At the beginning of the 1840's the French philosopher Auguste Comte and his followers initiated the movement of positivism (Plé, 2002). Positivism is considered "a philosophy that combines the tenets of rationalism and claims that despite the fact that theories may rely on reasoning, they are only authentic if they can be verified through observations and measurements" (Khaldi, 2017:17). According to Park et al. (2020:690), the positivism paradigm is "aligned with the hypothetico-deductive model of science that builds on verifying a priori hypotheses and experimentation by operationalizing variables and measures". Within the paradigm of positivism the emphasis is placed on exploring causal relationship by means of quantitative approaches, and ascertaining neutrality/objectivity (i.e. *axiology*), and generalizability (Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2011; Mohajan, 2021). The positivism paradigm focuses on explanation and prediction, large sample size empirical findings are preferred, and the hypothesis testing findings are used to elevate research into science (Park et al., 2020). Moreover, "scientific inquiries are value-free, and the scientific knowledge is considered relevant and valuable in real life situations when it helps people explain phenomena" (Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2011:6).

The *epistemological* assumption for this dissertation is based on *positivism*, while the *ontological* assumption is based on *objectivism*. *Positivism epistemology* asserts that *knowledge* is gained by gathering facts by means of questionnaires, tests or experiments, i.e., it "constitutes hard data" (Bagele, 2011:40). *Objectivism ontology* perceives *reality* as static, exists independently of people's belief, can be observed directly and precisely, and utilizes methods

for data collection and interpretation such as "hypothesis testing, causal explanations and modelling" (Al-Saadi, 2014:3).

Testing a theory or a theoretical prediction is the main purpose of research within the paradigm of positivism (Hallebone & Priest, 2009). Accordingly, for this dissertation, the hypotheses were developed as posited relationships between variables. Namely, the hypothesized research model proposes the connection between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions, explores the contribution of emotional regulation and control to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability, and investigates the entrepreneurial intention prediction model and mediation. Thus, the main philosophical assumption underpinning this research lies in the research paradigm of positivism by adopting the theory testing approach.

3.2. Research Sample and Analysis

In order to explore individuals' entrepreneurial intentions, the most appropriate timeframe is at the mere end of one's education/higher education, namely, just before entering the labor market. It is customary to research the sample of university students as it is utterly comparable due to students' maturity and equal education level. Thus, it is not surprising that numerous researchers have conducted research on entrepreneurial intention specifically on the student sample (such as Anjum et al., 2019; Aragon-Sanchez, Baixauli-Soler, & Carrasco-Hernandez, 2017; Basu & Virick, 2008; Darmanto & Pujiarti, 2020; Gurbuz & Aykol, 2008; Iakovleva, Kolvereid, & Stephan, 2011; Liñán & Chen, 2006; Miljković Krečar, 2008; Pfeifer et al., 2016; Qiao & Huang, 2019; Sušanj et al., 2015; Tiwari et al., 2017b; Uysal & Güney, 2016; Yıldırım et al., 2019).

However, when choosing exactly which university students to include in this research, the subject of study and education level were considered. Students of business and economics were chosen because they are likely to become future entrepreneurs and/or employers, thus, their adaptability and their emotional regulation ability is considered vital for successful entrepreneurship. Moreover, the decision on selecting the graduate students was based on the fact that those students are on the point of entering the most entrepreneurial age segment. Namely, the 2019/2020 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report shows that Croatian individuals with the highest tendency to become entrepreneurs are adults aged 25 to 34 (Bosma

et al., 2020). Also, Bobek and Robbins (2005) assert that adults are more experienced in dealing with their occupational concerns, such as having comprehensible work aims, achieving transferable work skills, and knowing what to expect from an occupation and how to follow it. Additionally, the reason for including the final year undergraduate students was the fact that after having gone through two years of higher education, the students are at a juncture of facing individual career choices as some of them may choose to start working and not continue with the graduate education level (Gurbuz & Aykol, 2008). Therefore, this dissertation's empirical research was conducted on the sample of third-year undergraduate and first- and second-year graduate students of business and economics at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek, Croatia.

Accordingly, since demographic characteristics such as age (Zhao et al., 2020) and gender (Paray & Kumar, 2020), in addition to parents entrepreneurs (Gurbuz & Aykol, 2008) contribute to entrepreneurial intentions, in this research the effects of control variables (age, gender, family company) were explored on entrepreneurial intentions. Age was operationalized as respondents' age in years, whereas gender was included as a dichotomous/dummy variable with value one assigned to male respondents and value two to female respondents. Family company was operationalized as a dichotomous/dummy variable with value one specifying that no one in the family has their own company, and value two specifying that someone in the family has their own company. The analysis findings of the control variables' effects on entrepreneurial intentions will follow in the next chapter of this dissertation (subchapter 4.4.).

The demographic data of students who participated in the research is descriptively depicted in Table 8. Namely, out of all students who took part in the research (N=391), 65.2% were female (N=255), and slightly more than a third were male students (34.8%, N=136), all studying at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek. More than a quarter of students were 21 years old or younger (27.9%, N=109), while more than a half were 22 or 23 years old (53%, N=209). Only 18.7% of students were 24 years old or older (N=73). Less than half of the students were undergraduates (43.5%, N=170), 56.6% were graduates (N=221), and more than 85% were studying full time (N=336). Furthermore, the students had chosen various study fields. Most students studied management (N=83, 21.2%), and financial management (N=82, 21%). 69 students studied entrepreneurship (17.6%), 51 studied marketing (13%), and there were 50 students studying business informatics (12.8%). Also, 19 students studied logistic management (4.9%), 14 studied accounting (3.6%), 13 studied trade and logistics (3.3%), and the least number of participating students studied economic politics and regional development (N=10, 2.6%).

Table 8 Research Sample Demographic Data

Feature	Category	%
Gender	Women	65.2
	Men	34.8
Age	21 or Younger	27.9
	22	26.9
	23	26.6
	24 or Older	18.7
Year of Study	3rd Year Undergraduate	43.5
	1st Year Graduate	29.7
	2nd Year Graduate	26.9
Student Status	Full Time	85.9
	Part Time	14.1
Father's Education Level	Primary School	5.2
	High School	67.0
	University	24.4
	Postgraduate Study	3.4
Mother's Education Level	Primary School	9.8
	High School	65.3
	University	21.6
	Postgraduate Study	3.3
After finishing my current education level, I plan on	Getting Employed	70.7
	Continuing My Studies	18.2
	Engaging in a Start-Up	11.1

Remark: N=391

(Source: Author's Work)

Students' parents' education level was, to some extent, similar, as most mothers' (65.3%, N=254) and fathers' (67%, N=258) education level was secondary education. Interestingly,

slightly more than 70% of students affirm that after having finished their current education level (undergraduate or graduate), they plan on getting themselves employed (N=268). At the same time, 18.2% of students plan to continue their studies (N=69), while only 11.1% plan to engage in a start-up immediately after they finish their studies (N=42). Moreover, when asked additional questions regarding their daily life, which is shown in Table 9, only 22% stated that they are members of student associations (N=85). Although slightly more than a quarter had a family member who owns their own company (27.2%, N=106), and even though 68.8% de facto thought about being entrepreneurs (N=269), there were still inconsiderably more than 20% of students who have never been employed (N=78).

Table 9 Research Sample Demographic Data Questions and Answers

Question	Answer	%
Does any member of your family have a company?	Yes	27.2
	No	72.8
Are you a member of any student associations?	Yes	22.0
	No	78.0
Have you ever been employed?	Yes	79.9
	No	20.1
Have you ever seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur?	Yes	68.8
	No	31.2

Remark: N=391

(Source: Author's Work)

3.3. Instruments and the Questionnaire Design

The methodology of this dissertation entails a quantitative design and contains primary and secondary data. The research instrument for the primary data, that is, for empirically researching the relationships between career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions, was a highly structured self-report questionnaire in printed form, which was combined and adapted on the basis of three affirmed, validated, and reliable measuring instruments. Namely, career adaptability was assessed by *The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale* (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), emotional regulation and control by the *Emotional Regulation and Control Scale* (Takšić, 2003), and the entrepreneurial intentions by the

Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire (adjusted from Liñán & Chen, 2006). The secondary data comprised the literature review that developed the second chapter of this dissertation, that is, the theoretical background, by giving a solid rationale for the proposed hypotheses and the chosen questionnaires.

The combined self-report questionnaire entailed two sections. The first section consisted of 13 demographic-related items, where respondents' background was ascertained. One item from the EIQ (*Have you ever seriously considered becoming an entrepreneur?*) was intentionally placed within the demographic section as it was a dichotomous variable (a yes-no question) and structurally fit in well with other demographic questions. The second section contained 61 items on career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. The created self-report questionnaire is provided in Appendix 1.

Questionnaires were handed to students to examine whether they are conscious of their ability to influence their future career path, whether they believe that they can regulate and control their negative emotions and whether they perceive themselves as having aspiration towards entrepreneurial intentions after having gone through most of their education. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement to statements relating to their opinion, tendencies, behaviors, and emotional states. Based on the theoretical background of the constructs, three latent variables, that is, career adaptability, emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions, were created as variables of a higher order and their fit indices are described individually in the following sections.

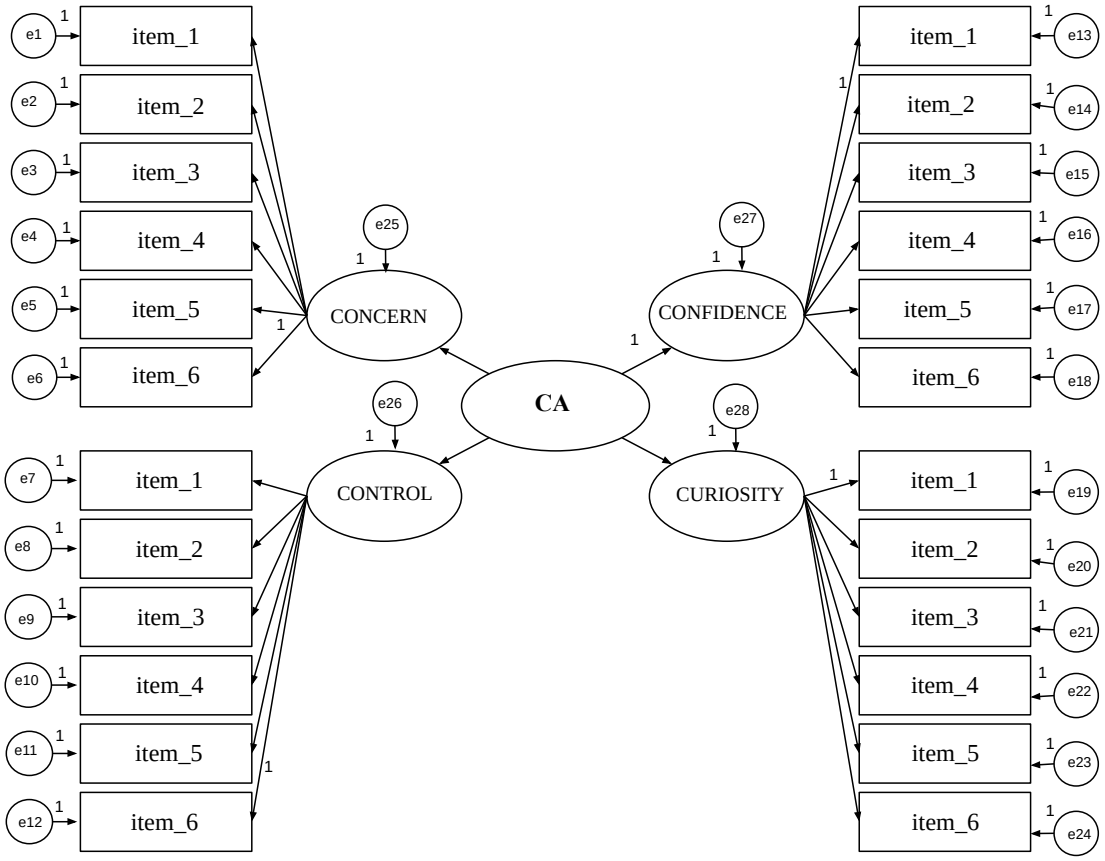
3.3.1. The Career Adapt-Abilities Scale (CAAS)

For this research, the Croatian translated version of the CAAS was used on the sample of undergraduate and graduate students (Babarović & Šverko, 2016; Šverko & Babarović, 2016). All original items and their translations are described in Appendix 2. The CAAS (adapted from Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) was used to measure 24 career adaptability items dispersed into four subscales. Namely, the instrument examined how well students perceive their career adaptability. The four career adaptabilities measured by the CAAS are *career concern*, *career control*, *career curiosity*, and *career confidence*. Each of the four subscales entailed six items.

An example of the *career concern* subscales is "*I think about what my future will be"*, while "*I am concerned about my career"* is one of the six items of the subscale *career control*. "*I look for opportunities to grow as a person"* is a representative item of *career curiosity* subscale, while "*I perform tasks efficiently"* is an example of the *career confidence* subscale. All items were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale, 1 signifying strong disagreement, and 5 indicating strong agreement with the statements. All composite scores for career adaptability subscales were measured by assessed average values of all items within that related subscale. For example, achieving a high score on the *career concern* subscale signified that the person perceives themselves able to be in control of their future career. Additionally, the overall career adaptability was measured by average values assessed for all 24 items of the career adaptability scale. Higher score on the scale indicated a higher perception of one's career adaptability. According to Savickas and Porfeli (2012), the subscales' internal consistency and total score range from good to excellent. The scale's reliability and configural invariance are acceptable among various international samples (such as Hsiu-Lan et al., 2014; Ryba et al., 2017; Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou, Mikedaki, Argyropoulou, & Kaliris, 2018).

Accordingly, the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to affirm and assess the career adaptability model conceptualization. The initial eigenvalues revealed four factors greater than one which were deemed reliable (Kaiser, 1960). Namely, career adaptability was verified to be measured by four composite variables of *career concern*, *career control*, *career curiosity*, and *career confidence*, all of which entailed six manifest variables as described in the literature. Figure 13 depicts the proposed high order career adaptability model (abbreviation *CA* stands for *career adaptability*).

Figure 13 High Order Career Adaptability Model



(Source: Author's Work)

Consequently, the factor loadings were statistically significant ($p<.01$). However, although there were a few items that had a lower factor-loading, because of the content relevance of the item and possible loss of valuable context, all items from the original scale were left in the analysis to provide more comparable data. The CFA results of the *career adaptability* scale are provided in Table 10.

Table 10 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of the Career Adaptability Scale

Construct	Subscale	Item	Standardized Estimates	
			Item	**Variable**
Career Adaptability	**Career Control**	item1	**.48**	**.99**
		item2	**.61**	
		item3	**.53**	
		item4	**.61**	
		item5	**.44**	
		item6	**.58**	
	Career Concern	item1	**.58**	**.92**
		item2	**.51**	
		item3	**.65**	
		item4	**.54**	
		item5	**.69**	
		item6	**.66**	
	Career Curiosity	item1	**.47**	**.91**
		item2	**.51**	
		item3	**.62**	
		item4	**.65**	
		item5	**.42**	
		item6	**.57**	
	Career Confidence	item1	**.68**	**.95**
		item2	**.47**	
		item3	**.60**	
		item4	**.48**	
		item5	**.70**	
		item6	**.66**	

(Source: Author's Work)

In order to attain a better model-fit, certain error terms among the subscales were correlated. The career adaptability model with four latent factors achieved acceptable fit indices ($\chi 2/df=2.321$, Pclose=0.017, CFI=.899, RMSEA=.058, and SRMR=.057). Thus, the model will be used in further statistical analysis. Moreover, the internal consistency was established by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficients, for each subscale and the scale as a whole (overall

scale α=.91; *career concern* α=.78; *career control* α=.72; *career curiosity* α=.72; *career confidence* α=.75).

3.3.2. Emotional Regulation and Control Scale (ERAC)

Emotional regulation and control is the most complex aspect of emotional intelligence competence (Takšić, 1998). Initially, emotional regulation and control was obtained as the second factor of three-factor 136-item *Emotional Skills and Competence Questionnaire* (Takšić, 2002b). The original Croatian version of the ERAC scale was used to assess the extent of students' ability to regulate and control negative emotions (Bubić, 2015; adapted from Takšić, 2002b). Thus, all 20 items in the scale were reverse-coded, and a higher score indicated increased perceived emotional regulation and control. All original items and their translations are provided in Appendix 3.

The scale consists of three factors. Namely, the first factor measures the influence of negative emotions/moods on thoughts by eight items (e.g., *I typically notice bad things when I am in a bad mood*). The second factor assesses the influence of negative emotions/moods on memory and is assessed by six items (e.g., *I recall situations in which I was angry very well*), while the third factor measures the control of emotional reactions and is also assessed by six items (e.g., *When I am angry, I blow up at people who had done nothing wrong to me*). All items were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale (1-strong disagreement, 5-strong agreement). Each ERAC subscale's composite score was computed as an assessed average value of all its items for that subscale. Therefore, a higher score meant higher level of emotional regulation and control.

