Calvelli A., Cannavale C., Parmentola A., Tutore I.

'As is' and 'should be'. Does the difference between practices and values affect early-stage entrepreneurial activities?

Submission to IACCM 2012, at Naples, Italy

Abstract

Purpose: This paper aims at investigating how national culture affects entrepreneurship, meant as the rate of start-ups in a specific context. We rely our analysis on GLOBEs dimensions, but with a new perspective. Considering the influence of both values (should be scores) and practices (as is scores), we measure the change orientation of a specific country as the difference between its as is and should be scores. Our purpose is to verify if change orientation affects new firms' creation and consequently if this new dimensions is more helpful than single cultural dimensions in explaining how entrepreneurship varies across countries.

Design: Our study is based on a quantitative analysis aimed at statistically measuring how change orientation affects entrepreneurship. We consider Globe's dimensions and we measure the difference between *should be* (values) and *as is* (practices) scores, in order to get the change orientation of each country. Entrepreneurship is measured as Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) gathered from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Project (GEM). In order to evaluate the impact of change orientation, data about early-stage entrepreneurial activities concern the range 2001-2010, which is a following period with respect to Globe's analysis (1993-1997).

Findings: National culture is an important driver of entrepreneurship. Our analysis confirms that entrepreneurship is significantly correlated with change orientation, and particularly with the principal components: Change Orientation toward Development and Change Orientation towards self-achievement.

Research limitations/implications: Our research has some important theoretical implications. We find a new cultural dimension - Change Orientation - that affects new firms creation. It can be used in future researches to verify its effect on other managerial phenomenon or other aspects of entrepreneurship like innovation or corporate entrepreneurship. Our research has some important limitations. The analysis should consider more variables to verify the degree of entrepreneurship of each country, and environmental factors should be considered to complete our analysis.

Practical implications: Our study is useful for investors who want to create new firms in distant cultural contexts. It highlights that countries more favourable for entrepreneurship are emerging nations; consequently to promote new firms creation is more useful to invest in these latter countries then in developed nations. In addition, understanding cultural barriers can help policymakers to plan the best policies to promote entrepreneurship. Specific indications derive from the consideration that a willingness of institutional collectivism positively influences entrepreneurship. This consideration suggests policy makers to create a set of norms and institutions aimed at a more equal distribution of resources and at supporting collective actions.

What is original/ what is the value of the paper? We consider both the influence of values and practices, and we hypothesize the existence of a new cultural dimension – namely change orientation, derived from the difference between them.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, start-ups, cultural dimensions, change orientation, GLOBE, GEM.

Calvelli A., Cannavale C., Parmentola A., Tutore I.

As is' and 'should be'. Does the difference between practices and values affect early-stage entrepreneurial activities?

1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship is a complex phenomenon that regards many aspects of management. Some authors offer a wide definition of entrepreneurship (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000), while others focus on newness and change as the main aspects of the process (Lumpkin and Dess,1996; Ireland et al., 2003). On the first hand, Shane and Venkataraman (2000: 218) see entrepreneurship as "processes of discovery, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities." After analyzing multiple definitions, Sharma and Chrisman (1999: 17) defined entrepreneurship as "acts of organizational creation, renewal, or innovation that occur within or outside an existing organization." Proponents of this perspective suggest that processes or events should be examined in terms of entrepreneurial intensity (Morris, 1998) or the degree of entrepreneurship that is associated with general organizational processes. They see entrepreneurship as a property, which can - or should be – associated with any strategic decisions an organization takes.

Once defined entrepreneurship as the processes through which newness is created (Ireland et al., 2003; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996), authors focus on the meaning of newness. Following Schumpeter's conceptualization (1934), newness can be intended on as new products, new processes, and new markets, that is the engine of wealth creation. However some scholars adopt a more specific conceptualization of newness and entrepreneurship, by intending newness as the creation of new organizations, and entrepreneurship as the start-up of new firms (e.g., Dobrev & Barnett, 2005; Thornton, 1999). Many authoritative definitions of entrepreneur actually include some reference to venture or enterprise creation. For example, Bygrave and Hofer (1991) define an entrepreneur as "… someone who perceives an opportunity and creates an organization to pursue it" (Bygrave and Hofer 1991, p. 14). In formulating national policy recommendations, Vesper defines entrepreneurship as "the creation of new independent businesses" (Vesper 1983, p. 1).

Coherently with the definition of Dobrev & Barnett (2005) and Thornton (1999) we define entrepreneurship as a process through which new firm is created. Although theoretical models of the new venture creation process differ with the extent to the assumptions and variables they encompass, they include common elements as well. Shapero (1975) for example, sees the prospective entrepreneur's readiness to act as determined jointly by prior experience and the perception of current opportunities. According to Shapero, general readiness becomes a predisposition to initiate a venture when the individual experiences a precipitating event such as a layoff. However, this predisposition turns to action only when the individual perceives a suitable opportunity and can assemble the financial and other required resources from a supportive environment (Shapero, 1975; Krueger, 1993; Martin, 1984). Gartner (1985) defines the creation of a new venture as an interaction among four dimensions: personal characteristics of the entrepreneur (individual), competitive entry strategies (organization), push and pull components (environment), and the actions taken by the entrepreneur to bring the enterprise into existence (process).

Cross-countries analyses reveal that countries show different degrees of entrepreneurship: number of start-ups varies across countries and differences exist even among countries, which have similar degrees of socio-economic development (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994; Moore et al. 1986). Relying on this evidence, a new perspective emerges: the cultural approach (Lee and Peterson, 2000), which focuses on the influence of cultural dimension on the start-ups and self-employment (Stephan and Uhlner, 2010;; Zhao et al., 2010; Baughn and Neupert, 2003; Wildeman et al., 1999).

As far as many contributions exist on the influence of national culture on entrepreneurship (Pinillos and Reyes, 2011; Lee et al., 2009; Reynolds et al., 2007; Wennekers et al., 2005; Hunt and Levie, 2003; Lee and Peterson, 2000; Davidsson and Wiklund, 1997), studies are still fragmented and not much consistent (Engelen et al., 2009). The most of literature analyzes the linkage between cultural values and entrepreneurship. Nevertheless these studies predominately rely on Hofstede's framework of cultural values and get to contrasting results (Pinillos and Reyes, 2009; Wennekers et al., 2007; Hofstede et al., 2004; Baughn and Neupert, 2003; Hunt and Levie, 2003; Hayton et al., 2002; Wildeman, 1999). Only a few studies refer to cultural practices and on their influence on entrepreneurial orientation (Zhao et al., 2010; Stephen and Uhlner, 2010). These works relies on the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research project, that is the first cross-cultural analysis to consider both practices and values as predictors of individual and organizational behaviours (House et al., 2004).

