

IMPACT OF CULTURE ON ENTREPRENEURSHIP

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INTRODUCTION

The tendency of certain cultures to produce entrepreneurs has made it intuitively appealing to view culture as a determinant of entrepreneurship. Some cultures, for instance, have been found to be more supportive of entrepreneurial activities than others. However, many of these studies are carried out in the West. So far, little is known of any similar studies that may have been conducted, in the Asian context, to discriminate the cultural values of the entrepreneurs from those of the general population. Since Asians come from a different socio-cultural background, the results obtained from the western samples may not necessarily be reflective or representative of the values held by their Asian counterparts. It is this particular observation that prompted the present study.

It is generally accepted that entrepreneurship is one of the major influencing factors of economic growth and development. Entrepreneurs are often hailed as catalysts of progress and initiators acting as vital cogs in the wheel of industry and economy" (Lee and Low, 1990). In most countries, the impact of entrepreneurship is felt most keenly in two areas of economic system: (1) the type and number of jobs and industries that it develops; (2) the type and number of innovations that it stimulates.

However, in Singapore, the interest in entrepreneurship does not stem from the job creating potential of small firms (Lee and Low, 1990). Instead, entrepreneurship is recognised as an important process through which Singapore's mature economic condition can be revitalised. It was not until the recession in 1985 that Singapore reassessed its economic system. The government, then, realised that compare to Hongkong and Taiwan, the role and impact of the entrepreneurs in the private sector were punitive and eclipsed by those of the public and foreign sectors. In his "landmark" speech, Senior Minister Mr Lee Kuan Yew highlighted the deficiency of local entrepreneurs required to take Singapore on its "second wing" of economic progress (Lim, 1993); and achieve the status of an international business center. With the growth rates of 1991 and 1992 culminating at 5 to 6%, Mr Lee saw no al-

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ternative to rejuvenate Singapore's mature economy other than to urge local entrepreneurs to regionalize and expand outwards.

In a study conducted by McGrath, MacMillan and Scheinberg (1992), statistical evidence has been found to support the hypothesis that, regardless of cultural differences, entrepreneurs from different societies share a common core set of entrepreneurial values. These authors believed that this set of perceptions and beliefs may possibly be the "very seeds of entrepreneurial behavior". Brockhaus (1982) agreed that "values" may be an effective means to distinguish successful entrepreneurs from the general population.

In their study, McGrath, et al. (1992) defined cultural differences between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs along Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions: individualism-collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity. Hofstede described each of the dimensions as follows: (1) The individualism dimension describes the type of relationship existing between an individual and others in a society; (2) The power distance scale measures the interpersonal power or inequality between people; while (3) The uncertainty avoidance index indicates one's stance towards the unknown future, and a preference for structured and unambiguous situations; and finally (4) The masculinity dimension measures the division of roles between the sexes in a society.

MrGrath, et al. (1992) were not the only researchers to conclude that entrepreneurs tend to carry cultural values delineated along the 4 dimensions. Other studies have also indicated that entrepreneurs are more likely to initiate actions individually rather than in a collective manner (individualism); have greater tolerance for inequality- (high power distance); are more prepared to take risk - (low uncertainty avoidance); and are highly competitive, aggressive and independent -(masculine-oriented). There is no systematic research conducted to study the culture of Chinese entrepreneurs in Singapore. This current study adopts the work of McGrath, et al. (1992) and uses it in the local context to investigate whether there is, indeed, a relationship between entrepreneurial behavior and a pervasive set of cultural beliefs.

The primary objective of this research is to conduct an empirical study to determine the differences in the values held by the Chinese entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in Singapore. Specifically, four hypotheses are proposed to relate cultural values to entrepreneurial initiation. These are as follows:

- (1) Chinese entrepreneurs are more individualistic than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.
- (2) Chinese entrepreneurs are more power distant than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.
- (3) Chinese entrepreneurs are less uncertainty avoiding than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

- (4) Chinese entrepreneurs are more masculine-oriented than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

Four Cultural Dimensions

Hofstede (1980) defines culture as "the collective mental programming of a group of people". Members of different communities are able to distinguish themselves from one another because they are each "programmed" to think, feel and behave in particular ways. Values, on the other hand, are defined as "a broad tendency to prefer certain states of affairs over others." These are "programmed" into an individual's life during the socialisation process that begins during childhood. In this study, values are related to the initiation of entrepreneurial activities. Entrepreneurs are defined as individuals who are not only self-employed, but also managers of their own firms. This criterion, therefore, excludes from the entrepreneur sample those partners who are not owner-managers but have some form of vested interest in the business.