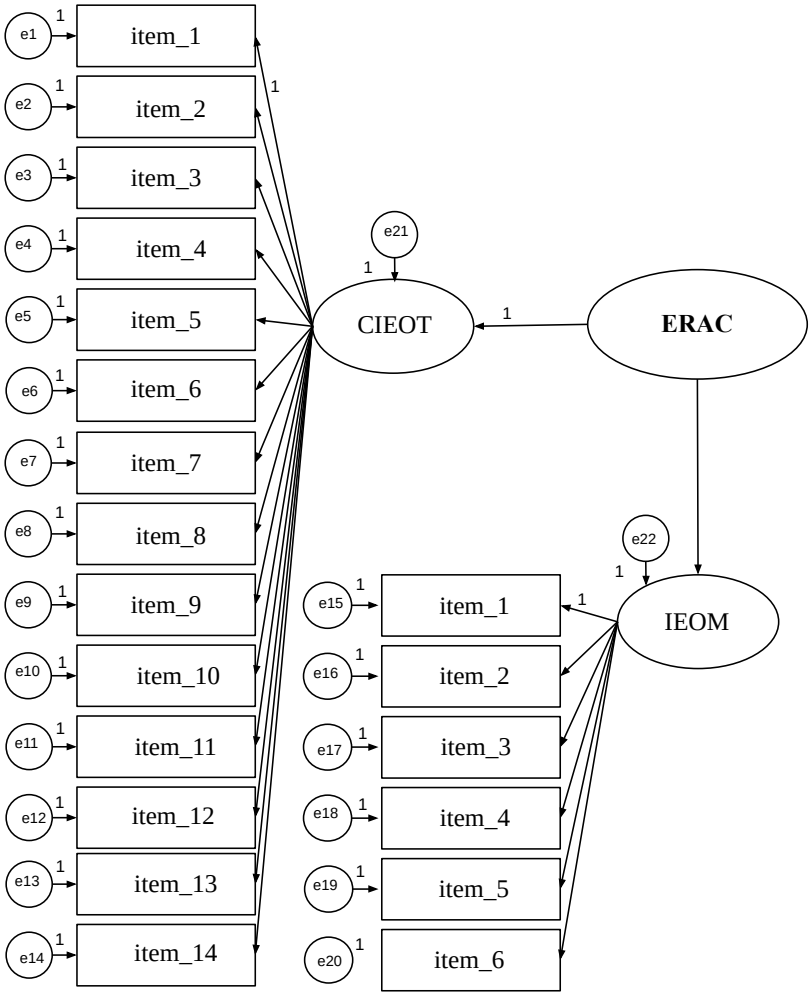
Moreover, Takšić (2003) suggested that ERAC scale be used either as a single-factor, a two-factor, or a tri-factor model, depending on which model shows higher internal consistency. Based on the exploratory factor analysis and the utilized *principal axis factoring* and *oblimin with Kaiser normalization*, a two-factor emotional regulation and control model was adopted as the model for this research and was later affirmed by the confirmatory factor analysis. The two factors emerged by combining the first and the third factor (*control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts*), while the second factor was separate (*the influence of emotions/moods on memory*). The two-factor-merge was acceptable due to the first and the third factor's high correlation (r>.50) and the third factor's low reliability (Takšić, 2003). The conducted exploratory factor analysis (EFA) used the extraction method of *principal axis*

factoring because the factor structure was previously known from the literature (Hair et al., 2010). Namely, the existence of one unique factor that affects each variable, but at the same time not any other, is presumed (Njeri Ngure, 2015). Also, *direct oblimin oblique* rotation was used as there is theoretical evidence of correlation between the factors, namely, it dictates how much of a correlation between the factors is allowed (Field, 2018). Thus, the conducted EFA revealed the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Test of .907, and the significant Bartlett's spherical test (.000). The initial eigenvalues revealed five factors greater than one, however, once the adjustments were fixed to two factors, the pattern matrix provided the exact pattern suggested by Takšić (2003).

To affirm and assess the emotional regulation and control model conceptualization, CFA was conducted. Namely, the above-mentioned analysis revealed and verified that the two-factor model was acceptable. Thus, two composite variables were used to measure emotional regulation and control, namely, the subscales named *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* consisting of 14 items, and *the influence of emotions/moods on memory* consisting of 6 items. Both latent variables entailed all manifest variables as initially described in the original scale. The proposed high order emotional regulation and control model is depicted in Figure 14 (abbreviation *ERAC* stands for emotional regulation and control, abbreviation *CIEOT* stands for *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts*; abbreviation *IEOM* stands for *influence of emotions/moods on memory*).

All factor loadings were statistically significant ($p<.01$). Nonetheless, similarly to the career adaptability factor-loading findings, there were few items that had a lower factor-loading. However, due to the relevance of the item content and possible loss of valuable context, all items from the original scale were left in the analysis to provide more comparable data. The CFA results for *emotional regulation and control* scale are provided in Table 11. However, to attain a better model fit, certain error terms in both subscales were correlated.

Figure 14 High Order Emotional Regulation and Control Model



(Source: Author's Work)

Finally, the emotional regulation and control model with two latent factors achieved excellent fit indices ($\chi 2/df=2.124$, Pclose=0.218, CFI=.929, RMSEA=.054, and SRMR=.053). Thus, the model will also be used in further analysis. Moreover, Cronbach's alpha coefficients assessed the internal consistency of the model for both subscales and the scale as a whole (overall scale $\alpha=.88$; *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* $\alpha=.86$; *influence of emotions/moods on memory* $\alpha=.76$).

Table 11 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of the Emotional Regulation and Control Scale

Construct	Subscale	Item	Standardized Estimates	
			Item	**Variable**
Emotional Regulation and Control	**Control of Emotions and Influence of Emotions/Moods on Thoughts**	item1	**.40**	**.77**
		item2	**.59**	
		item3	**.64**	
		item4	**.64**	
		item5	**.70**	
		item6	**.66**	
		item7	**.77**	
		item8	**.56**	
		item9	**.54**	
		item10	**.28**	
		item11	**.45**	
		item12	**.56**	
		item13	**.11**	
		item14	**.54**	
	Influence of Emotions/Moods on Memory	item1	**.51**	**.85**
		item2	**.59**	
		item3	**.60**	
		item4	**.29**	
		item5	**.69**	
		item6	**.81**	

(Source: Author's Work)

3.3.3. Entrepreneurial Intentions Questionnaire (EIQ)

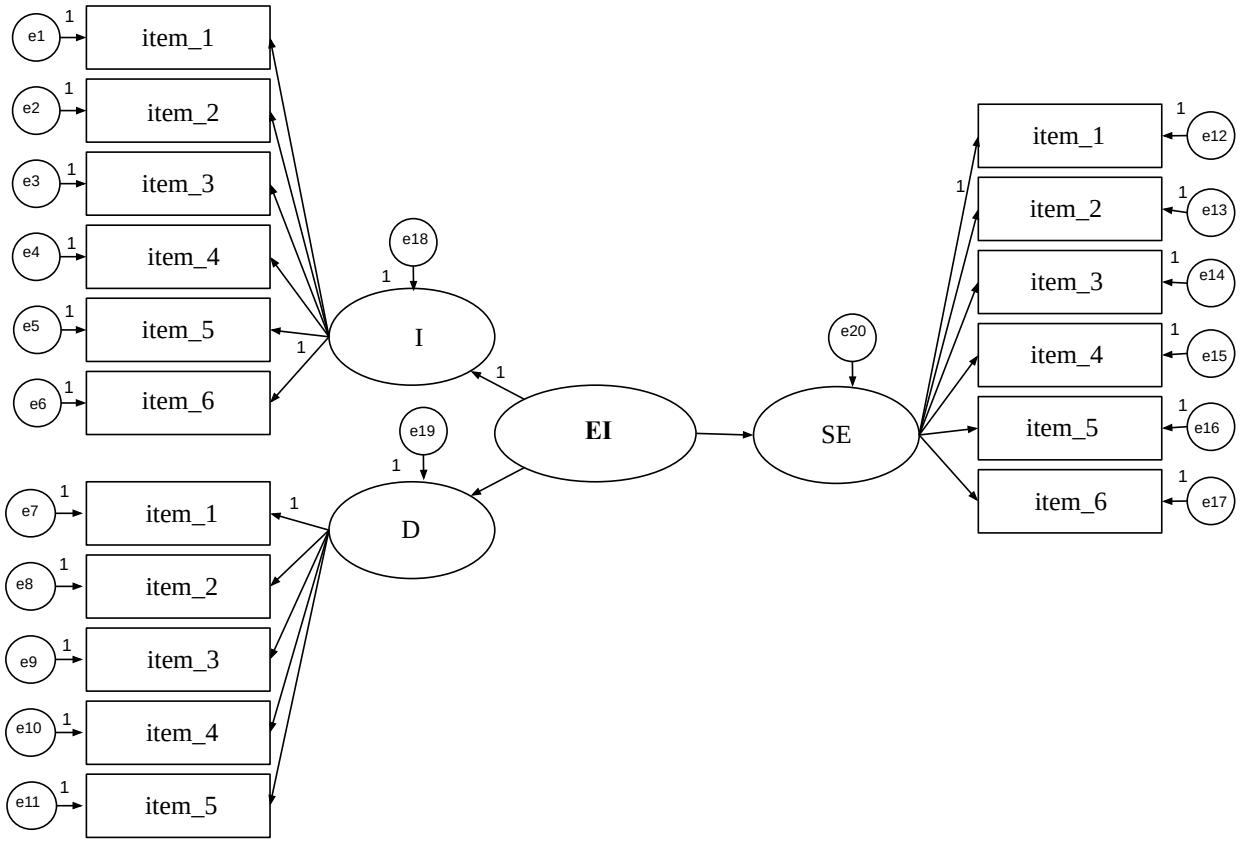
"The intention-based approach offers testable, theory-driven models of how exogenous factors affect attitudes, intentions, and behavior" (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993:316). EIQ consists of four scales used for measuring entrepreneurial intentions (Liñán & Chen, 2006). The instrument entails a six-item *entrepreneurial capacity* or *entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale*, a five-item *professional attraction scale*, three-item *social valuation scale*, and the seven-item

entrepreneurial intentions scale. The three-item *social valuation scale* entailed statements on family and friends' influence on one's decision to engage in an entrepreneurial endeavor, though not the extent of that influence, which is why the three-item scale was left out from this research. Although all items from the *professional attraction scale* remained, as done in practice, the term *professional attraction* was replaced by *desirability of entrepreneurship* (Liñán & Fayolle, 2015). Finally, the utilization of Liñán and Chen's (2006) three adjusted subscales were used to measure students' overall entrepreneurial intentions. The subscales entail five-item *entrepreneurial desirability* (e.g., *Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me*), six-item *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (e.g., *I am prepared to start a viable company*), and six-item *entrepreneurial intentions* (e.g., *My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur*). All original items and their translations are provided in Appendix 4. All items were evaluated on a 5-point Likert scale (1-strong disagreement, 5-strong agreement). Each entrepreneurial intention subscale's composite score was computed as an assessed average value of all its items for that subscale. Therefore, a higher score meant higher likelihood of having entrepreneurial intentions.

The Croatian translated version of Liñán and Chen's EIQ was adopted and used on the research sample (Miljković Krečar, 2013). Additionally, each subscale consists of two reverse-coded items. The reverse-coded items from the *entrepreneurial self-efficacy scale* are: "*I do not believe I am capable of starting my own business"* and "*Personally, it would be challenging for me to engage in an entrepreneurial project".* The two reverse-coded items from the *entrepreneurial desirability scale* are: *"I consider the entrepreneurial career to be completely unattractive"* and "*I would rather choose any other option than entrepreneurship*". Finally, the last two reverse-coded items from the *entrepreneurial intentions scale* are: "*I have almost no intention of starting my own company"* and "*I honestly doubt that I will ever start my own company"*.

The CFA was used to confirm the entrepreneurial intention model conceptualization and it ultimately affirmed the model of three latent variables: *entrepreneurial intentions*, *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial self-efficacy*. The proposed high order entrepreneurial intention model is shown in Figure 15 (abbreviation *I* stands for *entrepreneurial intentions*, abbreviation *D* stands for *entrepreneurial desirability*, abbreviation *SE* stands for *entrepreneurial self-efficacy*).

Figure 15 High Order Entrepreneurial Intentions Model



(Source: Author's Work)

Additionally, the factor loadings were statistically significant ($p<.01$), however, as there was one item that had lower factor-loadings, due to the item content relevance and possible loss of valuable context, all items from the original scale were left in the analysis to provide more comparable data. The CFA results for the *entrepreneurial intention* scale are provided in Table 12.

In order to attain a better model-fit, several error terms among each of the three subscales were correlated. The entrepreneurial intentions model with three latent factors achieved acceptable fit indices ($\chi 2/df=3.270$, Pclose=.000, CFI=.946, RMSEA=.076, and SRMR=.046). The p-Value for the model was statistically significant, however, it was affected by the large sample of respondents in this research (N=391) and was, thus, acceptable (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). Therefore, the model will be used in further analysis. Additionally, internal consistency was established by calculating Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each subscale and the scale as a whole (overall scale $\alpha=.94$; *entrepreneurial intentions* $\alpha=.92$; *entrepreneurial desirability* $\alpha=.86$; *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* $\alpha=.76$).

Table 12 Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results of the Entrepreneurial Intention Scale

Construct	Subscale	Item	Standardized Estimates	
			Item	Variable
Entrepreneurial Intentions	**Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy**	item1	**.72**	**.89**
		item2	**.82**	
		item3	**.64**	
		item4	**.39**	
		item5	**.56**	
		item6	**.72**	
	Entrepreneurial Intentions	item1	**.68**	**.96**
		item2	**.82**	
		item3	**.77**	
		item4	**.89**	
		item5	**.74**	
		item6	**.80**	
	Entrepreneurial Desirability	item1	**.69**	**.96**
		item2	**.78**	
		item3	**.67**	
		item4	**.81**	
		item5	**.76**	

(Source: Author's Work)

3.4. Data Collection Process

Based on previous research suggestions for examining CA, ERAC, and EI constructs, a highly structured self-report questionnaire was created, adjusted, and used as the primary method of data collection for this dissertation. A month before conducting research on the target sample, a small sample of students went through the questionnaire in order to ascertain the questionnaire's clarity. The research sample included students from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek, Croatia. The data was collected by a questionnaire in a written form during the first week of the second academic semester of 2019/2020, namely, from 24th to 28th February 2020. Since the self-report questionnaire was distributed among Croatian students, it was provided in students' native language, that is, Croatian language. The Faculty of Economics does not have

joint courses for all students at the third year of undergraduate study nor at the first- and second-year of graduate study, rather, students are assigned into groups according to their study field. In order to reach as many student groups as possible, an algorithm was created with the help of the Student Office at the Faculty of Economics which revealed specific courses that had the highest number of students enrolled for each study field at each chosen academic year. Therefore, twelve professors who teach those courses at the undergraduate and/or the graduate level were purposely chosen and contacted beforehand to gain the approval of entering their lectures on their courses' first day to distribute questionnaires to students.

Before the beginning of each lecture, professors introduced the author of this dissertation and her research. The author then provided students with general information regarding the reason they were asked to complete the questionnaire. They were presented with the questionnaire's structure and advised on properly completing the questionnaire. The first section of the questionnaire was explained to be the demographic data, while the second section contained statements on various aspects of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. Students were then asked to read both the instructions and statements carefully, concentrate, and answer honestly. The author emphasized that participation in the research was voluntary, completely anonymous and that the research findings would only be used in scientific-research purposes. The questionnaire was then distributed to students who needed approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete it.

The final obtained data was typed into an Excel file for a preliminary examination of data entering accuracy, data screening, and presence of extreme values (Vranešević, 2013). Furthermore, as all distributed questionnaires were in printed form, dealing with missing data in students' responses was inevitable (Myrtveit et al., 2001; Shrive et al., 2006). Research shows that maximum likelihood approaches are superior to listwise or pairwise deletion (Dong & Peng, 2013; Oblaković, 2015). Thus, the suggested and chosen expectation maximization (EM) algorithm was used during the data screening process. EM dealt with the missing data in such a way that it estimated parameters, which were then, in turn, utilized for finding the most likely unbiased value of the missing scores (Dempster et al., 1977; Schlomer et al., 2010).

3.5. Data Analysis

The screened data was used as the main database for conducting analyses in SPSS ver. 23.0, and AMOS ver. 21.0. Consequently, the final sample comprised 391 responses. The dissertation's primary data analyses entail univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analyses methods. First, the construct validity of the conceptual model was conducted. The CA, ERAC, and EI scales' main psychometric reliability and validity characteristics were addressed after having examined the factor structure. Reliability tests were conducted by Cronbach's alpha coefficient, Alpha-if-deleted, inter-item, and construct correlation, while validity was tested by examining the confirmatory factor analyses (CFA).

The methods of frequencies, arithmetical means, and standard deviations were used to examine descriptive research results. The initial hypotheses testing was examined by exploring the correlations leading up to more complex methods of regression analyses, SEM, and mediation analyses. In particular, for investigating the connection and correlation of the latent constructs of CA, ERAC, and EI, the bivariate correlations were examined. The regression analysis examined whether ERAC contributes to the clarification of EI. SEM tested the fit of the proposed conceptual entrepreneurial intentions model. Ultimately, when controlling for the effects of age, gender, and family company, the mediation analysis explored whether ERAC was the mediator of CA and EI's relationship and whether the mediation had statistical significance. All statistical analyses were conducted in SPSS ver. 23.0, apart from the SEM and CFA, which were conducted in AMOS ver. 21.0.

Further, in this research, procedural remedies for common-method bias were incorporated by using validated scales and assuring confidentiality and anonymity (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, the Harman's single-factor post-hoc test was conducted in SPSS (EFA) and Amos (CFA) to explore the presence of common method bias (Abbas & Wu, 2019; Ingram et al., 2019; Jakopec, 2015; Jeger, 2013; Kwon, 2019; Sušanj et al., 2015). The result of the EFA (principal axis factoring with unrotated factor solution) of all items for explored variables revealed 13 factors with eigenvalues greater than one (KMO=.916), whereas the first factor accounted for only 21.3 per cent of the variance. If a single factor explicated more than 50 per cent of the common variance, the effect of common method variance would be affirmed (Iakovleva et al., 2011; Ingram et al., 2019; Kautonen et al., 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Additionally, after having conducted the CFA, where all manifest variables were measured as

a single factor (Kumar & Shukla, 2019; Park & Park, 2020), the model revealed an inadequate fit to data (x2/df=5.193; Pclose=.000; GFI=.367; NFI=.341; CFI=.387; RMSEA=.104; SRMR=.191). Consequently, as the model fit was unacceptable, and there were thirteen revealed factors in the EFA, as opposed to one, in addition to the first factor not accounting for the majority of the variance, the common-method bias was not perceived as an issue in this research.

3.5.1. Structural Equation Modelling

"Structural equation modeling (SEM) is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory (i.e., hypothesis-testing) approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon" (Byrne, 2016:3). SEM entails the causal processes shown by regression equations that can be depicted to accurately conceptualize the theory. Then, a simultaneous statistical analysis ascertains the consistency of the hypothesized model to the data and if the goodness-of-fit is appropriate, the model is plausible, if not, the model is improbable and thus, dismissed (Byrne, 2016). The mean and covariance structures analysis is the core of SEM analyses (Byrne, 2016).