This body of literature gives an interesting and new contribution. The inclination to create new firms depends on some important entrepreneurial capabilities, such as long-term orientation and the inclination to face and manage risks. These capabilities depend on cultural practices (as is scores), but are affected also by what people expect for their future, that is by cultural values (should be scores). According to these considerations, this paper aims at investigating how national culture affects entrepreneurship, meant as the rate of start-ups in a specific context.

Following the Globe Project (House et al., 2004), we consider both the influence of values (should be scores) and practices (as is scores). We intend the difference between values and practices as a measure of Change Orientation, meant as the inclination toward change existing in a specific country. Consequently we formulate the following research question:

RQ: How country's change orientation affects the creation of new firms?

The paper is articulated as follows: the next section presents the theoretical background highlighting the main literature on the topic; section 3 describes the dataset and the variables considered in the analysis; section 4 presents our theoretical hypotheses; section 5 answers the research question by presenting the results derived from the statistical analysis; the final section presents our main conclusions and the limitations of the paper.

2. Literature review

Cross-cultural studies on entrepreneurship analyze the influence that national culture exerts on new firm creation from different perspectives. The most of literature focuses on the effects of cultural values on new firms creation, entrepreneurship orientation and innovation. According to Hofstede (1980) and Schwartz (1994), culture is meant as a set of values, peculiar to a specific group or society, which shape the development of certain personality traits, and motives. It impacts on work ethic, on people need of achievement, on the way people feel legitimated. That is culture shapes the orientation of individuals to take initiatives, and it shape the orientation of social group to positively evaluate personal initiatives (Baughn and Neupert, 2003). Values and beliefs shape the personal characteristics that prompt entrepreneurial orientation of individuals to become an entrepreneur (Kreiser et al., 2010; Mitchell et al., 2000; Mueller and Thomas, 2001; Lee and Peterson, 2000; Bausenitz and Lau, 1996; Mc Grapth et al., 1992).

Employing as their basis Hofstede (1980)'s cultural dimensions, some authors (Mc Grapth et al., 1992; Mcgraith, Mac Millan, and Scheinberg (1992) show that entrepreneurship orientation is higher in countries with high Power Distance, Individualism and Masculinity and lower degree of Uncertainty Avoidance. On the same hand, Mueller and Thomas (2000) observe that individualistic countries show a greater internal locus of control orientation, which contributes to country's entrepreneurial orientation. While focusing on entrepreneurial orientation, Lee and Peterson (2000) get to similar results. They include in their analysis Trompenaars' cultural dimensions (1994), and find that entrepreneurial orientation is stronger in individualistic, achievement oriented, and universalistic cultures, characterized by autonomy, competitive aggressiveness, innovativeness, and risk taking.

As far as authors agree on the deep impact of cultural dimensions on entrepreneurship, they do not reach homogeneous results. As an example, in contrast with the former literature, Baum et al. (1993) hypothesise a reverse role of individualism, arguing that in collectivistic society people are not able to satisfy their emotional needs within institution and organisation and consequently they are more inclined to self-employment, which is the basis of new start-ups.

In order to overcome contradictions, Wildeman et al. (1999) analyse both the effects of cultural and economic values on self-employment. The authors underline that dissatisfaction (with life an democracy) is the most significant driver to self-employment. The level of dissatisfaction is largely influenced by national culture, in particular authors find that it is related to a high level of power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance, while the influence of individualism (-) and masculinity (+) is not significant. Despite authors' results cannot be generalized because are tested on a limited number of developed countries they give an important contribution to literature because consider cultural and economic variables as contextual drivers of entrepreneurship.

Among the studies that empirically analyse the effect of national culture on start-ups, an important stream of research utilize the results of the Global Entrepreneurship Model (GEM) (Pinillos and Reyes, 2011; Stephan and Uhlaner, 2010; Zhao et al. 2010; Arenius and Ehrstedt, 2008; Baughn et al., 2006; Suddle et al., 2006; Levie and Hunt, 2005; Hunt and Levie, 2003; Baughn and Neupert, 2003). However, basing their analysis on cultural values they still get to inhomogeneous results, both when analysis involve Hofstede's dimensions (Arenius and Ehrstedt, 2008; Wenneker et al., 2005; Wenneker et al., 1999) and when they involve the World Value Survey (Suddle et al., 2006; Pnillios and Reynes, 2011). As noted by Pinillos and Reyes (2011), culture plays a different role according to the degree of national wealth, and commitment is an important driver of entrepreneurship because it positively influences both individual inclination to entrepreneurship, and societies evaluation of personal initiatives.

At the end of the 90s', cross-cultural researchers start considering cultural practices in addition to cultural values. House et al. (2004) define national culture as country's shared practices and values, and psychologists consider more and more as an informal institution built up of common behaviors, which structure social interactions. This perspective influences the cultural approach too, and scholars begin to consider the impact of cultural practices on entrepreneurship (Stephan, Uhlaner, 2010).
Considering cultural practices has some important advantages. First of all, practices enable more realistic measures. In the value approach, culture results from a mean of personal preferences and desires, while in the practice approach, people answer about the effective behaviors they observe within their society (Fischer, 2008; Hofstede, 2001; Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Wicker, 1969). Second, the relationship between values and entrepreneurial activity is not appropriate because people do not always behave according to their desires or preferences - that is actions can be conditioned by contextual factors which are different from the ideal situation (Fischer, 2006; ; Peng, Nisbett & Wong, 1997; van Oudenhoven, 2001)

In their work, Stephen and Uhlner distinguish between supply-side factors and demand-side factors of entrepreneurship, and focus on globe dimensions to find out the effects of culture on entrepreneurial motivation and situational variables. By defining performance-based cultures (PBC), and socially

supportive cultures (SSC), the authors hypothesize a positive effect of future orientation, uncertainty avoidance, performance orientation, and human orientation, and a negative effect of assertiveness.

Also Zhao et al. (2012) utilize GLOBE's dimensions to analyze in depth the linkage between cultural practices and entrepreneurship. They found a strong impact of cultural dimension on start-ups, more than on established entrepreneurial firms. They find out that in-group collectivism, human orientation, low uncertainty avoidance and low gender egalitarianism are all directly related to early-stage entrepreneurial activity.