This study adapts the approach and guidelines suggested by McGrath, et al. (1992), in order to relate economic activity in Singapore to the system of beliefs held by the local Chinese entrepreneurs. In 1992, McGrath, et al. conducted their study with the objective of determining whether business starters, regardless of their home culture, are likely to hold a persistent set of values that differentiate them from non-entrepreneurs. They chose to define this set of values as being aligned along Hofstede's (1980) 4 cultural dimensions: individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity.

In order to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial tendency and a predictable set of system beliefs, the 3 researchers utilised survey data from 8 countries (Australia, Finland, Portugal, Sweden, Canada, Italy, China and US), in which over 2400 responses from entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs were available. Their sample of entrepreneurs was chosen from people who had begun stand-alone businesses and who devoted a major portion of their time to managing the business. Non-entrepreneurs, however, were developed from 3 groups of people whom they termed as "career professionals". These groups of people include: (1) school teachers; (2) bank branch manager; and (3) government officers or employees.

The participants of the research survey were each required to respond to a set of questionnaire designed to operationalise cultural influence (Hofstede 1980; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck 1961; Lodge 1975). This series of questions, which was developed on a Likert scale, sought to identify the values of the respondents on 14 cultural variables. Despite the exploratory nature of the study, the responses from the two contrasting samples were moderately reliable. The split-sample test, a form of reliability analysis, was able to successfully classify 74% of the entrepreneurs

and 68% of the non-entrepreneurs. The instrument, was, therefore, considered robust and reliable.

The study was also able to find a reasonable degree of support for the following hypotheses:

- (1) Entrepreneurs share a predictable set of values, when compared with individuals who have followed a non-entrepreneurial trajectory.
- (2) In a number of quite different societies, entrepreneurial values are aligned along the 4 dimensions as such: (a) high in individualism; (b) high in power distance; (c) low in uncertainty avoidance; and (d) high in masculinity.

The above results obtained in McGrath, et al.'s (1992) study, thus, suggested that entrepreneurs have a persistent and characteristic value orientation, irrespective of the values of their base culture. A major study by Hofstede (1980) identified (1) differences in cultural patterns across 40 countries; and (2) sought to understand the institutional mechanisms that permit these patterns to remain stable over time and across many generations. For his data analysis, he collected and analysed more than 116,000 questionnaires responses from employees of one Multinational Corporation (MNC) in the 40 countries at 2 points in time: 1968 and 1972. Through a combination of multivariate statistical methods and theoretical reasoning, Hofstede found the cultural differences, among the 40 countries, to be reducible to 4 main value dimensions. These are individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity. It has been predicted, by many, that these 4 dimensions may be so "fundamental to human activity that they will serve as necessary criteria in much future culture-comparative work" (Hofstede, 1980).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study used survey research as its basic research design. In addition, it involved convenient samples of entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs from a wide range of industrial and business sectors: finance and commerce, service, transportation and communication, manufacturing and construction. An entrepreneur is defined as an owner-manager who employs at least an employee in his company, and whose business is at least 2 years of age. The entrepreneur must also spend a major portion of his or her time managing the business. The non-entrepreneur, on the other hand, is defined as one who is an employee of an organisation, and not self-employed.

A total of 350 questionnaires was mailed and distributed through personal contacts. The overall response rate obtained was 35.4%. Of the questionnaires which were returned, 120 (34.3%) of them were valid and used for data analysis. Of these, 63 (18.0%) were entrepreneurs, while 57 (16.3%) were non-entrepreneurs.

Table 1 presents the profile of both the entrepreneurs and the non-entrepreneurs, in terms of their gender and highest level of education attained. Apparently, the number of female respondents in both sample groups is considerably smaller than the males. This skewed representation of the genders is obtained despite a conscious effort to include women respondents in the sampling plan. Due to this constraint, this study did not attempt to conduct any comparative analysis between the genders.

Table 1: Profile of Entrepreneurs and Non-entrepreneurs

	Entrepreneurs	Non-entrepreneurs
Education: "O" level and below	19 (30.2%)	9 (15.8%)
"A" level or diploma	14 (22.2%)	15 (26.3%)
Degree and above	30 (47.6%)	33 (57.9%)
Gender: Male	51 (81.0%)	37 (64.9%)
Female	12 (19.0%)	20 (35.1%)

Questionnaire was used as the primary research instrument. The questionnaire was developed to identify the values of the respondents along Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions: individualism-collectivism; power distance; uncertainty avoidance; masculinity-femininity (McGrath, et al., 1992). It comprises 67 statements designed on a Likert scale of 5 points. Respondents were required to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with the various questions.

In addition to these 67 questions, there was a second section that sought to consolidate a general profile of the respondents. They were required to indicate their personal particulars, including their total years of working experience, number of previous jobs held before they became self-employed (if applicable), and other information pertaining to the industry and type of organization in which they are currently managing or working for.