SEM is "a 'must' for researchers in the social sciences" (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008:53), as it tends to operationalize underlying constructs of latent variables' theoretical constructs (i.e., factors'), especially because they cannot be assessed directly (i.e., unobserved variables). When operationalized, their scores become the observed variables, i.e., manifest variables or indicators of these factor's underlying construct indicated in the model by squares or rectangles (Byrne, 2016; Stein et al., 2017; Williams et al., 2009). Moreover, exogenous are independent variables, while endogenous are dependent latent variables. According to Byrne (2016), the process of finding the model fit corresponds to the equation of *Observed Data = Hypothesized Model + Residual*. Namely, observed data is the sample variables' score that is equal to the hypothesized model, i.e., the structure combining the observed to the latent variables, plus the residual, the difference between hypothesized model and the observed data. Moreover, SEM explores the extent of a model's fit by linking predictor variables to outcome variables through any number of intervening paths (Hayes, 2009). Thus, SEM fits hypothesized models to observed data (Barrett, 2007).

Since regression analysis does not entail measurement error presence (Merino-Tejedor et al., 2018), the researchers suggest using SEM as a means of avoiding bias associated with single indicator models, and as a more precise estimate of the relationships among constructs. Also, before conducting any SEM analysis, regression analyses, path analyses and CFA need to ascertain the model variables' causal connections. While EFA, conducted in SPSS, is appropriate for initial scale development, CFA should be used to validate the model when an underlying theory exists, thus, both analyses should be conducted consecutively (Hurley et al., 1997). CFA measures the latent constructs' unidimensionality, validity and reliability (Awang, 2015), and is conducted in AMOS. AMOS allows for depicting and creating path diagrams by drawing instead of writing equations (Awang, 2014). Nonetheless, knowing how to use the software does not make a statistician, nor does it elevate one's research into science, however, it does have a large impact on the field (Babin & Svensson, 2012; Hox & Bechger, n.d.).

The general rule for conducting SEM analyses regarding the sample size is obtaining a larger sample than most statistical methods. Moreover, the correct way of using SEM in behavioral, social, and educational contexts requires the access to a large sample size (Raykov & Widaman, 1995) as "larger samples improve consistency in data and representation of the population characteristics, facilitating better generalizations regarding the causes of phenomena in nature" (Park et al., 2020:691). Many variables within the observed model mean a higher complexity of the model, thus, the sample needs to be large for the program to precisely conduct the analysis (Iacobucci, 2010).

Moreover, interpreting structural equation models depends on the values of their *goodness-of-fit* indices as they reveal the model's appropriateness. Namely, a *goodness-of-fit* index measures the model's fit to data "that ranges in possible value between zero and unity, with zero indicating a complete lack of fit and unity indicating perfect fit" (Mulaik et al., 1989:430). Fit indices are separated between absolute fit, incremental (comparative/relative), and parsimony fit indices (Hooper et al., 2008). Absolute fit indices are model chi-square ($\chi 2$), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit statistic (AGFI), root mean square residual (RMR), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), whereas incremental (comparative/relative) fit indices are normed-fit index (NFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI), and the parsimony fit indices include parsimony goodness-of-fit index (PGFI) and the parsimony normed fit index (PNFI). Depending on the scientific study field and the chosen model, researchers recommend presenting various fit

indices in SEM research as various aspects of the model fit are reflected by various indices. For example, in their research, Hu and Bentler (1999) reported NNFI, CFI, RMSEA, and its 90% confidence interval. Smith and McMillan (2001) suggested reporting on chi-square, absolute fit indices of GFI, AGFI, and incremental indices of CFI, NFI, and RMSEA. While McDonald and Ho (2002) suggested that commonly reported fit indices include CFI, GFI, NFI, and NNFI. Interestingly, although chi-square is considered a *goodness-of-fit index*, some researchers consider it a *lack-of-fit index* as it "ranges between zero and infinity, with zero indicating perfect fit and a large number indicating extreme lack of fit" (Mulaik et al., 1989:430). Furthermore, the most common model fit indices include the model chi-square, degrees of freedom and its p-Value, RMSEA, CFI, SRMR, and PNFI (Kline, 2017; Parry, 2020), as they are the least sensitive to "sample size, model misspecification, and parameter estimates" (Hooper et al., 2008:56). Kline (2005) and Gaskin and Lim (2016) suggested research to interpret $\chi 2$/df, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR. Accordingly, for a valid interpretation of the model fit for this research, the chosen goodness-of-fit indices of $\chi 2$/df, CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR, in addition to GFI and NFI, to further solidify evidence, are depicted and elaborated in Table 13.

Consequently, for examining the model fit of this dissertation's model, the dependent variable were the overall entrepreneurial intentions comprised of three subscales (*entrepreneurial self-efficacy*, *entrepreneurial desirability*, *entrepreneurial intentions*), the independent variable was final year undergraduate and graduate students' career adaptability comprised of four subscales (*career concern*, *control*, *curiosity*, *confidence*), and the mediator variable was students' emotional regulation and control comprised of two subscales (*control of emotional reactions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts*, *influence of emotions/moods on memory*).

Table 13 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Dissertation's Model Fit Interpretation

Measure	Name	Description	Cut-off Criteria
χ2/df	*Model Chi-Square/Degrees of Freedom*	Divides Chi-Square data distribution to its degrees of freedom	$\leq$ 2 or 3
GFI	*Goodness of Fit*	The proportion of variance accounted for by the estimated population covariance	$\geq$ 0.95
NFI	*Normed-Fit Index*	Compares the tested model with the main model; NFI of .95, indicates the model of interest improves the fit by 95% relative to the null model	$\geq$ 0.95
CFI	*Comparative Fit Index*	Compares the fit of a target model to the fit of an independent, or null, model	$\geq$ 0.9
RMSEA	*Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*	A parsimony-adjusted index with a 90% confidence interval where values closer to 0 represent a good fit	< 0.08
SRMR	*Standardized Root Mean Square Residual*	The square-root of the difference between the residuals of the sample covariance matrix and the hypothesized model	< 0.08

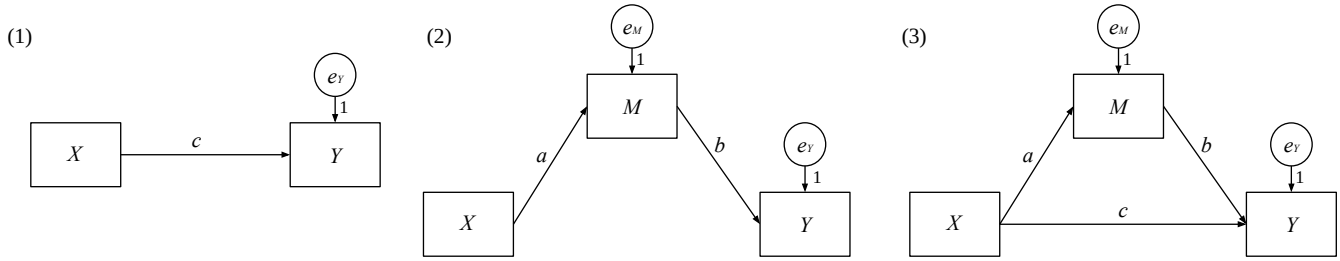
(Source: Author's Work According to Hooper et al., 2008; Kline, 2017; Parry, 2020:1)

3.5.2. Mediation Analysis

To conduct the mediation analysis, measurement invariance across groups, namely, the configural, metric, and scalar invariance, have to be tested (Vandenberg & Lance, 2000). Configural invariance explores the existence of the same number of factors across groups. Metric invariance investigates the strength of the item-to-factor relationship and both group equality, while scalar invariance examines whether the independent and dependent variables have the same value (Sušanj et al., 2015).

Mediation analysis is a standard method in psychological and behavioral research that explicates mechanisms through which effect operates (Hayes & Rockwood, 2020). However, certain preconditions have to be achieved for the mediation to be tested (Mathieu & Taylor, 2006). The mediation analysis assesses the relationship importance between the independent variable X and the dependent variable Y to ascertain the occurrence of mediation and the decision on its full or partial effect (Hayes & Preacher, 2014; Rucker et al., 2011). Three or more variables are considered a causal sequence; thus, the middle variable becomes the mediating variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Figure 16 depicts (1) a total effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable with no mediation, (2) a simple perfect mediation model with a direct effect of $X \rightarrow M$, $M \rightarrow Y$, and (3) a simple partial mediation model. A simple partial mediation occurs when the independent variable *X* influences the dependent variable *Y* indirectly through the mediating variable *M*, yet also directly. Thus, an indirect effect takes place as *X* affects *M*, and causally *M* affects *Y*. Hence, mechanisms occur which transfer *X*'s indirect and direct effect on *Y* (Hayes & Preacher, 2014). The most common test to measure simple mediation is the Sobel method, which assesses the total and direct effect divergence (Sobel, 1982; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). However, researchers argue that the mediation's intensity should be examined by indirect effects' immensity and importance (Rucker et al., 2011). Moreover, the mediation analysis is a system of regression equations (van Kesteren & Oberski, 2019). Conducting the mediation analyses is based on either the statistical or causal analytical approach. Statistical mediation analysis utilizes regression models, which approximate the variables' profoundness effect multiplied to ascertain the indirect effect. Nonetheless, when an interaction between the independent and mediator variables exists, the model cannot be created, and the statistical approach is, thus, limited. On the other hand, the causal mediation analysis permits nonlinear relationships and interactions (Hopin et al., 2019).

Figure 16 Path Diagram Form of a Simple Mediation Model



(Source: Author's Work Adjusted from Hayes & Preacher, 2014:452; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014:197)

Interestingly, Andrew F. Hayes created a freely available PROCESS macro modeling tool for analyzing mediation for SPSS and Statistical Analysis System (SAS; Field, 2018; Hayes, 2012; Hayes & Preacher, 2013). Consequently, the mediation analysis effect of the total, direct, and indirect influence conducted in AMOS, was used for analyzing the mediation of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between students' career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. Accordingly, the mediation analysis was conducted in three steps where the models were tested for full or partial mediation.

Firstly, the total effect model $X \rightarrow Y$ was explored, namely, the influence of career adaptability *X* on entrepreneurial intentions *Y*. The indirect effect model $X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ ($X \rightarrow Y$ is constrained to zero) was examined next. Emotional regulation and control was the mediating variable *M*. Thus, the direct influence of career adaptability *X* on emotional regulation and control *M*, and emotional regulation and control *M* on entrepreneurial intentions *Y* was assessed along with the indirect effect of career adaptability *X* on entrepreneurial intentions *Y*. If the indirect and the direct effects are statistically significant, partial mediation occurs (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, 2008). Lastly, both the indirect and the direct effect models were explored ($X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$, when $X \rightarrow Y$ is estimated freely). Thus, the last model tested the direct effect of career adaptability *X* on emotional regulation and control *M*, and the direct effect of the emotional regulation and control *M* on entrepreneurial intentions *Y*. The model also tested the direct and indirect effects of career adaptability *X* on entrepreneurial intentions *Y*. Consequently, once all three steps provide a suitable model fit, the mediation is confirmed (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, 2008).

CHAPTER IV

4. Description of the Empirical Research Results

This chapter justifies the parametric test utilization and provides the main descriptive data for the exogenous (independent) constructs and subscales of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and endogenous (dependent) construct of entrepreneurial intentions along with all constructs' and subscales' internal consistency coefficients.

The construct's assumption of normality is commonly assessed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Lilliefors, 1967; Massey, 1951). However, when conducted on our research sample, only the construct of emotional regulation and control revealed normal distribution (K-S value .04), while the constructs of career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions were statistically significantly different from the normal distribution (K-S value for CA .06, K-S value for EI .07; $p<.01$). However, when the sample size is larger than 300, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test may be unreliable (Bearden et al., 1982). Thus, when observing the constructs' skewness, which is the shape of the positive or negative asymmetrical distribution, the values for all constructs were less than the value of three (CA -.38, ERAC -.06, EI -.23), while the construct's values for kurtosis, which is the positive or negative curve/peak, were less than the value of ten (CA .28, ERAC -.35, EI -.54; Kline, 2005, 2016). Additionally, histograms and the normal quantile-quantile (Q-Q) plots verified that the deviations and outliers from the normal distribution were not substantial. Thus, the research results obtained by parametric tests will not be affected.

4.1. Descriptive Analysis of Career Adaptability, Emotional Regulation and Control, and Entrepreneurial Intentions

Before exploring the causal relationships among all variables, the univariate analysis of exogenous constructs of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control were analyzed first, followed by the endogenous construct of entrepreneurial intentions. Table 14 depicts the measured constructs, the number of items in each scale, the arithmetic means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, and Cronbach's alpha internal consistency coefficients for all measured constructs.

Considering all constructs' composite scores were explored as assessed average values of all items within the related construct, the results' variability is expectedly lower than individually

assessed constructs. The *career adaptability* composite variable entails higher internal consistency (α =.91) than the composite variable of *emotional regulation and control* (α =.88). Although the two subscale, *career control* and *career curiosity*, have the lowest internal consistency (α =.72), the internal consistency of all career adaptability subscales is acceptable. The first *emotional regulation and control* subscale, that is, *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* entails somewhat higher internal consistency (α =.86) then the rest of the exogenous subscales. Nonetheless, all coefficients are satisfactory, as the closer they get to 1.0, the greater reliability their scale ensures (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Accordingly, the endogenous composite construct *entrepreneurial intentions* entails the highest internal consistency (α =.94), while the reliability for its subscales ranges from acceptable to excellent.

Table 14 Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's α Internal Consistency Coefficients

Variable	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Min	Max	α
CAREER ADAPTABILITY	**24**	**4.1**	**.44**	**3**	**5**	**.91**
Career Concern	6	4.1	.53	2	5	.78
Career Control	6	4.2	.49	2	5	.72
Career Curiosity	6	4.1	.50	2	5	.72
Career Confidence	6	4.1	.51	2	5	.75
EMOTIONAL REGULATION AND CONTROL	**20**	**3.2**	**.67**	**1**	**5**	**.88**
Control of Emotions and Influence of Emotions/Moods on Thoughts	14	3.2	.71	1	5	.86
Influence of Emotions/Moods on Memory	6	2.9	.75	1	5	.76
ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS	**17**	**3.6**	**.77**	**1**	**5**	**.94**
Entrepreneurial Intentions	6	3.4	1.00	1	5	.92
Entrepreneurial Desirability	5	3.8	.87	1	5	.86
Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy	6	3.6	.67	2	5	.76

Note: N=391

(Source: Author's Own Work)

Moreover, research participants perceive themselves as possessing high levels of career adaptability, and they assess the highest value to *career control* (M=4.2, SD=0.49). Regarding emotional regulation, participants assess their *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* (M=3.2, SD=0.71) higher than the *influence of emotions on*

memory (M=2.9, SD=0.75). Finally, when discussing entrepreneurial intentions, the research participants appoint the highest value to the *entrepreneurial desirability* (M=3.8, SD=0.87), while the lowest to *entrepreneurial intentions* (M=3.4, SD=1.00).

4.2. Analysis of Correlations Between the Constructs of Career Adaptability, Emotional Regulation and Control, and Entrepreneurial Intentions

In order to explore the first research problem that investigates the relationship between career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions, the corresponding first hypothesis (*H1: There is a positive correlation between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions)* was analyzed through bivariate correlation of the mentioned constructs. Namely, Table 15 provides the calculated Pearson's correlation coefficient (*r*) of manifest control variables of age, gender, family company, and the composite latent constructs of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions and their subscales. Latent constructs' inter-correlations are significant at the levels of 0.01 (sig.2-tailed) and 0.05 (sig.2-tailed) and range from negligible to very high positive correlations. For achieving clearer data visibility, in the next subchapter all statistically significant correlations will be mentioned for each manifest control variable first, followed by each of the three latent constructs and their subscales.

4.2.1. Correlations of Demographic Variables

As can be seen in Table 15, the manifest control variable **age** has a statistically significant positive correlation to the composite construct of *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=.10; $p<0.05$) and its subscale *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=.10; $p<0.05$). The manifest control variable **gender** has a rather negligible yet still statistically significant negative correlation to *family company*, that is, family members owning a company (r=-.11; $p<0.05$). Also, there is a relatively low positive correlation to *career adaptability* (r=.18; $p<0.01$) and its subscales (r ranges from .10 to .18; $p<0.01$). Moreover, *gender* negatively correlates the composite construct of *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=-.17; $p<0.01$), in addition to its two subscales of *entrepreneurial desirability* (r=-.16; $p<0.01$) and *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=-.19; $p<0.01$).

Table 15 Inter-Correlation Matrix

Correlations

		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1.	Age	-.04	-.04	0	0	-.01	.02	0	-.04	0	-.10	.10*	.10*	.09	.09
2.	Gender	-	-.11*	.18**	.16**	.18**	.10*	.17**	-.03	-.05	-.02	-.17**	-.19**	-.16**	-.10
3.	Family Company		-	-.01	-.03	0	-.03	.02	.07	.08	.08	.19**	.21**	.11*	.18**
4.	**CAREER ADAPTABILITY**			-	.88**	.85**	.83**	.87**	.29**	.29**	.13**	.40**	.34**	.33**	.46**
5.	Career Concern				-	.66**	.67**	.69**	.19**	.20**	.06	.37**	.31**	.30**	.42**
6.	Career Control					-	.58**	.70**	.26**	.26**	.15**	.33**	.26**	.26**	.41**
7.	Career Curiosity						-	.62**	.27**	.28**	.12*	.37**	.32**	.33**	.37**
8.	Career Confidence							-	.26**	.27**	.13**	.32**	.27**	.24**	.40**
9.	**EMOTIONAL REGULATION AND CONTROL**								-	.96**	.73**	.29**	.23**	.25**	.34**
10.	Control of Emotions and Influence on Emotions/Moods on Thoughts									-	.55**	.31**	.25**	.28**	.34**
11.	Influence of Emotions/Moods on Memory										-	.15**	.11*	.10*	.22**
12.	**ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS**											-	.95**	.91**	.85**
13.	Entrepreneurial Intentions												-	.84**	.72**
14.	Entrepreneurial Desirability													-	.66**
15.	Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy														-

*Note: N=391. * p < .05, ** p < .01*

(Source: Author's Own Work)

The manifest control variable of **family company** negligibly positively correlates with *entrepreneurial intentions* composite construct (r=.19; p<0.01), and its subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r*=.11; p<0.05), *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*=.18; p<0.01), and *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.21; p<0.01).

4.2.2. Correlations of Latent Variables

As shown in Table 15, the **career adaptability** measure correlates positively, yet negligibly, to the composite construct of *emotional regulation and control* (*r* =.29; p<0.01) and its subscales *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* (*r*=.29; p<0.01), and *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (*r*=.13; p<0.01). Moreover, there is a low statistically significant positive correlation with the composite construct *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.40; p<0.01) and its subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r*=.33; p<0.01), *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*= .46; p<0.01), and *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.34; p<0.01).