As highlighted by the essential literature review, cultural practices are certainly useful to understand the influence of cultural dimensions on entrepreneurship, above all on early-stage (Zhao et al., 2010), which is our aim. However entrepreneurial activities require a long-term orientation and the capability to face and management risks and those aspects are not independent from cultural values. As noted by House et al. (2004) indeed, both values and practices influence behaviours, and their influence is evident both for groups and individuals. In addition, only a few work based on cultural values concern new firms' creation.

Starting from the relationships that Hanges and Dickson (2004) observe between values and practices, our paper analyzes the effects of cultural practices and values into shaping national entrepreneurship rate. For a specific context, the gap between values and practices gives an important indication: managers perceive the need of a change, both in the context they belong to and/or in their approach to business. We assume that this gap is an important indication of change orientation, and we hypothesize change orientation is a predictor of entrepreneurship, which requires the capability to face uncertainty and to promote changes.

3. Database and Variables

Our study is based on a quantitative analysis aimed at statistically measuring how national culture affects entrepreneurship.

We use GLOBE's cultural dimensions, which explain the different perception and acceptance of leadership within each context. The Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Project (GLOBE project) is a multi-phase, multi-method project, involving 62 countries, grouped into ten cultural clusters, in order to analyse in depth their different cultures. Cultural contexts are examined through nine dimensions - power distance, uncertainty avoidance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, performance orientation, future orientation, human orientation, and assertiveness-. Each dimension is studied at two levels considering both 'as is scores? – that is what middle manager think about their culture in a certain moment – and 'should be scores' – that is what middle managers think about how their culture should change to improve.

Cultural practices (as is) measure individuals' perception of the present culture while cultural values (should be) measure how the culture should be according to their wishes. In order to get the change orientation of each country, we measure the difference between should be (values) scores and as is scores (practices) for the nine GLOBE's dimensions.

The gaps are important to measure if people (managers) perceive the necessity and/or the willingness of changes and to understand the direction of changes. Positive gaps mean that values are higher than practices - that is according to middle managers, the dimension is going (or should) increase -while negative gaps mean that practices are higher than values -that is managers perceive that the importance of a specific dimension should decrease over time.

The derived gaps can be described as follows:

— Power Distance Gap (PDGAP) measures individuals' willingness of change for power distance. It means that individuals perceive power distance as something worthy. Higher values of power distance gap mean that

individuals in a certain country want to move versus higher degree of power distance, a lower degree of independency, with a higher inclination to control. PDGAP is negative for all the analyzed countries.

—Uncertainty avoidance gap (UAGAP) measures individuals' willingness of change for uncertainty avoidance. It means that people do not feel comfortable with changes and unpredictability. Higher values of uncertainty avoidance gap mean that individuals in a certain country are not inclined to face higher level of risk in the future. Russia shows the largest positive gap (2.19) while Switzerland shows the most negative gap (-1.68).

—Performance Orientation Gap (POGAP) measures individuals' willingness of change for performance orientation dimension. It means that people look for higher performances, they want much more meritocracy and they have the need to feel gratified for their results. Higher values of performance orientation gap mean that individuals in a certain country want that performance improvement and excellence will be more rewarded in the future. POGAP is positive for all the analyzed countries.

—Future Orientation Gap (FOGAP) measures the individuals' willingness of change for future orientation dimension. People want to look at the long-term, they build up their future aiming at better results than those they could obtain today. Higher values of future orientation gap mean that individuals in a certain country are inclined for the future to encourage specific behaviors such as planning, investing in the future, and delaying gratification. FOGAP is positive for all the analyzed countries except for Denmark (-0.11).

—In-group collectivism Gap (INGGAP) measures the individuals' willingness of change for in-group collectivism dimension. People perceive that group and relationships are going to play (or should play) an important role in the future. Higher values of in-group collectivism gap mean that individuals in a certain country wish more pride, loyalty and cohesiveness in their organizations or families. This dimension shows a high variability: New Zealand shows the largest positive gap (2.54) while Canada shows the most negative gap (-0,710).

—Institutional collectivism Gap (INSGAP) measures individuals' willingness of changes for institutional collectivism dimension. People look for an institutional system – a system of rules – able to reduce opportunism. Higher values of in-group collectivism gap mean that individuals in a certain country encourage the adoption of organizational and societal institutional practices aimed at collective distribution of resources and at supporting collective actions. Countries like Greece shows a large positive gap (2.15), while countries like Taiwan shows a large negative gap (-4.44).

—Assertiveness Gap (ASSGAP) measures individuals' willingness of changes for assertiveness dimension. People think that direct style of communication is preferable. Higher values of assertiveness gap mean that individuals in a certain country wish more level of aggressiveness in social relationships. China shows the largest positive gap (1.68), while countries Germany shows the most negative gap (-1.48).

—Gender Egalitarianism Gap (GEGAP) measures the individuals' willingness of changes for gender Egalitarianism. It emphasizes people's need of parity opportunities, and respect. Higher values of Gender Egalitarianism gap mean that individuals in a certain country wish more egalitarianism between genders in social relationships. GEGAP is positive for all the analyzed countries.

—Humane Orientation Gap (HOGAP) measures the individuals' willingness of changes for humane orientation dimension. Higher values of humane orientation gap mean that individuals in a certain country encourage people for being in the future more fair, altruistic, friendly, generous, caring, and kind to others. HOGAP is positive for all the analyzed countries.

Looking at the single dimensions, some anomalies emerge: power distance gap is always negative, while human orientation, gender egalitarianism and performance orientation gaps are always positive. In addition, future orientation gap, with the exception of Denmark, is always positive.

We are interested to study the rate of entrepreneurship of different countries, and to verify the relationships between national entrepreneurship rates and change orientation. Similarly to many studies that analyze entrepreneurship at national level we utilize data of the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM).

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Project is the result of a joint research initiative of Babson College in Wellesley (USA) and the London Business School. It is devoted to filling some of the most important gaps in the international data on entrepreneurship. Data on entrepreneurship, both as the number and typologies of new firms, and as institutional and environmental factors affecting entrepreneurship are collected year by year for the most of the involved countries. Today it is considered as one of the best source of comparative entrepreneurship data in the world (Sternberg and Wennekers, 2005; Shorrock, 2008).

Among different GEM dimensions we have considered TEA variable - Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity – to measure countries' entrepreneurship rate. TEA captures the percentage of the adult (aged 18-64) population that is actively involved in entrepreneurial start-up activity. As such, TEA includes nascent entrepreneurs and young business owners. Nascent entrepreneurs are individuals who have, during the last past 12 months, taken tangible action to start a new business, would personally own all or part of the new firm, would actively participate in the day-to-day management of the new firm, and have not yet paid salaries for anyone for more than three months. Young business owners are defined as individuals who are currently actively managing a new firm, personally own all or part of the new firm, and the firms in question is not more than 42 months old. In some cases, an individual may report both nascent and young business ownership activity. However this individual will only be counted once towards the TEA percentage in the adult population. TEA indices have high validity and reliability (Reynolds et al., 2005).