The dimension **career concern** has a moderate positive correlation to other career adaptability subscales (*r* ranges from .66 to .69; p<0.01), negligible positive correlation to *emotional regulation and control* (*r*=.19; p<0.01), and *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* (*r*=.20; p<0.01), and a slightly higher yet still low positive correlation with the composite construct *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.37; p<0.01) and its subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r*=.30; p<0.01), *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*=.42; p<0.01), and *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*= .31; p<0.01). However, *career concern* does not statistically significantly correlate with the *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (*r* =.06).

Accordingly, the subscale **career control** has a moderate positive correlation with *career curiosity* (*r* = .58; p<0.01), and a high correlation with *career confidence* (r=.70; p<0.01). There is also a negligible positive correlation to *emotional regulation* and its subscales (*r* ranges from .15 to .26; p<0.01), and a low positive correlation with *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=.33; p<0.01). From all correlations among entrepreneurial intentions dimensions, the strongest correlation is achieved with *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (r=.41; p<0.01).

The subscale **career curiosity** has a moderate positive statistically significant correlation with *career confidence* (r=.62; p<0.01), and a low positive correlation with *entrepreneurial intentions* and its subscales (r ranges from .32 to .37; p<0.01). Further, there is a slight positive

correlation with *emotional regulation and control* (r=.27; p<0.01), and its subscales *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* (r=28; p<0.01) and *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (r=.12; p<0.05).

The subscale **career confidence** has a slight positive correlation with *emotional regulation and control* and its subscales (r ranges from .13 to .27; p<0.01), and the subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial intentions* (r ranges from .24 to .27; p<0.01). Nonetheless, there is low positive correlation with the composite construct *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=.32; p<0.01), and a slightly higher positive correlation with *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (r=.40; p<0.01).

Although statistically significant, the **emotional regulation and control** measure has fairly negligible positive correlation to *entrepreneurial intentions* composite construct (*r*=.29; p<0.01), followed by subscales *entrepreneurial intentions* and *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r* ranges from .23 to .25; p<0.01), while the highest correlation, once more, is achieved with *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r* =.34; p<0.01).

The subscale **control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts** has a moderate correlation to the second subscale *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (*r*=.55; p<0.01), a low correlation with *entrepreneurial intentions* composite construct (*r*=.31; p<0.01) and the subscale *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*=.34; p<0.01), while there is a negligible correlation to the subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r*=.28; p<0.01), and *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.25; p<0.01).

The second subscale **influence of emotions/moods on memory** has a rather low positive correlation with *entrepreneurial intentions* composite (*r*=.15; p<0.01), subscales *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*=.22; p<0.01), *entrepreneurial intentions* (*r*=.11 ; p<0.05) and *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r*=.10; p<0.05).

Finally, the **entrepreneurial intentions** subscale has a high positive correlation to *entrepreneurial desirability* (*r* =.84; p<0.01), and *entrepreneurial self-efficacy* (*r*=.72; p<0.01), while the subscale **entrepreneurial desirability** has a moderate positive correlation to the subscale **entrepreneurial self-efficacy** (r=.66; p<0.01).

Accordingly, correlations between all latent constructs and subscales of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions are statistically significant and positive apart from the correlation between *career concern* and *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (r =.06) which, although positive, is not statistically significant. Thus, it can be concluded that the first hypothesis is confirmed as all correlations among latent variables are statistically significant and positive.

4.3. Analysis of Emotional Regulation and Control's Contribution to the Explanation of Entrepreneurial Intentions

In order to ascertain the extent to which emotional regulation and control explicates entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability, the second hypothesis (*H2: Emotional regulation and control contributes to the clarification of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability*) was analyzed by means of the multivariate method of hierarchical regression analysis. A hierarchical regression, also called the fixed-order analysis, consists of independent variables that are placed into the regression equation in a prespecified order (Jong, 1999). Accordingly, for this hierarchical regression analysis, the composite variable of entrepreneurial intentions was chosen as the dependent variable.

In this empirical research many demographic variables were collected, however, after having conducted the hierarchical regression analysis with all demographic variables as predictors and entrepreneurial intentions as the criterion, the last step of the analysis revealed only the effects of *age, gender* and *family company* (*whether any one of the parents owns a company*) as statistically significant. Therefore, the three manifest variables (*age, gender, family company*) were chosen as control variables in the proposed model. The contribution of demographic variables to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions is well known and quite researched (as described in chapter II section 2.1.4.). Researchers tend to place demographic variables in the first step of the regression analysis, which is why, in this research including control variables (*age, gender, family company*) in the analysis was also placed in the first step in order to see how much they alone account for the total variance of entrepreneurial intentions. Then, career adaptability dimensions (*career concern, control, curiosity,* and *confidence*) were placed as the second step of the hierarchical regression analyses to explicate the extent of the total entrepreneurial intention variance explanation. The third step entailed the addition of the dimensions of emotional regulation and control (*control of emotions and influence of*

emotions/moods on thoughts, and *influence of emotions/moods on memory*) to clarify the extent of the total entrepreneurial intention variance explanation beyond career adaptability. Thus, the analysis is primarily focused on the contribution of career adaptability to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions, and the contribution of emotional regulation and control to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability. Hierarchical regression analysis results with the dependent variable of entrepreneurial intentions are depicted in Table 16.

Namely, the first step of the model measured whether the contribution of age, gender, and family company exists towards predicting student's entrepreneurial intentions. Findings shows that age, gender, and family company statistically significantly account for 7% of the entrepreneurial intention variance (R^2=.07; F=9.42; p<0.01). All three manifest variables are revealed as statistically significant independent predictors of entrepreneurial intentions according to their Beta coefficients (β; *age* β =.10; t = 2.14; p<0.05; *gender* β =-.15; t =-2.95; p<0.01; *family company* β =.17; t = 3.52; p<0.05).

The second step of the model measured whether the contribution of career adaptability dimensions exists towards predicting student's entrepreneurial intentions. Results show that the career adaptability dimensions, in addition to age, gender, and family company, successfully account for 27% of the dependent variable's variance (R^2=.27; F=20.27; p<0.01). Additionally, in the second step, apart from the three statistically significant independent predictors from the first step (*age, gender, family company*), there are two additional variables revealed as statistically significant individual predictors of the dependent variable based on their statistically significant Beta coefficients (β), namely, *career concern* (β =.19; t = 2.79; p<0.01) and *career curiosity* (β =.18; t = 2.96; p<0.01).This suggests that students who think about their future careers and who perceive themselves as curious also perceive themselves keener on having entrepreneurial intentions than those who do not think about their future careers. The four added career adaptability dimensions statistically significantly contributed 20% to the explanation of entrepreneurial intentions (ΔR^2 =.20; ΔF^2 = 26.54; p<0.01).

Table 16 Contribution of Age, Gender, Family Company, Career Adaptability Dimensions, and Emotional Regulation and Control Dimensions to the Explanation of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Model Steps		*β*	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	F	Change Statistics				t	Sig.
								R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2		
	Age	.10*										2.14	.03
1	Gender	-.15**	**.26**	**.07**	**.06**	**.75**	**9.42****	**.07**	**9.42****	**3**	**387**	-2.95	.00
	Family Company	.17**										3.52	.00
	Age	.10*										2.27	.02
	Gender	-.22**										-4.97	.00
	Family Company	.18**										4.00	.00
2	Career Concern	.19**	**.52**	**.27**	**.26**	**.67**	**20.27****	**.20**	**26.54****	**4**	**383**	2.79	.00
	Career Control	.11										1.70	.09
	Career Curiosity	.18**										2.96	.00
	Career Confidence	0.03										.45	.65
	Age	.10*										2.35	.01
	Gender	-.20**										-4.64	.00
	Family Company	.16**										3.77	.00
	Career Concern	.21**										3.06	.00
3	Career Control	.09	**.55**	**.30**	**.28**	**.66**	**18.11****	**.03**	**7.96****	**2**	**381**	1.38	.17
	Career Curiosity	.15*										2.41	.01
	Career Confidence	0										.08	.94
	Control of Emotions and Influence of Emotions/ Moods on Thoughts	.18**										3.37	.00
	Influence of Emotions/ Moods on Memory	0										.02	.98

Note: *Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intentions*; * p < .05, ** p < .01

(Source: Author's Own Work)

The third step in the model included the predicting variables of *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* and *influence of emotions/moods on memory*, which, in total, statistically significantly explained 30% of the dependent variable's variance (R^2=.30; F=18.11; p<0.01). Thus, the two added predicting variables statistically significantly contributed 3% to the explanation of the entrepreneurial intention variance (ΔR^2 =.03; ΔF^2 =7.96; p<0.01), which resulted in revealing one of the added variables as an individual predictor due to its statistically significant Beta coefficient, namely, *control of emotions and influence of emotions/moods on thoughts* (β =.18; t = 3.37; p<0.01). Hence, students who believe that they can control their emotions and can, thus, influence their thoughts, consider themselves keener on having entrepreneurial intentions. Interestingly, *career concern* was revealed as the strongest individual predictor of entrepreneurial intentions since it made the most significant contribution to the explanation of the entrepreneurial intention variance (β =.21; t = 3.06; p<0.01).

Consequently, as the obtained results from the third step reveal that emotional regulation and control contributes to the clarification of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability, and considering the contribution is statistically significant (ΔR^2 =.03; ΔF^2 =7.96; p<0.01), the second hypothesis is, thus, also confirmed.

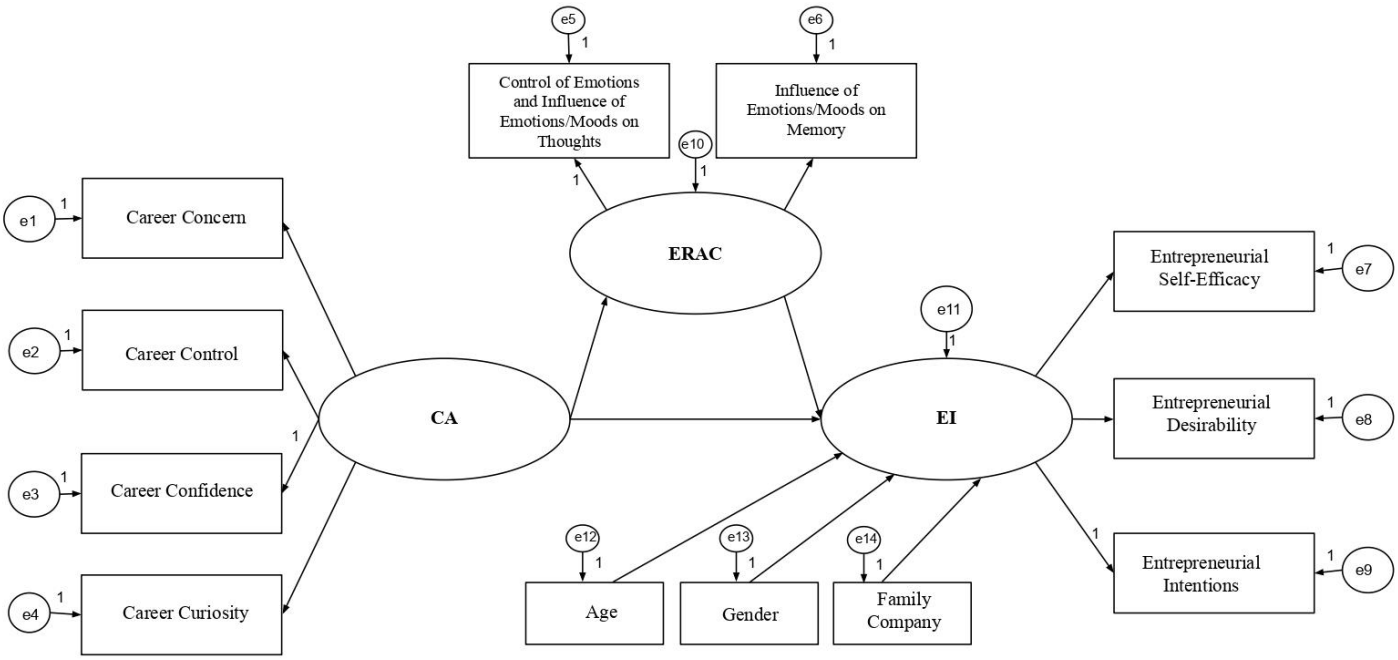
4.4. Testing the Entrepreneurial Intention Prediction Model and Mediation

In order to confirm that the conceptualized model from Figure 1 is acceptable and fits the obtained empirical data, the model was constructed and analyzed in the statistical package AMOS ver. 21.0 by conducting reliability and validity tests, and structural equation modeling (SEM).

SEM is a method of analyzing both the connection between observed and latent variables and among latent variables, which allows for hypothesis creation that is tested based on the conceptualized model with the obtained empirical data. Additionally, SEM is used for more complex models, such as the one proposed in Figure 17, as it allows for a large number of variables to be tested and for their inter-connections to be observed. While in the first chapter of this dissertation, Figure 1 depicts the conceptualized theoretical framework of the proposed model, Figure 17 provides the AMOS model representation of relationships between 15 exogenous and 14 endogenous variables (abbreviation *CA* stands for *career adaptability*;

abbreviation *ERAC* stands for *emotional regulation and control*; abbreviation *EI* stands for *entrepreneurial intentions*).

Figure 17 The Model's Representation of Relationships Between Variables



(Source: Author's Work)

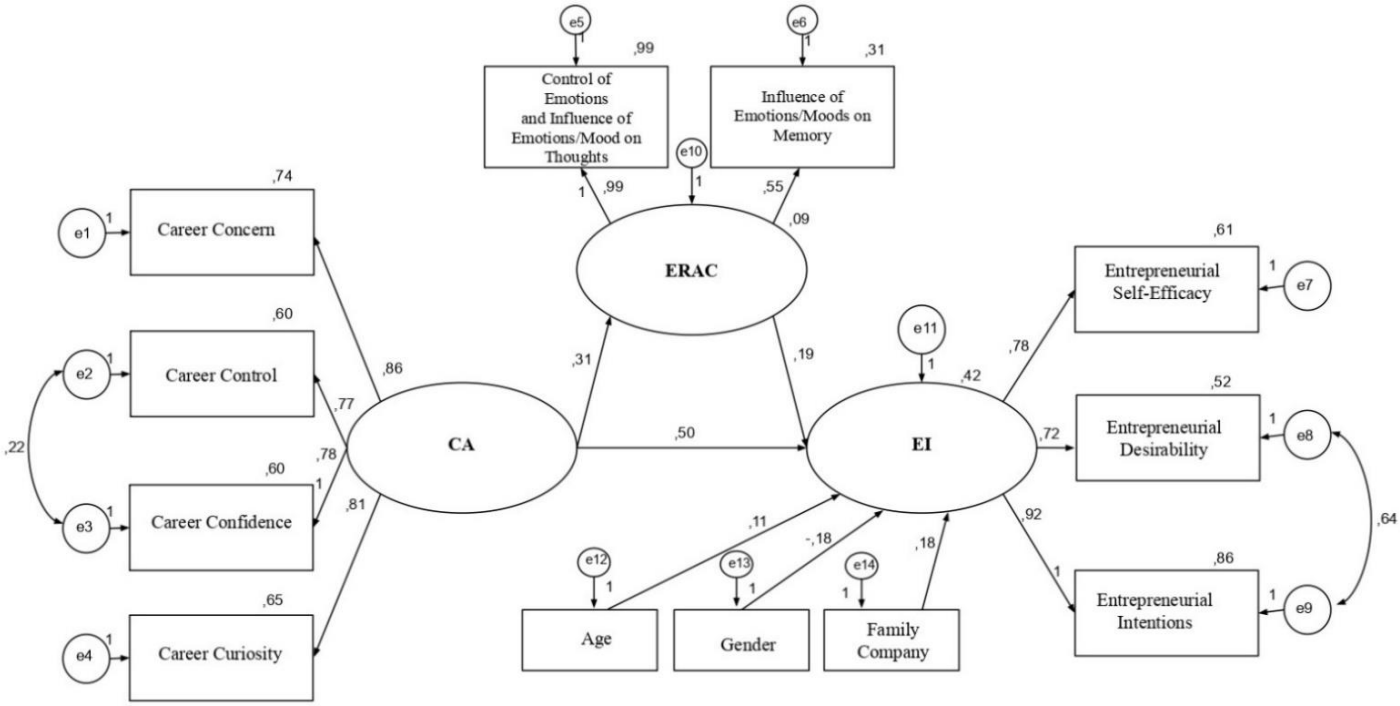
The conceptualized model was tested by means of regression analyses to provide the extent of the model fit to data. After having entered the proposed model into AMOS, among other parameters, the analysis revealed significant Chi-square, goodness-of-fit (GFI), normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Hence, the analysis affirmed an acceptable model fit. When considering modification indices within the same construct, a correlation between the error terms of *career control* and *career confidence*, and a correlation between the error terms of *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial intentions*, was suggested by AMOS. Additionally, there was statistical significance in the covariance of *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial intentions* (the assessment of all parameters is provided in Appendix 5).

According to Lance and Vandenberg (2009:204) allowing indicator residuals to correlate "assumes that observed covariation has not been accounted for by all variables in the model such as multiple repeated measurements (e.g., in longitudinal research), sampling error, or omitted variables (e.g. method variance, multidimensional constructs, or higher-order constructs)". Nonetheless, "there may be several "theoretical" explanations for the correlated residuals" (Lance & Vandenberg, 2009:207). Fornell (1983:447) advised that correlating measurement residual is allowed if "(1) it is warranted on theoretical or methodological grounds, or (2) it does not significantly alter the structural parameter estimates". Saris and Aalberts (2003) suggested *method effect*, *relative answers*, *acquiescence bias* (responding positively to statement regardless of their content), and *variation in response function* as possible explanations for correlating errors. The *method effect* occurs once the data had been collected via only one method (such as a questionnaire), by the same person, at a specific point in time and place (Smolkowski, 2014). Bollen and Lennox (1991:310) further suggested that "correlated errors are possible among items using similar wordings or appearing near to each other on the questionnaire". The wording of *career control* and *career confidence* items is not identical, and the items from these dimensions were not placed consecutively on the questionnaire. Nonetheless, the items did appear near to each other, they were all collected from the same questionnaire, and they all refer to one's independence and self-efficacy perception, which may, thus, explain the suggestion on correlating residuals between the two dimensions. Further, the *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial intention* items, although separated by items from other constructs, they were collected from the same questionnaire, were placed one after another, had similar wording among its items (*firm*), and refer to one's perception of entrepreneurship as a potential career choice, which, therefore, may explain the suggestion on correlating residuals between these two dimensions. Thus, the model was slightly adjusted by adding a correlation between error terms of *career control* and *career confidence*, and between the error terms of *entrepreneurial desirability* and *entrepreneurial intentions*. The suggested adjustments resulted in achieving an excellent model fit.

Figure 18 provides the final version of the model with standardized beta coefficients shown for each variable. The findings provide valuable information regarding the three latent (*career adaptability*, *emotional regulation and control*, *entrepreneurial intentions*) and manifest control variables (*age*, *gender*, *family company*). Namely, *career adaptability* (CA) is a statistically significant predictor of entrepreneurial intentions and has a direct effect on *emotional regulation and control* (ERAC; β=.31; $p<0.01$). *Emotional regulation and control* is

a statistically significant predictor of *entrepreneurial intentions* and has a direct effect on *entrepreneurial intentions* (EI; β=.19; p<0.01). Additionally, *career adaptability* has a statistically significant direct effect on *entrepreneurial intentions* (β=.50; p<0.01). Finally, *age* (β=.11; p<0.01), *gender* (β=-.18; p<0.01), and *family company* (β=.18; p<0.01) also have a statistically significant direct effect on *entrepreneurial intentions*, and are, therefore, statistically significant predictors of *entrepreneurial intentions*. The analysis of the indirect effect and its significance follows shortly.

Figure 18 The Final Model's Representation with Standardized Coefficients



(Source: Author's Work)

As explained in chapter III section 3.5.1. and as shown in Table 17, the model's selected goodness-of-fit indices are within the assigned thresholds, which indicates an excellent model fit to data. The Chi-square test assesses the difference between the observed covariance matrix and the one predicted by the proposed model, and a value greater than .05 declares a good fit ($\chi 2$=39.124; Merino-Tejedor et al., 2018). Hence, when controlling for the effects of *age*, *gender* and *family company*, the findings reveal *career adaptability* and *emotional regulation and control* as statistically significant predictors of *entrepreneurial intentions*. Namely, the proposed model accurately predicts that in addition to individuals being older, male and having

parents entrepreneurs, perceiving oneself as career adaptable and regulating and controlling one's emotions directly influences one's tendency to have entrepreneurial intentions.

Table 17 Proposed Model's Goodness-of-Fit Indices

Measure	Threshold	Model Value Estimate
χ2/df	≤ 2 or 3	1.929
PClose	>.05	.532
GFI	≥ .95	.960
NFI	≥ .95	.954
CFI	≥ .9	.977
RMSEA	< .08	.049
SRMR	< .08	.052

(Source: Author's Work)

In order to ascertain whether the constructs from the proposed model entail validity, in addition to factors' internal consistency reliability, construct validity (i.e. convergent and discriminant validity) was assessed by exploring Cronbach's Alpha, composite reliability (CR), average variance extracted (AVE), and maximum shared squared variance (MSV; Youngbum, Marzec, & Edington, 2015). Internal consistency reliability is assessed by Cronbach's Alpha and CR, both of which entail the threshold of >.7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Furthermore, to achieve convergent validity CR has to be greater than AVE, while AVE should be greater than 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, according to Almén, Lundberg, Sundin and Jansson (2018), discriminant validity is acomplished if AVE is greater than MSV. According to Table 14 and Table 18, by analyzing constructs' reliability and validity, it can be concluded that satisfactory internal consistency, and convergent, and discriminant validity are achieved.

A satisfactory model fit is aimed at for being able to explore the extent of the predicting variables' indirect effect on the dependent variable (Celik & Storme, 2018). Indirect effects are a merger of linear structural parameters product that leads to and indicates prospective mediators (Sobel, 1982). Thus, in order to investigate the mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions, the third hypothesis was analyzed by means of effect sizes in AMOS, and the statistical significance

of the effect was affirmed by the Sobel's test (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Sobel, 1982; *H3: Emotional regulation and control is the mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions).*

Table 18 Validity Indicators of Career Adaptability, Emotional Regulation and Control, and Entrepreneurial Intentions

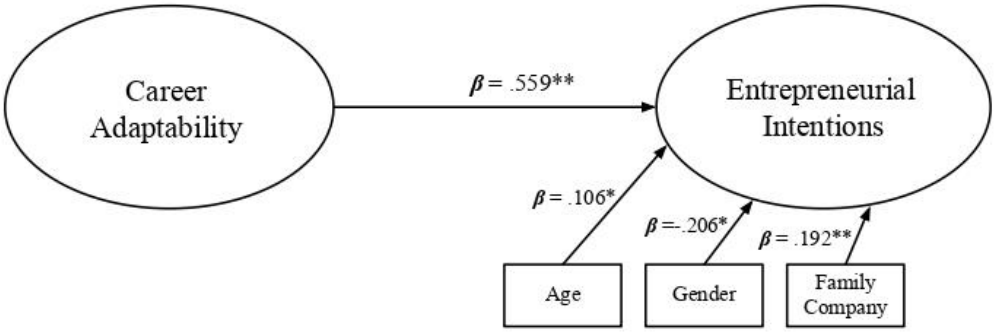
Construct	CR	AVE	MSV
Career Adaptability	.88	.64	.25
Emotional Regulation and Control	.76	.64	.13
Entrepreneurial Intentions	.84	.65	.25

(Source: Author's Work)

Additionally, the effects of *age*, *gender*, and *family company* on entrepreneurial intentions were also controlled for in each of the three mediation models. Before testing the indirect effect, the procedures of bootstrapping tested the model's significance (Zampetakis et al., 2008). Namely, since it does not require distribution assumptions, the bias-corrected bootstrap method was conducted to ameliorate the confidence limits accuracy for the indirect effect (MacKinnon et al., 2004). The sample size was reconstructed and resampled 1000 times, while the percentile method was utilized to create 95% confidence intervals.

When testing the indirect effect of variables, the prospective mediators are assessed in such a way that initially the direct effect without mediators are measured, with the indirect effect with mediators following. Thus, the first step in the mediation analysis includes the assessment of the total effect model ($X \rightarrow Y$), namely the direct effect of career adaptability X on entrepreneurial intentions Y depicted in Figure 19. The standardized beta coefficient reveals a statistically significant direct effect of career adaptability on entrepreneurial intentions (β=0.56; p<0.01). Additionally, the effects of age (β=0.11; p<0.05), gender (β=-0.21; p<0.05), and family company (β=0.19; p<0.01) on entrepreneurial intentions are also revealed to be statistically significant.

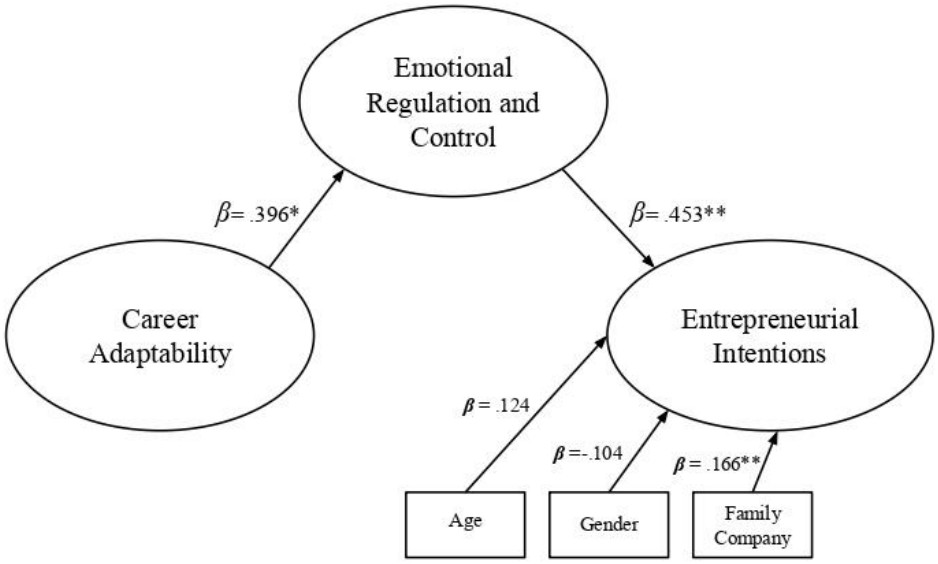
Figure 19 Total Effect of Career Adaptability on Entrepreneurial Intentions with Control Variables



(Source: Author's Own Work)

Further, the indirect effect model (*X→M→Y)* is examined, where emotional regulation and control *M* is assessed as the mediating variable. As depicted in Figure 20, the standardized beta coefficients for the relationship between career adaptability and emotional regulation and control reveal a statistically significant direct effect (β=0.39; p<0.05), as well as for the relationship between emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions (β=0.45; p<0.01). Furthermore, only the direct effect of the control variable family company (β=0.16; p<0.01) on entrepreneurial intentions is revealed to be positive and statistically significant.

Figure 20 The Direct Effects of Career Adaptability on Emotional Regulation and Control, and Emotional Regulation and Control on Entrepreneurial Intentions with Control Variables



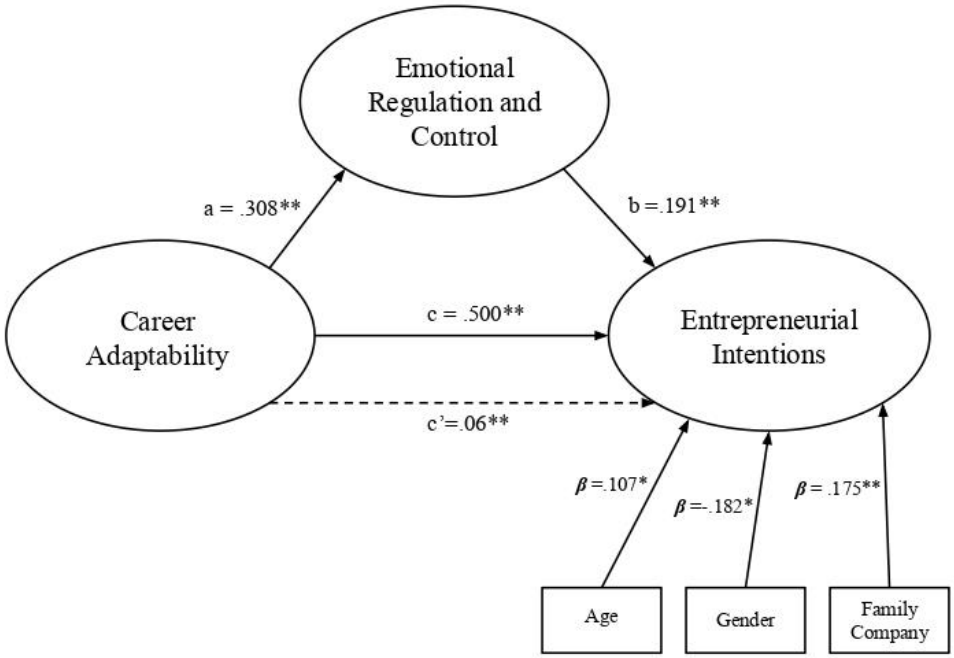
(Source: Author's Own Work)

Baron and Kenny (1986) proposed a procedure to establish the full or partial mediation effect with four following steps. First, the independent variable *X* has to be a significant predictor of the dependent variable *Y*. Then, the independent variable *X* should also have a significant effect on the prospective mediating variable *M*, which, in turn, should have a significant effect on the dependent variable *Y*. Lastly, simultaneous analysis of the mediating and the independent variable should reveal that the previously significant correlation between the independent and the dependent variable has become insignificant. Once the mentioned occurrence happens, full mediation is achieved. However, if their effect stays significant but is reduced, i.e., if the independent variable's both indirect and direct effects on the dependent variable are statistically significant, the results suggest that the achieved mediation is partial (Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, 2008).

Finally, both the indirect and the direct effect models are explored ($X \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$, when $X \rightarrow Y$ is estimated freely). In Figure 21, the model's significance effect is depicted. Namely, although career adaptability directly, positively, and statistically significantly influences entrepreneurial intentions both in Figure 20, the first model (β=0.56; p<0.01) and in Figure 21, the third model (β=0.50; p<0.01), when emotional regulation and control is entered as the predicting mediating variable in the third model, the direct effect of the dependent variable on the independent variable slightly decreased. Thus, it can be concluded that partial mediation is achieved in the proposed model. Also, the direct effects of age (β=0.11; p<0.05) and family company (β=0.18; p<0.01) on entrepreneurial intentions are statistically significant and positive, whereas the effect of gender (β=0.18; p<0.05) on entrepreneurial intentions is statistically significant and negative. The meaning of the partial mediation models' control variable findings will be discussed in the next chapter of this dissertation, in section 5.3.

The Sobel's test is a tool that measures the statistical significance of the mediation effect. It calculates the regression coefficients for the relationship between the independent and the mediating variable and their standard error, and the relationship between the mediating and the dependent variable and their standard error (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Preacher & Hayes, 2004, 2008; Sobel, 1982). Namely, according to Preacher and Hayes (2004), the equation assesses the mediating effect's significance with a formula, i.e., *z*-value = $a*b/\text{SQRT}(b^2*s_a^2 + a^2*s_b^2)$. Hence, after having conducted the Sobel test, the findings confirmed the statistical significance of emotional regulation and control's mediating effect in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (z=3.35; p<0.001).

Figure 21 Partial Mediation Model of Career Adaptability, Emotional Regulation and Control and Entrepreneurial Intentions with Control Variables



(Source: Author's Own Work)

Additionally, Table 19 affirms that the total effect of career adaptability on entrepreneurial intentions is statistically significant (β =.56; p<0.01), as well as the direct effect of career adaptability on the mediating variable emotional regulation and control (β =.31; p<0.01).

Table 19 Two-Tailed Significance for Standardized Total, Direct and Indirect Effects

Two Tailed Significance (BC)				**Two Tailed Significance (BC)**						**Two Tailed Significance (BC)**		
	CA	**ERAC**	**EI**	**CA**	**ERAC**	**EI**	**A**	**G**	**FC**	**CA**	**ERAC**	**EI**
ERAC	.00	...	...	.00	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
EI	.00	.01	...	.00	.01	...	.05	.02	.00	.01	...	...
Total Effects				**Direct Effects**						**Indirect Effects**		
	CA	**ERAC**	**EI**	**CA**	**ERAC**	**EI**	**A**	**G**	**FC**	**CA**	**ERAC**	**EI**
ERAC	.31	0	0	.31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
EI	.56	.19	0	.50	.19	0	.11	-.18	.18	.06	0	0

Note: *A - age, G - gender, FC - family company*

(Source: Author's Own Work)

Table 19 also shows that the mediating effect of emotional regulation and control on entrepreneurial intentions is statistically significant (β=.19; p<0.01), while the direct effect of

career adaptability on entrepreneurial intentions decreases once emotional regulation and control is entered in the model as the mediating variable (β =.50; p<0.01). The indirect effect of career adaptability on entrepreneurial intentions is also statistically significant (c'=.06; p<0.01). Finally, the direct effects of all control variables on entrepreneurial intentions are statistically significant (age β=0.11; p<0.05; gender β=-0.18; p<0.05; family company β=0.18; p<0.01).

Further, when comparing and analyzing all three models' fit indices, which are provided in Table 20, the first, total effect model entailed an excellent fit (χ^2/df =1.870; PClose=.572; GFI=.969; NFI=.967; CFI=.984; RMSEA=.047; SRMR=.061; LL90=.02; HI90=.06). The second, indirect effect model entailed pValue and SRMR outside of the suggested threshold (χ2/df=3.506*;* PClose=.000; GFI=.931; NFI=.915; CFI=.937; RMSEA=.080; SRMR=.101; LL90=.06; HI90=.09), which indicated a mediocre model fit. However, statistically significant pValue tends to be influenced by a large sample size such as this one (N=391; Sullivan & Feinn, 2012). Also, RMSEA values in the range of .08 to .10 are considered a mediocre fit (MacCallum et al., 1996; Ward et al., 2009), and not dismissing models with higher RMSEA values is suggested if the degrees of freedom are small, such as the case with this model (df=23; Kenny et al., 2015). Due to all other indices, apart from SRMR, being within the recommended threshold, and due to the satisfactory model fit of the direct effect of emotional regulation and control on entrepreneurial intentions (χ^2/df =2.330; PClose=.250; GFI=.974; NFI=.959; CFI=.976; RMSEA=.058; SRMR=.044; LL90=.03; HI90=.08), the assessment of the mediating effect model of emotional regulation in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions when controlling for the effects of age, gender, and family company had valid theoretical and empirical foundations for being tested.

Hence, as predicted and shown in Table 20, the fit statistics confirmed that the third hypothesized mediation model had not only achieved a significantly better fit than the second model, but, as previously stated, had also achieved an overall excellent fit to data (χ^2/df =1.929; PClose=.532; GFI=.960; NFI=.954; CFI=.977; RMSEA=.049; SRMR=.052; LL90=.03; HI90=.06).