For each country we measured the TEA average rate, obtained as the arithmetical mean of the TEA registered from 2001 to 2010. We chose this period because it immediately follows GLOBE investigations and consequently allow us to measure the effects of Change Orientation on start-ups. TEA average rate varies consistently among countries: countries like Bolivia shows a higher TEA average rate while countries like Japan shows a low TEA average rate.

In order to verify our hypotheses about a direct impact of change orientation on entrepreneurship, we limited our analyses to the countries studied both in the GLOBE project and in the GEM. We consequently have a sample of 50 countries[1].

4. Hypotheses

On the basis of the previous studies and with the aim to understand to which extent change orientation is a predictor of entrepreneurship, we formulated our hypotheses.

Looking at the different cultural dimensions literature emphasizes how power distance is often associated with high level of entrepreneurship (Mc Grapth et al., 1992; Mcgraith, Mac Millan, and Scheinberg,1992). Wildeman et al. (1999), indeed, show that high level of power distance contributes to increase the dissatisfaction of individuals about present situations pushing them to self-employment and creation own companies. According to previous study we expect that that countries that wish higher level of power distance show higher level of entrepreneurship rate and formulate the following hypothesis.

H1: Power Distance Gap (PDGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

Regarding the uncertainty avoidance scholars reach different results. Some authors (McGraph et al. 1992) find an inverse relation between entrepreneurship and uncertainty avoidance because entrepreneurs are often more inclined to risk comparing to non-entrepreneurs. At the same time other studies find that higher level of uncertainty avoidance is positively related to entrepreneurship because increase the individuals dissatisfaction (Wildeman et al., 1999) and supports the adoption at country level of norms and infrastructures aimed at reducing risk perception and at protecting entrepreneurs (Baughn and Neupert, 2003). Moreover in countries where the willingness of uncertainty avoidance is high, individuals tend to create their own business to better control risk levels. Consequently we formulate the following hypothesis.

H2: Uncertainty Avoidance gap (UAGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

---

[1] We considered the following countries: Argentina, Australia, Austria, Bolivia, Brazil, Canada, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Denmark, Ecuador, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Hong Kong, Hungary, India, Indonesia, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, Kazakhstan, South Korea, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Netherlands, New Zeeland, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Russia, Singapore, Slovenia, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan, Thailand, Turkey, United Kingdom, USA, Venezuela, Zambia.

Authors who referred to the GLOBE project – even if to as is scores - find a positive relation between future orientation and performance orientation, on one hand, and start-ups (Stephan and Uhlander, 2010). Consequently we expect that countries wishing higher level of performance orientation and future orientation support entrepreneurial initiatives, so we formulate the following hypotheses:

H3: Performance Orientation Gap (POGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

H4: Future Orientation Gap (FOGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

While literature on performance orientation and future orientation is quite homogenous, the influence of collectivism on entrepreneurship is controversial. Some scholars affirm that individualism affect positively entrepreneurship because founding a new company is an individual initiative (Lee and Peterson, 2000; McGraph et al. 1992). Other authors affirms that entrepreneurship is favored in collectivistic countries because creating a new firm is intended as a way to take care of others, more than as an expression of individual realization (Pinillos and Reyes, 2011; Baum et al., 1993;). In addition other scholars do not find a significant relation between individualism and entrepreneurship (Wildeman et al. 1999), or in-group collectivism and entrepreneurship (Stephan and Uhlander, 2010). However, following the prevailing approach (Lee and Peterson, 2000; McGraph et al. 1992) we expect that countries that desire a higher level of in-group collectivism discourage individual initiative, and consequently that an increasing level of in-group collectivism has a negative impact on entrepreneurship. On the contrary we expect that an increasing degree of institutional collectivism has a positive impact on new firms creation, because the presence of mechanisms and institutions able to encourage an equal distribution of resources and opportunities can encourage entrepreneurship. Consequently our hypotheses on collectivism are:

H5: In group Collectivism Gap (INGCOLGAP) is negatively related to TEA average rate.

H6: Institutional Collectivism Gap (INSCOLGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

Only scholars who base their analysis on the GLOBE projects have considered the effects of assertiveness and human orientation on entrepreneurship (Stephan and Uhlander, 2010; Zhao et al (2012). Nevertheless they get to contrasting results. In addition, within this new stream of literature, only one paper explores the effects of gender egalitarianism and finds an inverse relationship between this dimension and entrepreneurship (Zhao et al., 2012).

However, assertiveness, human orientation and gender egalitarianism have some important traits in common with Hofstede's dimension masculinity/femininity. High level of assertiveness, low level of human orientation and low level of gender egalitarianism are typical of masculine. Studies based on Hofstede's dimensions find a positive relation between exists between masculinity and entrepreneurship (McGraph et al. 1992). Consequently we formulate the following hypotheses:

H7: Gender Egalitarianism Gap (GEGAP) is negatively related to TEA average rate.

H8: Assertiveness Gap (ASSGAP) is positively related to TEA average rate.

H9: Humane Orientation Gap (HOGAP) is negatively related to TEA average rate.

5. Results

To test our hypotheses we calculated the bivariate correlations between cultural gaps and TEA average rate. Results are presented in table 1. In particular, correlation analysis shows a significant positive correlation between UAGAP, FOGAP (99 % significance level) and TEA and between INSTGAP (95% significance level) and TEA, confirming respectively the hypotheses H2, H4, H6. HOGAP is, instead, negatively correlated with the TEA (at 99 % significance level), confirming the hypothesis H9. Other cultural gaps do not seem significant correlated with the TEA.