Table 20 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for the Three Models

Models	χ2/df	PClose	GFI	NFI	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	90% CI
Total Effect Model	1.870	.572	.969	.967	.984	.047	.061	[.02, .06]
Indirect Effect Model	3.506	.000	.931	.915	.937	.080	.101	[.06, .09]
Indirect and Direct Effect Model	1.929	.532	.960	.954	.977	.049	.052	[.03, .06]

Note: 90% CI: RMSEA's confidence interval, ** p < .01

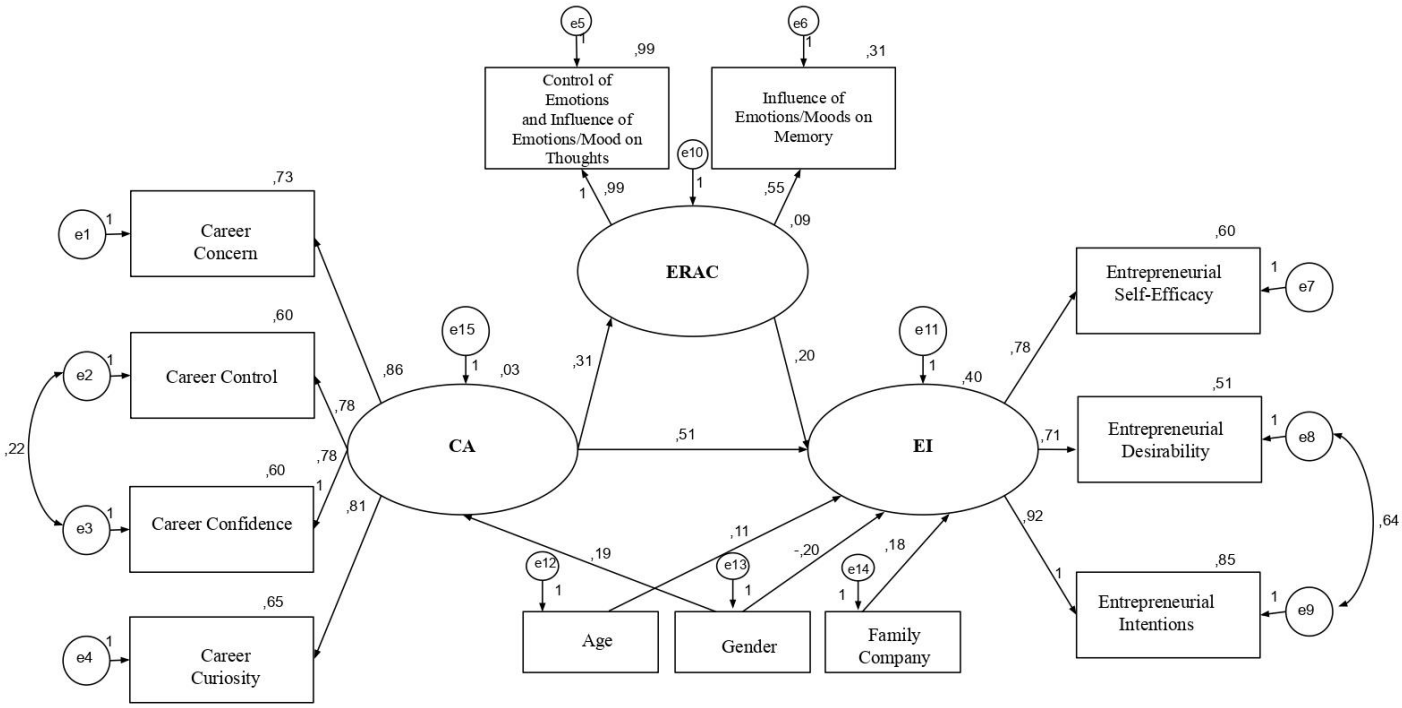
(Source: Author's Own Work)

Ultimately, as a statistically significant positive indirect effect of career adaptability exists on entrepreneurial intentions, and the value of its direct effect decreases, the third and the last hypothesis of this research is partially confirmed. Namely, emotional regulation and control has a partial mediating effect in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions.

As stated in chapter III section 2.2.3., previous research emphasizes the ambiguous relationship between gender and career adaptability, which is why the potential effect of gender on career adaptability was additionally controlled for and is, thereby, presented in Figure 22. The final model's alternate version controlled for the effects of three manifest variables (*age*, *gender*, *family company*) on *entrepreneurial intentions* and, additionally, the effect of *gender* on *career adaptability.* The findings suggest a statistically significant direct effect of *gender* on *career adaptability* (β=.19; p<0.01), as well as statistically significant direct effects of *age* (β=.11; p<0.05), *gender* (β=-.20; p<0.05), and *family company* (β=.18; p<0.01) on *entrepreneurial intentions*. In addition, the model achieved an excellent model fit (χ2/df=1.721, Pclose=0.758, GFI=.965, NFI=.960, CFI=.983, RMSEA=.043, and SRMR=.040).

The assessment of all parameters from the final model's alternate version is provided in Appendix 6, and the meaning of the alternate model's control variable findings are discussed in the next chapter of this dissertation (section 5.3.).

Figure 22 The Final Model's Alternate Version with the Gender Effect Control on Career Adaptability



(Source: Author's Own Work)

CHAPTER V

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This dissertation aimed at explaining the contribution and importance of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control for predicting student's entrepreneurial intentions. Namely, the emotional regulation and control's mediating role in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions was examined. The obtained research results were described in the previous chapter, while this chapter entails the elaboration of the results.

The proposed model entailed the assessed validity of the *career adaptability* (adapted from Savickas & Porfeli, 2012) and the *emotional regulation and control scale* (Takšić, 2002b) for explaining entrepreneurial intentions as the dependent variable, which was measured by subscales *entrepreneurial desirability, entrepreneurial self-efficacy* and *entrepreneurial intentions* (adjusted from Liñán & Chen, 2006).

The role of students' career adaptability, and their emotional regulation and control is topical, however, its effect on entrepreneurial intentions is particularly under-researched. To our knowledge, this research is the first to emphasize and examine the inter-connected relationship between career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. It is also the first research to examine the contribution of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control towards explaining students' entrepreneurial intentions, as well as the partial mediating effect emotional regulation and control has on the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. The awareness of the contribution of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control towards explaining students' entrepreneurial intentions may result in placing more emphasis on career adaptability and emotional regulation and control, which may, thus, contribute to bringing about a more natural transition from higher education into the professional business reality.

The discussion is based on seven sections. In the first three main sections the research problems and hypotheses are discussed. Namely, the connection between the constructs is explained, the extent of emotional regulation and control's contribution to the total variance explanation of entrepreneurial intentions is provided, and the suggested partial mediating effect is elaborated. The fourth section entails limitations of the conducted research and recommendations for further research, while in the fifth section practical implications are suggested. The sixth section

elaborates the theoretical contribution, whereas the last section provides the conclusion for this dissertation.

5.1. Correlations Between the Constructs

The initial research problem dealt with the examination of the connection between career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. A positive correlation between students' career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions was predicted (H1). As stated in chapter IV subchapter 4.2.2., all correlations between the constructs and subscales of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions were positive and statistically significant apart from two subscales *career concern* and *influence of emotions/moods on memory* (r=.06). This finding indicates that thinking about one's future career and preparing for the future is not connected to one's memory being influenced by emotions and moods. Contrary to this finding, Coetzee and Harry (2013) asserted a statistically significant and positive connection between *career concern* and the two subscales of emotional intelligence, namely, *managing* (r=.40; p<0.001) and *utilizing one's emotions* (r=.33; p<0.001). However, the discrepancy might be due to authors assessing emotional intelligence construct as a whole rather than focusing on the construct of emotional regulation and control separately as it is done in this research. When observing the correlation of manifest control variables (*age, gender, family company*), with other constructs and subscales, *gender* has a negative statistically significant correlation to *family company* (r=-.11; p<0.05), the composite construct of *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=-.17; p<0.01), and its two subscales *entrepreneurial desirability* (r=-.16; p<0.01) and *entrepreneurial intentions* (r=-.19; p<0.01). Since gender was operationalized with value one assigned to male respondents and value two to female respondents, the findings of this research suggest that there is a stronger connection between male students and entrepreneurial intentions than with female students.

Moreover, *career adaptability* construct has a slightly higher statistically significant correlation to the *entrepreneurial intentions* construct (r=.40; p<0.01), than to the construct of *emotional regulation and control* (r=.29; p<0.01). Thus, the perception of being focused on one's prospective career, relying on oneself, exploring the surroundings and being efficient, relates more to the perception of wanting to become an entrepreneur, than it relates to the perception of the ability of regulating and controlling one's emotions. This is in line with the findings of

Tolentino et al. (2014), who state that career adaptability is positively associated with entrepreneurial intentions, and Johnston (2018), who asserts that entrepreneurial intentions are a result of adaptation ability.

Emmerling and Cherniss (2003) claimed that the emotional regulation ability alleviates the career decision-making process, while other researchers propose a strong positive correlation between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (such as Coetzee & Harry, 2013; Qiao & Huang, 2019; Rodriguez & Lieber, 2020). Accordingly, our findings affirm the statistically significant univariate association between *emotional regulation and control* composite construct (r=.29; p<0.01) and the composite construct of *career adaptability* (r=.29; p<0.01). Previous literature also suggests a significant positive correlation between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial self-efficacy (Wen, Chen, Pang, et al., 2020), and emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial intentions (McLaughlin, 2019; Miao et al., 2018).

Furthermore, interesting points arise when analyzing the inter-connectedness of career adaptability constructs' three subscales. Namely, *planning* (r=.41; p<0.01), and *focusing on one's career* (r=.42; p<0.01), *being interested in new opportunities* (r=.37; p<0.01), *and able to solve problems* (r=.40; p<0.01), *regulate one's emotions* and, thus, *influence one's thoughts* (r =.34; p<0.01), *and memory* (r=.22; p<0.01) are connected the most to one's belief in one's *entrepreneurial self-efficacy*. As expected, *having entrepreneurial intentions* (r=.37; p<0.01) *considering entrepreneurship desirable* (r=.33; p<0.01), and *believing in one's entrepreneurial efficiency* (r=.37; p<0.01) is connected the most to exploring the surroundings, and the business and personal growth opportunities. This finding is expected as curiosity is an essential aspect of both career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (Savickas, 2005; Syed et al., 2020).

Accordingly, all correlations among latent variables of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions and their subscales are positive, and almost all are statistically significant, which suggests that the first hypothesis is confirmed.

5.2. The Contribution of Emotional Regulation and Control to the Clarification of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Even since Ajzen (1991) wrote the TPB, there has been a tendency of wanting to explain why and how intentions affect actions, but, more importantly, the underlying aspects of having intentions in the first place. Exploring entrepreneurial intentions has been a focus of entrepreneurship literature for several decades. Ajzen (1985) explained 50% of intentions variance by attitude, whereas 30% of behavior variance was explicated by intentions. Prior experience was also found to explain additional variance in intentions (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). Liñán and Santos (2007) explicated 57% of entrepreneurial intentions variance by perceived desirability and feasibility. Accordingly, Rueda et al. (2011) stated that the factors of the TPB explain 42% of entrepreneurial intentions variance. Aligned with the research of Rueda et al., subjective norm explicated 35.1%, perceived behavioral norm accounted for 25.5%, while attitudes towards the behavior explained 21.8% of the total variance of entrepreneurial intentions (Aloulou, 2016).

Moreover, Jakopec et al. (2013) explained 69% of entrepreneurial intentions variance by, what the authors referred to as, the *entrepreneurial potential*, namely, entrepreneurial awareness, creativity, opportunism, and need for progress. Additionally, self-efficacy, environmental factors, age, and gender accounted for 25.5% of entrepreneurial intentions variance (Indarti et al., 2016). Consequently, when explaining one's intentions towards entrepreneurship, researchers tend to explore factors of the TPB, or certain personality characteristics and dispositions. Mwiya et al. (2017) ascertained that age, gender, and field of study statistically significantly accounted for 7.5% of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions, which is in line with the findings of this research. Namely, the first step of the conducted hierarchical analysis revealed *age*, *gender* and *family company* to account for 7% of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions (R^2=.07; F=9.42; p<0.01). Moreover, out of all control variables, *family company* was revealed as the largest individual predictor as it contributed the most to the explanation of the entrepreneurial intention variance (β =.17; t = 3.52; p<0.05).

Research examining entrepreneurial intentions through emotional intelligence, or particularly emotional regulation and control, is rather scant. Such an example would be the research of Mortan et al. (2014) who asserted that regulation and utilization of emotions together with entrepreneurial self-efficacy explain 27.1% of entrepreneurial intention variance, while

Zampetakis (2008) postulated that students' emotional self-efficacy has an indirect effect on entrepreneurial intentions.

The empirical research for this dissertation focused on the explanation of two under-researched constructs in relation to entrepreneurial intentions, namely, career adaptability and emotional regulation and control. The second research problem aimed at ascertaining whether emotional regulation and control contributes to the clarification of the total variance of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability. Namely, the second hypothesis proposed that emotional regulation and control contributes to the clarification of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability (H2).

When controlling for the influence of personality traits and demographic variables, Mortan et al. (2014) revealed an indirect effect of regulation and utilization of emotions on entrepreneurial intentions, which differs from our findings, as our model reveals a statistically significant direct effect of *emotional regulation and control* on *entrepreneurial intentions* (β=.19; $p<0.01$). Additionally, our model reveals that the subscales of *emotional regulation and control* contributed 3% to the proposed conceptualized model from this research (ΔR^2=0.03; ΔF^2=7.96; $p<0.01$), which, in total, explained 30% of the variance of entrepreneurial intentions (R^2=.30; F=18.11; $p<0.01$). Thereby, the second hypothesis was confirmed. Students who do not perceive themselves adaptable in regards to their careers, and who believe that their emotions can easily influence their thoughts and memory are less likely to have entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, it can be concluded that emotional regulation and control and career adaptability are relevant when discussing entrepreneurship and should, hence, be incorporated and established in the entrepreneurship literature as factors that explain and predict one's entrepreneurial intentions. Ultimately, the findings of this research contribute to the body of literature on internal and external entrepreneurial intention predictors in the Croatian context.

5.3. The Mediating Role of Emotional Regulation and Control in the Relationship Between Career Adaptability and Entrepreneurial Intentions

The final research problem examined the mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, emotional regulation and control was proposed as the mediator of the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions (H3), and the hypothesis was partially affirmed.

Emotional regulation and control was revealed as a partial mediator in the mentioned relationship. Namely, when exploring emotional regulation and control as the mediating variable, the effect of career adaptability on entrepreneurial intentions did not cease, but merely decreased. This finding asserts the imperative role of career adaptability in predicting entrepreneurial intentions, especially when individuals also believe that they can regulate and control their emotions and thereby facilitate their thoughts and memory. The mentioned predictors are valuable for comprehending the entrepreneurial mindset's complexity and understanding what needs to be emphasized during higher education to foster an overall entrepreneurial spirit. McLaughlin (2012) revealed that emotional intelligence accounted for 23.2% of entrepreneurial companies' success, and 44.7% of managerial competence. Qiao and Huang (2019) asserted that career adaptability accounted for 24.9% of the total variance of entrepreneurial intentions indirectly through entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Thus, the emphasis of career adaptability and emotional intelligence development during higher education can result in having entrepreneurial intentions more often, which, in turn, may lead to one's company, and one's leadership to become more successful and efficient (Collins, 2002).

Emotional regulation and control partially mediates the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions, and the relationship between emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions should be emphasized as it is valuable and, thereby, worth exploring. Career adaptability directly affects entrepreneurial intentions, but it also indirectly affects entrepreneurial intentions through emotional regulation and control. Namely, for predicting entrepreneurial intentions, in addition to possessing career adaptability, it is essential for individuals to know how to regulate and control their emotions. The perception of one's career adaptability and emotional regulation ability leads to a strong predisposition that ultimately affects one's entrepreneurial intentions. Individuals who perceive themselves as possessing career adaptability believe they are more independent, curious, efficient at dealing with daily tasks and focused on accomplishing a successful prospective career. Additionally, individuals who perceive themselves able to regulate and control their emotions easily believe that their emotions will not influence their thoughts nor memory. The reasons for that might be the fact that individuals who perceive themselves adaptable in regards to their careers and able to regulate their emotions possess emotional maturity and self-awareness ability (Rossier et al., 2015). Emotional maturity and self-awareness ability are, in turn, connected to individuals'

self-disclosure and effective leadership, causing individuals to be more prone to having entrepreneurial intentions (Hyatt et al., 2007; Singh Nehra & Rangnejar, 2010).

Furthermore, manifest variables of age, gender, and family company where explored as stimulating factors which affect individuals' entrepreneurial intentions, and were included in the hypothesized model as control variables. The findings reveal that male students seem to perceive themselves as having entrepreneurial intentions more than do female students, which corresponds to previous research findings on entrepreneurial intention gender differences (Adamus et al., 2021; Wilson et al., 2007). The findings also suggest that the older the students are, and if their parents also own their own company, the more likely they are to develop entrepreneurial intentions. Individuals whose parents own a company benefit from such informal experience, and their desirability of becoming entrepreneurs is heightened (Criaco et al., 2017).

Furthermore, as explained in the last two paragraphs of chapter IV section 4.4., the potential effect of gender on career adaptability was additionally controlled for. This additional finding suggests that, according to students' gender, differences are present in students' perception of their entrepreneurial intentions and their career adaptability. In particular, female students seem to be more prone to perceiving themselves as adaptable regarding their careers as opposed to male students, which is in line with the research of Sidiropoulou-Dimakakou et al. (2018), who also found female students to be more oriented towards future career prospects than male students.

Finally, these empirical research findings assert that when controlling for the effects of age, gender, and family company, career adaptability statistically significantly affects students' entrepreneurial intention directly. Moreover, when emotional regulation and control is explored as the mediating variable, career adaptability indirectly and statistically significantly affects entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, emotional regulation and control serves as a partial mediator in the mentioned relationship. Consequently, students will develop entrepreneurial intentions if they perceive themselves as adaptable regarding their prospective careers, partially through their perceived ability of regulating and controlling their emotions.

5.4. Dissertation's Limitations and Recommendations for Further Research

One of the limitations of this dissertation exposes the improbable generalizability of obtained results on students' sample on which the research was conducted. Although on various education levels, the selected students were all enrolled at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek, the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek. Namely, as the focus of the research was exploring entrepreneurial intentions, the final year students at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek were selected as a logical choice due to their education regarding economics, business, and entrepreneurship. Another reason for selecting primarily the students from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek was due to the choice of predicting variables. Namely, this research aimed to explore the extent of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control in predicting entrepreneurial intentions. Thus, since the students from the Faculty of Economics in Osijek are the ones who will most likely achieve entrepreneurial careers, their ability to adapt and to be able to regulate and control their emotions was seen as vital for their future career, and in predicting their entrepreneurial intentions, especially because it will influence the way they will be perceived as future entrepreneurs and leaders. Additionally, since in this research, the number of female students (N=255) was significantly higher than the number of male students (N=136), it is recommended to aim towards collecting a matched sample in order to adequately and more precisely demonstrate any gender-related differential effects.

Although the Harman's single-factor post-hoc test revealed that the common-method bias was not perceived as an issue in this research (as explained in chapter III, section 3.5.), in order to lower the risk of common bias, the data for future research should be collected from various sources. Namely, further research should be conducted on a sample of students from various Universities in various geographical regions within a country for achieving data generalizability. The mentioned suggestion is needed to ascertain the distinction between students and explore whether career adaptability and emotional regulation and control would be better predictors of entrepreneurial intentions for non-business students.

Additional research should also explore the effect of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control on entrepreneurial intentions in a longitudinal manner. Namely, the research should first be conducted on final year undergraduate students, and then again on the same sample once the students are in their final year of graduate studies, to ascertain the

existence of differences in their education level and experience, which ultimately may affect their perception resulting in a more comparable data.

Moreover, the role of emotional regulation and control on the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions could be investigated by means of experimental or quasi-experimental research. Students could be enrolled into a personal-development training course which focuses on and develops career adaptability and emotional regulation skills. The research could be conducted on both students who attend the training course and those who do not attend the course in order to track progress, or lack thereof, at the start of the course and then by the end of the course to see whether it affected students' perception and their entrepreneurial intentions.

Another limitation of this research deals with the utilization of the chosen measurement instruments. Various researchers caution the use of self-report measures as it seems biased by one's self-concept and motives (Salovey et al., 2003), current use of regulation strategies (Koval et al., 2020), or lacks psychometric support (Conte, 2005), and entails a possibility of method-variance (Gabel et al., 2005). Certain researchers believe that self-report measures are provisional (Thompson et al., 2020) since the perception individuals have about a particular issue at a certain point in time can alter at another point in time (Kaufman & Baer, 2005). There is also a tendency for respondents to answer statements on a self-report measure in a socially desirable way due to fear of information leak (Schwartz et al., 1997). Nonetheless, self-report measures are appraised as authentic in emotional intelligence research (Abdullah et al., 2015). They are useful for assessing self-regulation capabilities (Ryba et al., 2017), individuals' emotions, motivation, and metacognition (Pekrun, 2020). Thus, although at times criticized (Abdullah et al., 2015), self-reports should be encouraged (Spector, 1994), as they remain the most commonly used tool in organizational, social, and behavioral research (Harrison et al., 1996; Razavi, 2001). What is more, when exploring perceptions, behaviors, and tendencies, research shows that the most common measurement instrument is a self-report measure. Thus, for all three constructs, self-report measures were used, and self-report findings were obtained. Nonetheless, researchers might also consider utilizing alternative instruments to measure the construct of career adaptability, emotional regulation and control and entrepreneurial intentions to ascertain distinctions that can be observed depending upon the choice of the measuring instruments.

Additionally, since the percentage of the explained entrepreneurial intentions variance by career adaptability and emotional regulation and control was not particularly high, there is reason to explore additional constructs which might provide more explanation of the total entrepreneurial intention variance, and, thus, more insight into the constructs' relationships. Including additional constructs such as various personality traits, self-perceived employability, creativity, proactivity or ambitiousness may result in a higher explained variance of entrepreneurial intentions as the connection between the variables is evident from numerous recent research (such as Angela & Caterina, 2020; Aziz et al., 2020; Green et al., 2019; Jackson & Tomlinson, 2020; Kumar & Shukla, 2019; Liu et al., 2020; Räty et al., 2019).

5.5. Practical Implications

This research contributes to entrepreneurship literature by proposing career adaptability and emotional regulation and control as under-researched factors that should be incorporated and established in the entrepreneurship literature as they statistically significantly explain and predict entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, the necessity of further in-depth exploration of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control in the context of entrepreneurship is apparent and, thus, recommended to researchers exploring antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, and personal differences that may contribute to one's higher likelihood of setting entrepreneurial intentions. Control variables of age, gender, and family company were included in the hypothesized model to control for their effects on entrepreneurial intentions. Ultimately, as explained in chapter II, section 2.1.4., the findings of this research are in accordance with the persistent image of entrepreneurial intentions being more common for male students who are older, and who within their family have a parent entrepreneur.

This research aims to inform curriculum creators regarding emotional regulation and control, and career adaptability course design and development for both undergraduate and graduate students at all higher education institutions. Namely, Abraham (2006) emphasized the necessity of emotional intelligence skills incorporation in business education as it is vital for preparing students for future career success. Researchers also proposed a higher education social-emotional development tool, which aids individuals in understanding and using their emotions for achieving wanted social outcomes (Seal et al., 2011). Also, management teaching skills methods are revealed to develop emotional intelligence (Clark et al., 2003). Buck (1990, 2014) asserted that emotional education results in emotional competence, which is an ability to cope

with emotional signals successfully. Garber and Dodge (1991) affirmed two ways of regulating emotions, namely, regulating personal emotions or self-regulation, and regulating social emotions or emotions in others. What is more, when emotional regulation is developed and trained, emotional regulation abilities may aid people in effectively interacting with one another (Lopes et al., 2005). Furthermore, research shows that when given the opportunity to develop adaptability skills and emotional awareness, students do not merely enhance their abilities, but they also achieve a higher sense of accomplishment. Such an example is the research by Latif (2004), who emphasized the importance of integrating emotional intelligence in management skills courses due to the significant improvement of students' emotional intelligence. Accordingly, Thompson et al. (2020) evaluated changes in the master of business administration (MBA) student's emotional intelligence ability during a one-year course and concluded that the course significantly improved students' emotional intelligence. Also, Jimeno-Morenilla and Gilar (2017) succeeded in developing emotional skills by incorporating interdisciplinary teamwork into their curriculum.

Furthermore, Schutte and Malouff (2002) revealed that integrating emotional skills content in courses dealing with university transitions leads to student retention, while a participative classroom environment encourages students' emotional intelligence (Landau & Meirovich, 2011), which is also promoted by service-learning experiences (Manring, 2012). Thus, educators need to acknowledge the importance of career adaptability, emotional intelligence, regulation and control to transfer the awareness to students since students will prosper from it during higher education and later in professional life. Higher education institutions need to maintain their relevance by enabling students with essential psychological and technical knowledge, skills, and abilities to keep up with the unceasingly progressing business reality (Thompson et al., 2020). Ultimately, students should be aided in understanding and acquiring the skills of career adaptability and emotional regulation because it may result in them being able to cope with their personal and professional lives better, decide about their future career more effortlessly, plan their potential entrepreneurial endeavor more easily, and become more entrepreneurial in all regards (Takšić et al., 2009).

5.6. Theoretical Contribution

This research explored the mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions, and thereby contributed to career

adaptability and emotional regulation and control research on entrepreneurial intentions. Previous research combining the three constructs is scarce, however, the role of career adaptability for explaining entrepreneurial intentions aligns with recent career adaptability research (such as Atitsogbe et al., 2019; Lin, 2019; Tolentino, Sedoglavich, et al., 2014), similarly as the role of emotional regulation and control for explaining entrepreneurial intentions aligns with previous emotional intelligence research (such as Archana & Vasanthi Kumari, 2018; Neghabi et al., 2011; Yıldırım et al., 2019).

The theoretical contribution of this research is evidenced by the systematical overview of literature that is used for explaining the theoretical background on the three constructs: career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions. Based on the theoretical framework of integrated TPB and EEM (Ajzen, 1991; Shapero & Sokol, 1982), this research proposed a prediction model of entrepreneurial intentions which emphasized the incorporation of, so far disregarded, psychological and emotional determinants of behavior, namely, career adaptability competences of career planning, decision making, exploring and problem solving (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), and one's ability of emotional regulation and control (Takšić, 1998). As stated by Mohiyeddini, Pauli, and Bauer (2009:226), „emotion as a mediator variable can improve the predictive validity of the traditional TPB model". The effects of control variables, namely, age, gender, and family company, were explored due to previous theoretical and empirical evidence of their connection to entrepreneurial intentions (Bloemen-Bekx et al., 2019; Chlosta et al., 2012; Isiorhovoja et al., 2012; Miljković Krečar, 2010; Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014). Additionally, the effect of gender was controlled for due to previous theoretical and empirical evidence of its connection to career adaptability (Buyukgoze-Kavas, 2016; Hou et al., 2012; Patton & Lokan, 2001; Rossier et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2021).

The theoretical contribution also lies in the application of previously uncombined constructs and unpredicted hypotheses in both domestic and foreign research based on the theory of career construction (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012), model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and the model of entrepreneurial event (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). When controlling for the effects of age, gender, and family company, career adaptability and emotional regulation and control are revealed as relevant antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, as well as significant for explaining the total variance of entrepreneurial intention. Accordingly, in addition to demographic characteristics, cognitive

and behavior determinants should be considered when investigating entrepreneurial intentions. A strong relationship between career adaptability, emotional regulation and control, and entrepreneurial intentions asserts that career planning, decision making, exploring, and problem-solving increase individuals' likelihood of setting entrepreneurial intentions partially through regulating and controlling their emotions.

5.7. Conclusion

"When patterns are broken, new worlds emerge."
~ Tuli Kupferberg (as seen in Patton, 2011:80)

This dissertation aimed to explore the effects that career adaptability and emotional regulation and control have on entrepreneurial intentions. The focus was placed on gaining a more in-depth insight into the unrevealed predispositions that influence entrepreneurial intentions. Career adaptability is an ability to deal with various work roles and related unpredictable changes, and entails four subscales: career concert, control, curiosity, and confidence. Emotional regulation and control is an essential component of emotional intelligence. Namely, it consists of controlling emotions and the influence of emotions/moods on thoughts and memory, leading to more effective personal and professional lives (Borah, 2020). Career adaptability and emotional intelligence are essential psychosocial meta-capacities for efficient adaptation in all aspects of life (Coetzee & Harry, 2013). Additionally, entrepreneurial intention is an aspiration towards starting a business endeavor at a certain point in time. Consequently, this dissertation is the first to examine the complex relationship between the three mentioned constructs, which is why it aimed at affirming the role of career adaptability and emotional regulation and control in entrepreneurship literature and ascertaining the benefits of career adaptability, emotional intelligence, regulation and control development in higher education for a more, overall, accomplished career and life.

The data was obtained on final year undergraduate and graduate students enrolled at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek in Croatia. In light of the first research problem, the connection between the three constructs was hypothesized and examined. Accordingly, findings reveal that all constructs and almost all subscales were statistically significantly positively connected. The second research problem hypothesized the contribution of emotional regulation and control for explicating entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability. The results affirmed that

emotional regulation and control statistically significantly contributed to the clarification of entrepreneurial intentions beyond career adaptability. Finally, the last research problem proposed a mediating role of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions. When controlling for the effect of age, gender, and family company, the empirical research results reveal a partial mediating effect of emotional regulation and control in the relationship between career adaptability and entrepreneurial intentions.

The findings of this research provide insight for career counselors, emotional intelligence and entrepreneurship researchers, curriculum creators, and education policy-makers as by deepening the knowledge of career adaptability and emotional intelligence in post-secondary education, and by developing students' career adaptability and emotional regulation skills, the setting of students' entrepreneurial intentions may be positively encouraged.

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APPENDIX 1 Questionnaire

UPITNIK

Poštovani,
hvala Vam što sudjelujete u istraživanju kojemu je svrha utvrditi neke aspekte **planiranja karijere** i **poduzetničkih namjera** studenata. U upitniku ćete procjenjivati tvrdnje za koje ne postoje točni i pogrešni odgovori, već nas zanimaju **Vaši osjećaji, stavovi i ponašanja**. Stoga Vas molimo da svaku tvrdnju **pažljivo** pročitate i **iskreno** odgovorite. Radite brzo, prvi osjećaj koji imate kad pročitate tvrdnju obično je najbliži istini.
Naravno, sudjelovanje u ovom istraživanju je **dobrovoljno** i potpuno **anonimno**, zato se i ne traži da upisujete svoje ime i prezime. Dobiveni podaci bit će analizirani na grupnoj razini te će se koristiti isključivo **u znanstveno-istraživačke svrhe**. Ispunjavanje upitnika traje najviše desetak minuta. Na početku će se tražiti da upišete demografske podatke, a nakon toga slijedi rješavanje upitnika.
Unaprijed Vam hvala na **Vašem vremenu** i **iskrenosti**!

DEMOGRAFSKI UPITNIK

Molimo Vas da **zaokružite**/**dopišete** tražene podatke.

A) Dob:
_______ (upišite broj godina)

B) Spol (zaokružite):

M Ž Ne želim se izjasniti

C) Fakultet:

_____ (upišite)

D) Studij / smjer studija:

_____ (upišite)

E) Godina studija (zaokružite ili upišite)**:**

a) 3.godina preddiplomskog studija
b) 1.godina diplomskog studija
c) 2.godina diplomskog studija
d) _____

F) Po završetku studija namjeravam (zaokružite):

a) se zaposliti
b) nastaviti svoje obrazovanje
c) otvoriti firmu/obrt
d) nešto drugo: _____

G) Trenutno sam na fakultet upisan/na kao:

a) Redovni student
b) Izvanredni student

H) Jeste li ikad ozbiljno razmišljali o tome da postanete poduzetnik/ca? (zaokružite):

Da Ne

I) Otac mi je završio:

a) Osnovnu školu
b) Srednju školu
c) Fakultet
d) Poslijediplomski studij (Magisterij/Doktorat)

J) Majka mi je završila:

a) Osnovnu školu
b) Srednju školu
c) Fakultet
d) Poslijediplomski studij (Magisterij/Doktorat)

K) Imaju li Vam roditelji (ili netko od roditelja) vlastitu firmu?:

Da Ne

L) Jeste li član studentskih udruga (AISEC, BOOKMARK, ERUDIO itd.) **ili organizacija van fakulteta** (zaokružite):

Da Ne

M) Jeste li do sada bili negdje zaposleni? (u bilo kojoj vrsti radnog odnosa) (zaokružite):

Da Ne

UPUTA: U upitniku su navedene tvrdnje koje se odnose na Vaše **stavove**, **sklonosti**, **ponašanja** i **emocionalna stanja**. Pročitajte svaku tvrdnju te procijenite u kojoj se mjeri ona odnosi na Vas.
Procjenjujete tako da na skali od **1** (Uopće se ne odnosi na mene) do **5** (U potpunosti se odnosi na mene) zaokružite odgovarajući stupanj uz svaku navedenu tvrdnju. Procjenjujte **brzo**, nije se potrebno previše zadržavati pri pojedinim tvrdnjama. **Prvi osjećaj** koji imate kad pročitate tvrdnju obično je najbliži istini.

1 = Uopće se ne odnosi na mene	**2 = Djelomično se ne odnosi na mene**	**3 = Niti se odnosi niti se ne odnosi na mene**	**4 = Uglavnom se odnosi na mene**	**5 = U potpunosti se odnosi na mene**

1	Dobro pamtim situacije u kojima sam bio ljut.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Čisto sumnjam da ću ikada osnovati vlastito poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Interesiraju me nove prilike i mogućnosti.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Biti poduzetnik/ca za mene bi predstavljalo veliko zadovoljstvo.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Da imam priliku i potrebne resurse rado bih osnovao/la vlastito poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Iskorištavam svoje sposobnosti do kraja.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Istražujem prilike za osobni rast i razvoj.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Kad me netko naljuti odmah i vrlo burno reagiram.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Istražujem svijet oko sebe.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Kad me strah nečega ili nekoga obično ne mogu ništa pametno reći.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Kad mi se nešto loše dogodi, osjećam se kao da su mi "sve lađe potonule".	1	2	3	4	5
12	Kad sam lošeg raspoloženja zapažam uglavnom samo loše stvari.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Kad sam lošeg raspoloženja, problem mi je izvršiti i jednostavan zadatak.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Kad se jako razbjesnim, kao da mi "padne mrak na oči".	1	2	3	4	5
15	Kad se jako uživim u raspravu, ponekad imam osjećaj da sam u svemu u pravu.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Kad se razljutim slabo zapažam događaje oko sebe.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Kada sam lošeg raspoloženja čak i mali problem mi se čini nesavladiv.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Moj profesionalni cilj je postati poduzetnik/ca.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Kada sam lošeg raspoloženja sitne popravke u kući radije ću obaviti drugi put.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Moji osjećaji su ponekad izvan moje kontrole.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Najbolje se sjećam onih događaja, uz koje me vežu negativne emocije.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Nastojim stvari obaviti kako treba.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Ne vjerujem da sam sposoban/na osnovati vlastito poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Ne zaboravljam lako ljudima koji su me naljutili ili rastužili.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Nemam gotovo nikakvu namjeru osnovati vlastito poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
26	Odlučio/la sam u budućnosti osnovati poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
27	Oslanjam se na samoga/u sebe.	1	2	3	4	5
28	Osnivanje firme i njeno vođenje ne bi mi bilo teško.	1	2	3	4	5
29	Osobi koja me je povrijedila ubuduće prilazim s povećanim oprezom.	1	2	3	4	5
30	Osobno bi mi bilo vrlo teško razviti poduzetnički projekt.	1	2	3	4	5
31	Osvještavam obrazovne i profesionalne odluke koje moram donijeti.	1	2	3	4	5

1 = Uopće se ne odnosi na mene	2 = Djelomično se ne odnosi na mene	3 = Niti se odnosi niti se ne odnosi na mene	4 = Uglavnom se odnosi na mene	5 = U potpunosti se odnosi na mene

32	Ozbiljno počnem raditi tek kad mi ostane malo vremena za obavljanje posla.	1	2	3	4	5
33	Planiram kako ću ostvariti svoje ciljeve.	1	2	3	4	5
34	Poduzetnička karijera mi je osobno potpuno neprivlačna.	1	2	3	4	5
35	Poduzetništvo za mene ima više prednosti nego nedostataka.	1	2	3	4	5
36	Posebno dobro se sjećam trenutaka u kojima sam bio žalostan.	1	2	3	4	5
37	Poznati su mi praktični koraci osnivanja poduzeća.	1	2	3	4	5
38	Preuzimam odgovornost za svoje postupke.	1	2	3	4	5
39	Pripremam se za budućnost.	1	2	3	4	5
40	Radije bih za sebe odabrao/la bilo koju drugu opciju nego poduzetništvo.	1	2	3	4	5
41	Radim ono što je najbolje za mene.	1	2	3	4	5
42	Raspoloženje mi snažno utječe na razmišljanje.	1	2	3	4	5
43	Razmatram različite načine na koje mogu obaviti zadatak.	1	2	3	4	5
44	Razmatram različite opcije prije donošenja odluke.	1	2	3	4	5
45	Razmišljam o tome kako će izgledati moja budućnost.	1	2	3	4	5
46	Razumijem da izbori koje napravim danas utječu na moju budućnost.	1	2	3	4	5
47	Rješavam probleme.	1	2	3	4	5
48	Samostalno donosim odluke.	1	2	3	4	5
49	Savladavam poteškoće.	1	2	3	4	5
50	Spreman/na sam poduzeti što god treba kako bih postao/la poduzetnik/ca.	1	2	3	4	5
51	Teško zaboravljam stvari koje su me uzrujale.	1	2	3	4	5
52	U stanju sam osnovati održivo poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
53	U bijesu i ljutnji izvičem se i na onoga tko mi nije ništa skrivio.	1	2	3	4	5
54	Učim nove vještine.	1	2	3	4	5
55	Uložit ću potreban trud kako bih osnovao/la i pokrenuo/la vlastito poduzeće.	1	2	3	4	5
56	Učinkovito obavljam zadatke.	1	2	3	4	5
57	Usredotočena sam na usmjeravanje svoje karijere.	1	2	3	4	5
58	Ustrajem u svojim uvjerenjima.	1	2	3	4	5
59	Zadržavam pozitivan stav.	1	2	3	4	5
60	Kada bih osnovao/la poduzeće ono bi vrlo vjerojatno bilo uspješno.	1	2	3	4	5
61	Duboko razmišljam o pitanjima koja imam.	1	2	3	4	5

Hvala Vam što ste sudjelovali u istraživanju!