Table 1: Pearson's coefficients of correlation between cultural gaps and TEA (N=50)

	PDGAP	UAGAP	FOGAP	INGGAP	INSTGAP	POGAP	ASSGAP	HOGAP	GEGAP	Average TEA rate
PDGAP	1	-,461**	-,509**	,347*	-,469**	-,504**	,255	-,309*	-,229	-,082
Sig. (2 tails)		,001	,000	,013	,001	,000	,074	,029	,110	,571
UAGAP	-,461**	1	,856**	-,629**	,335*	,403**	-,004	-,130	-,327*	,423**
Sig. (2 tails)	,001		,000	,000	,017	,004	,981	,369	,020	,002
FOGAP	-,509**	,856**	1	-,406**	,451**	,506**	-,084	-,094	-,240	,485**
Sig. (2 tails)	,000	,000		,003	,001	,000	,563	,515	,093	,000
INGGAP	,347*	-,629**	-,406**	1	-,155	,021	-,144	,067	,274	-,212
Sig. (2 tails)	,013	,000	,003		,282	,887	,318	,646	,054	,139
INSTGAP	-,469**	,335*	,451**	-,155	1	,507**	-,219	,144	,185	,294*
Sig. (2 tails)	,001	,017	,001	,282		,000	,126	,318	,199	,038
POGAP	-,504**	,403**	,506**	,021	,507**	1	-,256	,132	-,006	,238
Sig. (2 tails)	,000	,004	,000	,887	,000		,072	,362	,966	,096
ASSGAP	,255	-,004	-,084	-,144	-,219	-,256	1	-,519**	-,288*	,147
Sig. (2 tails)	,074	,981	,563	,318	,126	,072		,000	,043	,307
HOGAP	-,309*	-,130	-,094	,067	,144	,132	-,519**	1	,258	-,502**
Sig. (2 tails)	,029	,369	,515	,646	,318	,362	,000		,070	,000
GEGAP	-,229	-,327*	-,240	,274	,185	-,006	-,288*	,258	1	-,027
Sig. (2 tails)	,110	,020	,093	,054	,199	,966	,043	,070		,854
Average TEA rate	-,082	,423**	,485**	-,212	,294*	,238	,147	-,502**	-,027	1
Sig. (2 tails)	,571	,002	,000	,139	,038	,096	,307	,000	,854	

**. Correlation is significant at 0,01 (2-tails).
*. Correlation is significant at 0,05 (2-tails).

Probably the lack of significance of the bivariate correlation analysis depends on the correlations existing among the described cultural gaps (table 1). Significant positive correlations exist indeed between PDGAP and UAGAP, FOGAP, POGAP INSTGAP, and between FOGAP and INSTGAP, POGAP. Significant negative correlations exist instead between HOGAP and ASSGAP.

Correlation among gaps imposes to consider the influence of a combination of gaps. Probably TEA average rate is much more affected by complex variables that include the interdependence among different cultural gaps than by single gaps of specific cultural dimensions. In order to overcome contradictions, we made indeed a PCA considering all the cultural gaps As a result of the PCA we obtained two principal components able to explain the 61% of the variance (Table 2). These two components give the measure of country's change orientation.

Table 2: Results of the PCA: explained variance

Components	Initial Eigenvalues			Weights of no-rotated factors			Weights of rotated factors		
	Total	variance%	cumulated%	Total	variance%	cumulated %	Total	variance%	cumulated%
1	3,298	36,644	36,644	3,298	36,644	36,644	3,292	36,576	36,576
2	2,171	24,121	60,764	2,171	24,121	60,764	2,177	24,189	60,764
3	,978	10,865	71,630						
4	,847	9,406	81,036						
5	,534	5,937	86,973						
6	,508	5,648	92,621						
7	,323	3,591	96,212						
8	,249	2,771	98,983						
9	,092	1,017	100,000						

Table 2: Results of the PCA: explained variance

Components	Initial Eigenvalues			Weights of no-rotated factors			Weights of rotated factors		
	Total	variance%	cumulated%	Total	variance%	cumulated %	Total	variance%	cumulated%
1	3,298	36,644	36,644	3,298	36,644	36,644	3,292	36,576	36,576
2	2,171	24,121	60,764	2,171	24,121	60,764	2,177	24,189	60,764
3	,978	10,865	71,630						
4	,847	9,406	81,036						
5	,534	5,937	86,973						
6	,508	5,648	92,621						
7	,323	3,591	96,212						
8	,249	2,771	98,983						
9	,092	1,017	100,000						

Extraction method: principal components analysis.

The first component is negatively correlated with PDGap and INGGap and positively correlated to INSTGap, UAGap, FOGap, POGap (Table 3). Positive values of this component are typical of countries characterized by a strong desire to control uncertainty, to plan the future, to have a system that rewards results and where the power is equally distributed. People in these countries desire organizational and socio-institutional practices aimed at a more equal distribution of resources and at supporting collective actions. At the same time, they want less in-group collectivism that at extreme level could be defined as clan collectivism often supporting personal favoritisms and corruption. This component measures consequently the desire for development (Change Orientation toward Development) and it is typical of developing countries that want to change their negative conditions.

Table 3: Results of the PCA: principal components

	Components	
	1	2
PDGAP	-,733	-,365
UAGAP	,871	-,335
FOGAP	,884	-,175
INGGAP	-,564	,421
INSTGAP	,632	,347
POGAP	,658	,310
ASSGAP	-,185	-,720
HOGAP	,073	,712
GEGAP	-,156	,694

Extraction method: principal components analysis . Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization.

a. Convergence is obtained after 3 iterations

While the first component shows the strongest correlations with FOGap, UAGap, POGap, INSGap, INGGap, the second component is negatively correlated with ASSGap and positively correlated to HOGap and GEGap (Table 3). Negative values of this component are typical of countries characterized by a strong desire to be more aggressive, less human oriented and less tolerant to gender parity. These characteristics are typical of masculine cultures. This component measures the desire for personal affirmation (Change Orientation toward self achievement). People want to create value for themselves, they feel the desire of self-affirmation and because of the strong desire to emerge, they give less importance to other. Values such as solidarity are not so important in this situation.

The bivariate correlations among the above mentioned components and the TEA reveal a significant positive correlation between TEA and the first component (Change Orientation toward Development) and a significant negative correlation between TEA and the second component (Change Orientation toward self achievement). As a consequence, high levels of TEA are typical of countries characterized by a willingness to control the uncertainty (+UAGAP), to reduce in-group collectivism (INGGAP), and to be more future and performance oriented (+FOGAP and +POGAP). These countries encourage an equal distribution of power (-PDGGAP). People hope for a better support from the institutions (+INSTGAP), but they want to be more assertive (+ASSGAP). Probably people feel a desire of rapidity and directness, they desire less human orientation (-HOGAP) and less gender egalitarianism (-GEGAP), which are not so easy to interpret, but could highlight the desire, on behalf of institutions, of concreteness and more performance oriented action than solidarity and welfare (Table 4).

The PCA supports our idea that entrepreneurship is strong influenced by country Change Orientation. Through this analysis, cultural gaps show a higher impact on new firms' creation. More precisely, hypotheses H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7,H8, H9 have been confirmed. On the contrary, Hypothesis H1 on Power Distance has been rejected. Change orientation has a statistically significant impact on entrepreneurship. In addition, its effect is higher in those countries where change is perceived as something wished and that cannot be delayed.