APPENDIX 2

Career Adapt-Ability Scale (Porfeli & Savickas, 2012)

Original English Version and the Croatian Translation of the Scale

CAREER CONCERN (USREDOTOČENOST NA BUDUĆNOST)	
Thinking about what my future will be like (Razmišljam o tome kako će izgledati moja budućnost)	item 1
Realizing that today's choices make my future (Razumijem da izbori koje napravim danas utječu na moju budućnost)	item 2
Preparing for the future (Pripremam se za budućnost)	item 3
Becoming aware of the educational and career choices I must make (Osvještavam obrazovne i profesionalne odluke koje moram donijeti)	item 4
Planning how to achieve my goals (Planiram kako ću ostvariti svoje ciljeve)	item 5
Concerned about my career (Usredotočena sam na usmjeravanje svoje karijere)	item 6

CAREER CONTROL (KONTROLA)	
Keeping upbeat (Zadržavam pozitivan stav)	item 1
Making decisions by myself (Samostalno donosim odluke)	item 2
Taking responsibility for my actions (Preuzimam odgovornost za svoje postupke)	item 3
Sticking up for my beliefs (Ustrajem u svojim uvjerenjima)	item 4
Counting on myself (Oslanjam se na samoga/u sebe)	item 5
Doing what's right for me (Radim ono što je najbolje za mene)	item 6

CAREER CURIOSITY (ZNATIŽELJA I ISTRAŽIVANJE)	
Exploring my surroundings (Istražujem svijet oko sebe)	item 1
Looking for opportunities to grow as a person (Istražujem prilike za osobni rast i razvoj)	item 2
Investigating options before making a choice (Razmatram različite opcije prije donošenja odluke)	item 3
Observing different ways of doing things (Razmatram različite načine na koje mogu obaviti zadatak)	item 4
Probing deeply into questions I have (Duboko razmišljam o pitanjima koja imam)	item 5
Becoming curious about new opportunities (Interesiraju me nove prilike i mogućnosti)	item 6

CAREER CONFIDENCE (OSJEĆAJ SAMOPOUZDANJA I UČINKOVITOSTI)	
Performing tasks efficiently (Učinkovito obavljam zadatke)	item 1
Taking care to do things well (Nastojim stvari obaviti kako treba)	item 2
Learning new skills (Učim nove vještine)	item 3
Working up to my ability (Iskorištavam svoje sposobnosti do kraja)	item 4
Overcoming obstacles (Savladavam poteškoće)	item 5
Solving problems (Rješavam probleme)	item 6

APPENDIX 3

Emotional Regulation and Control Scale (Takšić, 2003)

Original Croatian Version and the English Translation of the Scale

UTJECAJ EMOCIJA I RASPOLOŽENJA NA MIŠLJENJE (INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONS/MOODS ON THOUGHTS)	
Kad me strah nečega ili nekoga obično ne mogu ništa pametno reći (I usually cannot say anything clever when I get scared of something or somebody)	item 1
Kad mi se nešto loše dogodi, osjećam se kao da su mi "sve lađe potonule" (I feel hopeless when something bad happens to me)	item 2
Kad sam lošeg raspoloženja zapažam uglavnom samo loše stvari (I typically notice bad things when I am in a bad mood)	item 3
Kad sam lošeg raspoloženja, problem mi je izvršiti i jednostavan zadatak (It is hard for me to solve even the simplest tasks when I am in a bad mood)	item 4
Kad se jako razbjesnim, kao da mi "padne mrak na oči" (When I get very angry, I feel like I am losing control)	item 5
Kad se razljutim slabo zapažam događaje oko sebe (I fail to notice things around me when I get angry)	item 6
Kada sam lošeg raspoloženja čak i mali problem mi se čini nesavladiv (When I am in a bad mood, even the smallest problems seem unsolvable)	item 7
Raspoloženje mi snažno utječe na razmišljanje (Mood strongly influences my thinking)	item 8

UTJECAJ EMOCIJA I RASPOLOŽENJA NA PAMĆENJE (INFLUENCE OF EMOTIONS/MOODS ON MEMORY)	
Dobro pamtim situacije u kojima sam bio ljut (I recall situations in which I was angry very well)	item 1
Najbolje se sjećam onih događaja, uz koje me vežu negativne emocije (I remember events that evoked negative emotions in me the best)	item 2
Ne zaboravljam lako ljudima koji su me naljutili ili rastužili (It is hard for me to forgive people who had made me angry or sad)	item 3
Osobi koja me je povrijedila ubuduće prilazim s povećanim oprezom (I am cautious when approaching a person who had hurt me before)	item 4
Posebno dobro se sjećam trenutaka u kojima sam bio žalostan (I can remember moments in which I was sad particularly well)	item 5
Teško zaboravljam stvari koje su me uzrujale (It is hard for me to forget things that had upset me)	item 6

KONTROLA EMOCIONALNIH REAKCIJA (CONTROL OF EMOTIONAL REACTIONS)	
Kad me netko naljuti odmah i vrlo burno reagiram (I react quickly and very strongly when somebody makes me angry)	item 1
Kad se jako uživim u raspravu, ponekad imam osjećaj da sam u svemu u pravu (When I get very engaged in a discussion, I sometimes feel as if I am right about everything)	item 2
Kada sam lošeg raspoloženja sitne popravke u kući radije ću obaviti drugi put (I postpone doing small house chores for later when I am in a bad mood)	item 3
Moji osjećaji su ponekad izvan moje kontrole (Sometimes my feelings get out of control)	item 4
Ozbiljno počnem raditi tek kad mi ostane malo vremena za obavljanje posla (I don't start working seriously until I am left with little time to finish the task)	item 5
U bijesu i ljutnji izvičem se i na onoga tko mi nije ništa skrivio (When I am angry, I blow up at people who had done nothing wrong to me)	item 6

APPENDIX 4

Entrepreneurial Intentions Scale (Liñán & Chen, 2006)

Original English Version and the Croatian Translation of the Scale

ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS (PODUZETNIČKE NAMJERE)	
I'm ready to start doing anything to become an entrepreneur (Spreman/na sam poduzeti što god treba kako bih postao/la poduzetnik/ca)	item 1
My professional goal is becoming an entrepreneur (Moj profesionalni cilj je postati poduzetnik/ca)	item 2
I firmly intend to start a firm some day (Zasigurno ću jednog dana osnovati poduzeće)	item 3
I'm determined to creating a firm in the future (Odlučio/la sam u budućnosti osnovati poduzeće)	item 4
I have very seriously thought about starting a firm (Ozbiljno sam razmišljala/o o osnivanju vlastitog poduzeća)	item 5
I will make every effort to start and run my own firm (Uložit ću potreban trud kako bih osnovao/la i pokrenuo/la vlastito poduzeće)	item 6

ENTREPRENEURIAL SELF-EFFICACY (PODUZETNIČKA SAMOEFIKASNOST)	
Starting a firm and keeping it working would be easy for me (Osnivanje firme i njeno vođenje ne bi mi bilo teško)	item 1
I'm prepared to start a viable firm (U stanju sam osnovati održivo poduzeće)	item 2
I can control the creation process of a new firm (Vjerujem da sam sposoban/na osnovati vlastito poduzeće)	item 3
I know the necessary practical details to start a firm (Poznati su mi praktični koraci osnivanja poduzeća)	item 4
I know how to develop an entrepreneurial project (Znam kako razviti poduzetnički projekt)	item 5
If I tried to start a firm, it would have a high probability of succeeding (Kada bih osnovao/la poduzeće ono bi vrlo vjerojatno bilo uspješno)	item 6

ENTREPRENEURIAL DESIRABILITY (POŽELJNOST PODUZETNIŠTVA)	
Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages than disadvantages to me (Poduzetništvo za mene ima više prednosti nego nedostataka)	item 1
A career as entrepreneur is attractive for me (Poduzetnička karijera mi je privlačna)	item 2
If I had the opportunity and resources, I'd like to start a firm (Da imam priliku i potrebne resurse rado bih osnovao/la vlastito poduzeće)	item 3
Being an entrepreneur would entail great satisfactions for me (Biti poduzetnik/ca za mene bi predstavljalo veliko zadovoljstvo)	item 4
Among various options, I'd rather be an entrepreneur (Od svih opcija, najradije bih postao/la poduzetnik/ca)	item 5

APPENDIX 5

Final Model's Parameters Assessments

Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ERAC	<---	CA	.52	.09	5.76	***
EI	<---	ERAC	.21	.07	3.02	.00
EI	<---	age	.03	.01	2.43	.01
EI	<---	gender	-.30	.07	-4.06	***
EI	<---	family_company	.31	.08	3.92	***
EI	<---	CA	.95	.11	8.12	***
CA_confidence	<---	CA	1			
CA_curiosity	<---	CA	.93	.05	15.92	***
CA_control	<---	CA	.91	.04	18.55	***
EI_intentions	<---	EI	1			
EI_desirability	<---	EI	.79	.03	24.29	***
EI_self-efficacy	<---	EI	.79	.05	13.96	***
ERAC_control-thoughts	<---	ERAC	1			
ERAC_memory	<---	ERAC	.59	.12	4.73	***
CA_concern	<---	CA	1.10	.06	17.33	***

EXPLANATION: CA – career adaptability; ERAC – emotional regulation and control; EI – entrepreneurial intentions

Standardized Regression Weights

ERAC	<---	CA	.31
EI	<---	ERAC	.19
EI	<---	age	.11
EI	<---	gender	-.18
EI	<---	family_company	.18
EI	<---	CA	.50
CA_confidence	<---	CA	.78
CA_curiosity	<---	CA	.81
CA_control	<---	CA	.77
EI_intentions	<---	EI	.92
EI_desirability	<---	EI	.72
EI_self-efficacy	<---	EI	.78
ERAC_control-thoughts	<---	ERAC	.99
ERAC_memory	<---	ERAC	.55
CA_concern	<---	CA	.86

Covariances

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
e2	<-->	e3	.02	.00	2.85	.00
e8	<-->	e9	.24	.03	6.60	***

Correlations

			Estimate
e2	<-->	e3	.22
e8	<-->	e9	.64

Squared Multiple Correlations

	Estimate
family_company	0
gender	0
age	0
ERAC	.09
EI	.42
CA_concern	.73
ERAC_memory	.30
ERAC_control-thoughs	.99
EI_self-efficacy	.85
EI_desirability	.52
EI_intentions	.61
CA_control	.6
CA_curiosity	.60
CA_confidence	.65

Variances

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CA	.17	.01	9.03	***
e10	.45	.10	4.36	***
e12	6.50	.46	13.96	***
e13	.22	.01	13.96	***
e14	.19	.01	13.96	***
e11	.36	.04	8.05	***
e2	.09	.00	10.31	***
e4	.09	.00	10.94	***
e3	.09	.01	9.63	***
e9	.39	.04	8.55	***
e8	.36	.03	10.18	***
e7	.06	.02	2.86	.00
e5	.00	.09	.03	.97
e6	.39	.04	8.90	***
e1	.07	.00	8.22	***

Assessment of Normality

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
family_company	1	2	1.03	8.31	-.93	-3.79
gender	1	2	-.63	-5.15	-1.59	-6.42
age	20	46	4.50	36.38	29.48	119
CA_concern	2	5	-.57	-4.65	.42	1.70
ERAC_memory	1	4.83	.09	.74	-.51	-2.06
ERAC_control-thoughts	1.08	5	-.03	-.29	-.50	-2.04
EI_self-efficacy	1.5	5	.02	.15	-.36	-1.45
EI_desirability	1	5	-.52	-4.22	-.25	-1.02
EI_intentions	1	5	-.29	-2.37	-.56	-2.27
CA_control	1.83	5	-.64	-5.17	1.34	5.41
CA_curiosity	1.83	5	-.44	-3.55	.61	2.49
CA_confidence	2.16	5	-.40	-3.25	.17	.71
Multivariate					36.68	19.78

APPENDIX 6

Parameters Assessments of the Final Model's Alternative Version with Gender Effect Control on Career Adaptability

Regression Weights

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
CA	<---	gender	.16	.04	3.45	***
ERAC	<---	CA	.51	.09	5.71	***
EI	<---	CA	.95	.11	7.98	***
EI	<---	ERAC	.21	.07	3.02	.00
EI	<---	age	.03	.01	2.43	.01
EI	<---	gender	-.32	.07	-4.20	***
EI	<---	family_company	.31	.08	3.90	***
CA_confidence	<---	CA	1			
CA_curiosity	<---	CA	.93	.05	15.92	***
CA_control	<---	CA	.91	.04	18.61	***
EI_intentions	<---	EI	1			
EI_desirability	<---	EI	.79	.03	23.81	***
EI_self-efficacy	<---	EI	.79	.05	13.33	***
ERAC_control_thoughts	<---	ERAC	1			
ERAC_memory	<---	ERAC	.59	.12	4.72	***
CA_concern	<---	CA	1.10	.06	17.41	***

EXPLANATION: CA – career adaptability; ERAC – emotional regulation and control; EI – entrepreneurial intentions

Standardized Regression Weights

			Estimate
CA	<---	gender	.19
ERAC	<---	CA	.31
EI	<---	CA	.51
EI	<---	ERAC	.20
EI	<---	age	.11
EI	<---	gender	-.20
EI	<---	family_company	.18
CA_confidence	<---	CA	.78
CA_curiosity	<---	CA	.81
CA_control	<---	CA	.78
EI_intentions	<---	EI	.92
EI_desirability	<---	EI	.71
EI_self-efficacy	<---	EI	.78
ERAC_control_thoughts	<---	ERAC	.99
ERAC_memory	<---	ERAC	.55
CA_concern	<---	CA	.86

Covariances

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
e9	<-->	e8	.24	.03	6.51	***
e2	<-->	e3	.02	.00	2.74	.00

Correlations

			Estimate
e9	<-->	e8	.64
e2	<-->	e3	.22

Squared Multiple Correlations

	Estimate
gender	0
CA	.03
family_company	0
age	0
ERAC	.09
EI	.4
CA_concern	.73
ERAC_memory	.30
ERAC_control_thoughts	.99
EI_self-efficacy	.85
EI_desirability	.51
EI_intentions	.60
CA_control	.60
CA_curiosity	.60
CA_confidence	.65

Variances

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
e13	.27	.01	13.96	***
e15	.16	.01	9.04	***
e10	.45	.1	4.35	***
e12	6.5	.46	13.96	***
e14	.19	.01	13.96	***
e11	.36	.046	7.92	***
e2	.09	.009	10.27	***
e4	.1	.009	11.01	***
e3	.09	.01	9.60	***
e9	.39	.047	8.43	***
e8	.36	.036	10.08	***
e7	.06	.024	2.77	.00
e5	0	.098	.05	.95
e6	.39	.045	8.86	***
e1	.07	.009	8.28	***

Assessment of Normality

Variable	min	max	skew	c.r.	kurtosis	c.r.
gender	1	2	-.63	-5.15	-1.59	-6.42
family_company	1	2	1.03	8.31	-.93	-3.79
age	20	46	4.5	36.38	29.48	119
CA_concern	2	5	-.57	-4.65	.42	1.7
ERAC_memory	1	4.83	.09	.74	-.51	-2.06
ERAC_control_thoughts	1.08	5	-.03	-.29	-.5	-2.04
EI_self-efficacy	1.5	5	.02	.15	-.36	-1.45
EI_desirability	1	5	-.52	-4.22	-.25	-1.02
EI_intentions	1	5	-.29	-2.37	-.56	-2.27
CA_control	1.83	5	-.64	-5.17	1.34	5.41
CA_curiosity	1.83	5	-.44	-3.55	.61	2.49
CA_confidence	2.16	5	-.4	-3.25	.17	.71
Multivariate					36.68	19.78

Author's Biography

Mia Hocenski was born on January 31st, 1990, in Osijek, Croatia. After completing the undergraduate and graduate study of English language and literature and German language and literature at the Faculty of Philosophy in Osijek in 2013, she started working as an English language teacher in Helen Doron Early English Language Center Osijek. In 2014, Mia held two summer language courses at the Ruysschaert Language Center as an English language teacher in Torhout and Maredsous in Belgium. From December 2014 to February 2016, Mia worked in various primary and secondary schools in and around Osijek as a teacher of English and German language and literature. In February 2016, Mia moved to Oslo, Norway, for seven months to volunteer at KUFO (Kirkelig Undervisningsforbung) through the European Voluntary Service.

In October 2016, Mia was employed at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek, the Josip Juraj Strossmayer University, as an English language assistant at the Department of Interdisciplinary Courses. In December 2016, Mia has enrolled in the International Inter-University Postgraduate Interdisciplinary Doctoral Program "Entrepreneurship and Innovation" at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek. In October 2018, Mia was employed as a lecturer at the Faculty of Economics in Osijek. Mia teaches courses on business correspondence, academic writing, business telephoning, presentation skills, and business English.

From 2017, Mia has participated in two Erasmus+ mobilities in Scotland and England, eight international conferences, one doctoral seminar course in Italy, and has co-authored eight scientific and one professional research paper.

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1. Hocenski, M., Sedlan-König, Lj., & Turjak, S. (2019). Entrepreneurial Education-Exploring Teachers' Creativity in 11 Countries. *Econviews-Review of Contemporary Business, Entrepreneurship and Economic Issues*, *32*(1), 23-35.
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