Table 4: Pearson's coefficients of correlation between principal components and average TEA rate

|		COMPONENT 1	COMPONENT 2	Average TEA rate
COMPONENT 1	Pearson's Correlation	1	,000	,390[**]
	Sig. (2-tails)		1,000	,005
COMPONENT 2	Pearson's Correlation	,000	1	-,287[*]
	Sig. (2-tails)	1,000		,043
Average TEA rate	Pearson's Correlation	,390[**]	-,287[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tails)	,005	,043	

**. Correlation is significant at 0,01 (2-tails).
*. Correlation is significant at 0,05 (2-tails).

Our results are graphically represented in figure 1. It shows the position of the analysed countries according to the two components. The highest degree of average TEA rate is obtained by the countries classified in the IV quadrant, that is those characterized by positive values of the first component and negative values of the second component. On the contrary the lowest degree of average TEA rate is obtained by the countries classified in the II quadrant, that is those characterized by negative values of the first component and positive values of the second component.

In the IV quadrant there are above all emerging countries, while in the II there are only industrialized countries. Our findings underline that have the countries with the best possibilities to increase the rate of new firm creation are emerging nations, characterized by a national culture oriented to reach better development level of the context and that encourage the individuals to self achievement.

Between the other two quadrants, quadrant I is characterized by positive values of both the components, and shows the highest degree of average TEA rate. This observation highlights how entrepreneurship is more influenced by Change Orientation towards Development that by Change Orientation toward Self-Achievement as the statistical analysis revealed.

Figure 1: Scatter plot of the CPA
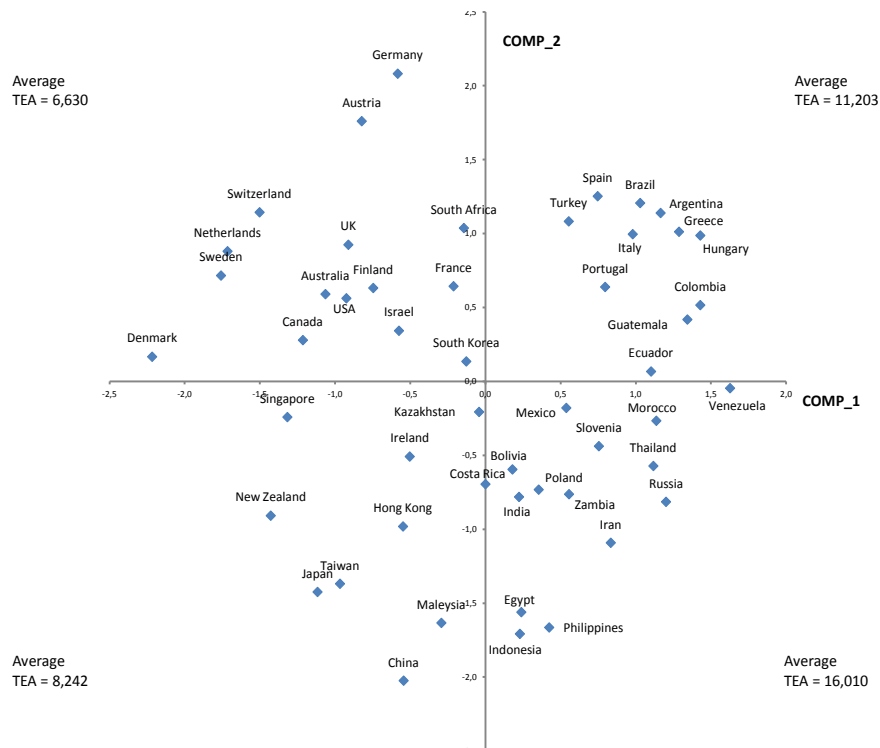
6. Conclusions

Many contributions exist on the influence of national culture on new firm creation (Pinillos and Reyes, 2011; Lee et al., 2009; Reynolds et al., 2007; Wennekers et al., 2005; Hunt and Levie, 2003; Lee and Peterson, 2000; Davidsson and Wiklund, 1997), but they are still fragmented and not much consistent (Engelen et al., 2009).

Moreover the most of literature analyzes the linkage between cultural values and entrepreneurship relying on Hofstede's framework. (Pinillos and Reyes, 2009; Wennekers et al., 2007; Hofstede et al., 2004; Baughn and Neupert, 2003; Hunt and Levie, 2003; Hayton et al., 2002; Wildeman, 1999). Only few studies refer to cultural practices as measured by GLOBE project and on their influence on entrepreneurial orientation (Zhao et al., 2010; Stephen and Uhlner, 2010).

From a cross-cultural perspective, limitation and contrasting results could derive by authors' tendency to focus only on some peculiar dimensions, or from their tendency to analyse only a component of culture: values or practices. According to House et al. (2004), national culture can be ddefined as country's shared practices and values. Practices and values are both important to understand how people behave in a certain counties and to which extent there are inclined to change their way of life, to be engaged for a better future, to promote social changes and consequently to become entrepreneur.

Starting from the relationships that Hanges and Dickson (2004) observe between values and practices, our paper analyses the covariate effect between cultural practices and values into shaping national entrepreneurship rate. In particular we assume that what affect new firm creation are the gaps existing between values (should be) and practices (as is) considering a measure of countries' change orientation.

Change orientation is, indeed, a predictor of entrepreneurship, which requires the capability to face uncertainty and to promote changes.

First of all we analysed how the change orientation of single GLOBE dimensions affects the early entrepreneurship rate (TEA average rate) in a separate way. Then given the low significance of the correlation between single cultural gaps and the TEA, and above all for the highly significant correlation existing between many gaps, we make a principal component analysis (PCA) from which we derive two important component: Change Orientation toward Development, and Change Orientation toward Self Achievement.

The first component is a measure of the country's desire to increase the level of institutional collectivism, performance orientation, future orientation and uncertainty avoidance and to reduce the level of power distance and in-group collectivism. The second component measures the country's desire to increase the level of human orientation and gender egalitarianism and to reduce the level of assertiveness.

The bivariate correlations among the above the mentioned components and the TEA revealed significant positive correlation between TEA and the first component (Change Orientation toward the Development) and a significant negative correlation between TEA and the second component (Change Orientation toward the self achievement). As a consequence, high levels of TEA are typical of countries characterized by a willingness to control the uncertainty (+UAGAP), to reduce in-group collectivism (-INGGAP) and to be more future- (+FOGAP) and performance- (+POGAP) oriented. These countries encourage an equal distribution of power (-PDGGAP). People hope for a better support from the institutions (+INSTGAP), but they want to be more assertive (+ASS GAP). They desire less human orientation (-HOGAP) and less gender egalitarianism (-GEGAP).

The results of our analysis supports our idea that entrepreneurship is strong influenced by country Change Orientation. At the same time it gives force to the idea that both culture and change orientation are very complex phenomenon which need to be analyzed taking into account the interdependence existing between their different aspects. Moreover it supports the idea of many entrepreneurship studies affirming that the entrepreneurship rate is influence by the attitude of individuals to self-achievement and by the presence of a set of norms and institutions that support individuals.

Conceptually our findings are confirmed by the circumstance that countries that have the best possibilities to increase the rate of new firm creation are emerging nations, characterized by a national culture oriented to reach better development level of the context and that encourage the individuals to self achievement..

Our paper gives an interesting contribution to entrepreneurship and cross-cultural literature. First of all our paper is the only study that considers at the same time the influence of both cultural practices and cultural values to entrepreneurship. This aspect helps us to overcome the contrasting results existing in the studies on culture entrepreneurship. In addition, we find a new cultural variable - Change Orientation- deriving from the combination of values and practices. This variable affects new firms creation but can be used in future researches to verify its effect on other managerial phenomenon or other aspects of entrepreneurship like innovation or corporate entrepreneurship.

Our study has important practical implications. It highlights to which extent culture is a driver or a limitation to entrepreneurship and this is useful for investors who want to create new firms in distant cultural contexts. In particular it highlights that countries more favourable for entrepreneurship are emerging nations, consequently to promote new firms creation is more useful to invest in these latter countries then in developed nations. Understanding which cultural dimensions can affect entrepreneurship can help policymakers to plan the best policies to promote new firms creation. Specific indications derive from the consideration that a willingness of institutional collectivism positively influences entrepreneurship. This consideration suggests policy makers to create a set of norms and institutions aimed at a more equal distribution of resources and at supporting collective actions.

While already shedding new light on the relationship between national culture and new firm creation this study offers a number of points of departure for deeper considerations. The correlation between change orientation and TEA would need the inclusion of some control variables, which will be explored in the future. In addition the analysis should consider more countries and should be tested in a longer time. Nevertheless we were forced to limit our analysis because GEM data are not homogeneous for all the countries, and the countries studied by the two projects are not exactly the same. In the future our research will be completed through the analysis of other data.

References

Arenius, P. and Ehrstedt, S. (2008). Variation in the level of activity across the stages of the entrepreneurial startup process –evidence from 35 countries, *Estudios de Economía,* Vol.35, No. 2.

Baughn, C.C. and Neupert, K.E. (2003). Culture and National Conditions Facilitating Entrepreneurial Start-ups', *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, Vol.1, No.3, pp. 313-330

Baughn, C.C., Cao, J. S. R., Le, L. L. M., Lim, V. A., and Neupert, K.E. (2006).Normative, social and cognitive predictors of entrepreneurial interest in China, Vietnam and the Philippines. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 11, No.1, pp. 57-77.

Baum, J.R., and Olian, J.D. (1993), Nationality and work role interactions: A cultural contrast of Israeli and U.S. entrepreneurs' vs. managers' needs', *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 8, No. 6, pp. 499-512.

Bruyat, C. and Julien, P.A., (2001) Defining the field of research in entrepreneurship, *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 165-180

Busenitz, L.W. and Lau, C.M. (1996), A Cross-Cultural Cognitive Model of New Venture Creation, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, Vol. 20, pp. 25-39

Bygrave, W.D. and Hofer, C.W. (1991), Theorising about entrepreneurship, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 16, No. 2, pp. 3–22.

Carree, M., van Stel A., Thurik, R., and Wennekers S. (2007). The Relationship Between Economic Development and Business Ownership Revisited, *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, Vol. 19, No 3, pp. 281-291.

Davidsson, P. and Wiklund, J. (1997), Values, beliefs and regional variations in new firm formation rates, *Journal of Economic Psychology*, Vol.18, pp.179-199

Dobrev, S., D. and Barnett, W. P., (2005), Organizational roles and the transition to entrepreneurship, *Academy of Management Journal,* Vol. 48, No. 3, pp. 433-449

Duysters, G., de Man A. P. and Wildeman, L., (1999), A network approach to alliance management', *European Management journal,* Vol. 17, No.2, pp. 182-187

Engelen, A., Heinemann, F. and Brettel M., (2009), Cross-cultural entrepreneurship research: current status and framework for future studies, *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, Vol.7, No.3, pp. 163–189

Fischer, R. (2006). Congruence and functions of personal and cultural values: Do my values reflect my culture's values? *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 32, pp.1419-1431.

Fischer, R.(2008), Multilevel approaches in organizational settings: Opportunities, challenges and implications for cross-cultural research. In F.J.R. van de Vijver, D.A. van Hemert & Y. Poortinga (Eds.) *Individuals and Cultures in Multi-level Analysis*, pp. 173-196. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gartner, W.B. (1985). 'A Conceptual framework for Describing the Phenomenon of New Venture Creation' *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 10, No. 4, Pp.696–706

Gartner, W.B. (1990). What are we talking about when we talk about Entrepreneurship?, *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp.15–28

Hanges, P. J., and Dickson, M. W. (2004). *The development and validation of the GLOBE culture and leadership scales*. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), Cultures, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 cultures (pp. 122–151). Thousand Oaks, CA7 SAGE Publications.

Hayton, J.C.,George, G., and Zahra, S.A.(2002), National culture and entrepreneurship: A review of behavioral research, *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, Vol. 26, No. 4, pp. 33–52.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's Consequences. Comparing values, behaviors, institutions and organizations across nations* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G., N.G. Noorderhaven, A.R. Thurik, A.R.M. Wennekers, L. Uhlaner and R.E. Wildeman, (2004) 'Culture's Role in Entrepreneurship: Self-employment out of Dissatisfaction', in *Innovation, Entrepreneurship and Cul-ture: The Interaction between Technology, Progress and Economic Growth*, J. Ulijn and T. Brown (eds), Chel-tenham, UK and Brookfield, US: Edward Elgar, Pp. 162-203

Hofstede, G.H. (1980), *Culture Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*, Sage Publications, London.

House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W., and Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations*: *The GLOBE study of 62 societies* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hunt, S. and Levie, J, (2003), Culture as a predictor of entrepreneurial activity. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research 2003*. Wellesley MA: Babson College.

Ireland, R. D., Kratko, D. F. and Covin, J. G., (2003), Antecedents, elements, and consequences of corporate entrepreneurship strategy, *Best Paper Proceedings: Academy of Management, Annual Meeting*, Seattle, Washington.

Kreiser, P.M., Marino, L. D., Dickson, P. and Weaver, K. M (2010), Cultural Influences on Entrepreneurial Orientation: The Impact of National Culture on Risk Taking and Proactiveness in SMEs, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 34, No. 5, Pp. 959-984

Krueger, N. (1993). The impact of prior entrepreneurial exposure on perceptions of new venture feasibility and desirability, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 18, No. 1, pp. 5–21.

Krueger, N. and Brazeal, D. (1994). Entrepreneurial potential & potential entrepreneurs, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice,* Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 91–104.

Lee, S.M. and Lim S., (2009), Entrepreneurial orientation and the performance of service business, *Service Business,* Vol. 3, No. 1, pp 1-13

Lee, S.M. and Peterson, S.J. (2000). Culture, entrepreneurial orientation, and global competitiveness, *Journal of World Business*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 401–416.

Lee, S.M., Lim, S. and Pathak, R. D., (2011). 'Culture and entrepreneurial orientation: a multi-country study'*, International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal,* Vol. 7, No. 1, pp. 1-15

Levie, J.D. and Hunt, S. (2005), Culture, institutions and new business activity: evidence from the global entrepreneurship monitor. In: *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research 2004: proceedings of the twenty-fourth annual entrepreneurship research conference.* Babson College, Babson Park, USA

Lumpkin, G. T. and Dess, G. G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance, *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp.135-172

Martin, M. J. C. (1984), *Managing technological innovation and entrepreneurship*, Reston, Va.: Reston Publishing

McGrath, R. G., MacMillan, I. C. and Scheinberg, S. (1992), Elitists, risk-takers, and rugged individuals? An exploratory analysis of cultural differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs, *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 7, No. 2, pp. 115-135

McGrath, R. G., MacMillan, I. C., Yang, E. A. and Tsai, W. (1992), Does culture endure, or is it malleable?, *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 7, No. 6, pp. 441–458.

Mitchell, R. K., Smith B., Seawright, K. W. and Morse, E. A. (2000). Cross-cultural cognitions and the venture creation decision, *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 43, No. 5, pp. 974-993

Moore, C. F. (1986), Understanding entrepreneurial behaviour, In J.A. Pearce & R.B. Robinson, editors, Academy of Management best papers, *Forty-Sixth Annual Meeting, Academy of Management*, Chicago.

Morris, M. H., (1998), *Entrepreneurial Intensity: Sustainable advantages for Individuals, Organizations and Societies*. Quorum Books: Westport

Mueller, S. L., and Thomas, A. S. (2000). A Case for Comparative Entrepreneurship: Assessing the Relevance of Culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 31, No. 2, pp. 287-301.

Mueller, S. L., and Thomas, A. S., (2001). Culture and entrepreneurial potential: A nine country study of locus of control and innovativeness. *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 16, No. 1, pp. 51–75.

Peng, K., Nisbett, R. E. and Wong, N. Y. C. (1997). Validity problems comparing values across cultures and possible solutions. *Psychological Methods*, Vol. 2, pp.329-344.

Pinillos, M.J. and Reyes, L. (2011). Relationship between individualist–collectivist culture and entrepreneurial activity: evidence from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data, *Small Business Economics*, Vol. 37, No.1, pp. 23-37

Reynolds, P., N., Bosma, E., Autio, S., Hunt, N., De Bono,, I. Servais, P. Lopez G. and Chin N., (2005) Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: Data Collection Design and Implementation 1998-2003. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Cultures, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 cultures (pp. 122–151)*. Thousand Oaks, CA7 SAGE Publications

Reynolds, P., Storey, D. J. and Westhead, P., (2007). Cross-national Comparisons of the Variation in New Firm Formation Rates, *Regional Studies*, Vol. 41, No.1, pp. 123-136

Schumpeter, J. A. (1934), *The Theory of economic development,* Cambridge: Harvard University Press

Schwartz, S.H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In U. Kim, H.C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi, S. and G. Yoon, (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method and applications* (pp. 85-119), Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage.

Shane, S. and Venkataraman, S., (2000). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research, *Academy of Management review*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 217- 226

Shapero, A. (1975). The displaced, uncomfortable entrepreneur, *Psychology Today*, Vol. 9, No. 6, pp. 83-88.

Sharma, P. and Chrisman, J., (1999). Toward a reconciliation of the Definitional Issues in the Field of Corporate Entrepreneurship, *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 11-27

Shorrock, A. (2008). *Opening Address*. United Nations University-WIDER, Conference on Entrepreneurship and Economic Development. Helsinki.

Stephan, U. and Uhlaner, L.M. (2010), Performance-based vs. socially supportive culture: A cross-national study of descriptive norms and entrepreneurship, *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 41, pp. 1347–1364

Sternberg R, and Wennekers S (2005). Determinants and effects of new business creation; investigations using Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data. *Small Business Economics*, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 193-203

Suddle, K., Beugelsdijk, S. and Wennekers, S. (2006), *Entrepreneurial culture as a determinant of nascent entrepreneurship,* (SCALES paper), Zoetermeer, the Netherlands: EIM

Thorton, P. H. (1999), The sociology of entrepreneurship, *Annual Review of Sociology*, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 19-46

Trompenaars, F., (1994), *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business.* Chicago: Irwin.

van Oudenhoven, J. P. (2001). Do organizations reflect national cultures? A 10-nation study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 25(1), pp. 89– 107.

Verplanken, B. And Holland, R. W. (2002). Motivated Decision Making: Effects of Activation and Self-Centrality of Values on Choices and Behavior. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*. Vol. 82, pp. 434-447.

Vesper, K. H. (1983) *Entrepreneurship and national policy,* Chicago: Heller Institute

Wennekers, A.R.M., and Thurik, A.R. (1999), Linking entrepreneurship and economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 27–55

Wennekers, S., van Stel, A., Thurik, R. and Reynolds, P. (2003), Nascent Entrepreneurship and the Level of Economic Development, *Small Business Economics,* Vol. 24, pp. 293-309

Wicker, A.W. (1969). Attitudes versus actions: the relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *Journal of Social*, Vol 25, pp. 41-78.

Zhao, X., Rauch, A. and Frese, M. (2010), *Cross-country Differences in Entrepreneurial Activity: The Role of National Cultural Practice and Economic Wealth*, 4th Global Entrepreneurship Research Conference, London.