FINDINGS

Reliability Test

This section presents the results of the reliability test performed on the 4 dimensions. Table 2 illustrates the overall results obtained when the analysis was conducted for the entire survey i.e. for all the responses obtained from both the entrepreneur and non-entrepreneur samples. Nunnally (1978) has suggested that a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of above 0.7 be used as the basis for reliability. Since

this research is essentially an empirical study, an alpha coefficient of at least 0.5 will be used, instead, as a benchmark for reliability.

Table 2: Reliability Analysis for the Entire Survey for All Items in the Questionnaire

Dimensions	No. of Items Included	α When All Items are Included
Individualism-Collectivism	16	0.6385
Power Distance	19	0.6546
Uncertainty Avoidance	22	0.6596
Masculinity-Femininity	10	0.5155

As can be seen, all the measures of the 4 scales have reliability of more than 0.5. Therefore, theoretically, the responses to the questions in the 4 dimensions are fairly consistent. Analysis was also performed to determine how the overall reliability of the scale would be affected if each of the items in each scale were to be removed. Table 3 below presents the improved results of the analysis when selected items were deleted from each scale.

Table 3: Reliability Analysis for the Entire Survey for Selected Items in the Questionnaire

Dimensions	Item No. Deleted	No. of Item Included	New α Value
Individualism-Collectivism	8	15	0.6793
Power Distance	-	19	0.6546
Uncertainty Avoidance	8; 11; 22	19	0.6902
Masculinity-Femininity	7; 8; 10	7	0.5688

Reliability analysis was also conducted for each of the entrepreneur and non-entrepreneur sample. Table 4 and 5 present their respective findings. In the analysis of these two separate groups, only those questions that were not deleted in Table 3 were taken into consideration.

Table 4: Reliability Analysis for Only the Entrepreneur Sample for Selected Items in the Questionnaire

Dimensions	No. of Item Included	α When All Items are Included
Individualism-Collectivism	15	0.7135
Power Distance	19	0.6973
Uncertainty Avoidance	19	0.6387
Masculinity-Femininity	7	0.4418

Table 5: Reliability Analysis for Only the Non-Entrepreneur Sample for Selected Items in the Questionnaire

Dimensions	No. of Item Included	α When All Items are Included
Individualism-Collectivism	15	0.6347
Power Distance	19	0.5660
Uncertainty Avoidance	19	0.7321
Masculinity-Femininity	7	0.5264

Except for the alpha coefficient of the masculinity-femininity dimension in Table 4, all other α 's in both tables indicated reliability coefficients of at least 0.5. Since this study is only exploratory in nature, despite its low reliability coefficient, the masculinity-femininity dimension was included in the subsequent analysis - t-test - to determine the differences in the values held by the Chinese entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

Comparisons along the Individualism Dimension

At the significance level of 10%, only 6 out of the 16 questions include in the individualism-collectivism dimension showed support for the above hypothesis. Table 6 and 7 below list these questions and their respective statistics.

Entrepreneurs were found to agree more than non-entrepreneurs that "success is associated with the ability to set-up one's own business" (Ind 3). This is probably because, if these individuals were to manage their own firms, they would obtain greater opportunities to acquire a sense of autonomy and freedom that they craved

Table 6: Individualism-Collectivism Dimension

Item No.	Statement	μ_{Ent}^2	μ_{NEnt}^3	p-value
Ind 1	Success is associated with being promoted up through the ranks in a corporation	2.5714	2.3567	0.0934
Ind 3	Success is owning your own company*	2.9095	3.1579	0.0793
Ind 6	There will be equality if rewards are based on merit	1.9231	2.2632	0.0667
Ind 13	Companies have a duty to be responsible for the health and welfare of employees	1.8413	1.6491	0.0351
Ind 15	Success is being able to control your own time	1.7460	2.1404	0.0023
Ind 16	There is a duty to uphold values of the family	1.7619	1.9011	0.0949

μ_{Ent}^2 denotes the mean value of the responses indicated by the entrepreneur sample.

μ_{NEnt}^3 denotes the mean value of the responses indicated by the non-entrepreneurs sample.

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

Table 7: Summary of Findings for Individualism-Collectivism Dimension.

	Agreed More
Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Success is owning your own company* ◇ There will be equality if reward are based on merit ◇ Success is being able to control your own time ◇ There is a duty to uphold values of the family
Non-Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◇ Success is associated with being promoted up through the ranks in a corporation ◇ Companies have duty to be responsible for the health and welfare of employee

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneur while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

for as independent persons. In addition, if their ventures were to be successfully established, they would experience a sense of individual initiative and personal achievement. These behaviors and attitudes appear to satisfy a self-fulfilling prophecy predicated by McClelland (1961). He observed that, as these achievement-oriented entrepreneurs become aware that their actions can directly result in personal achievements, they are likely to put forth greater effort to ensure the continuance of their future success. This observation closely agrees with Hofstede's (1980) findings in which he associated high individualism scores with an emphasis on personal accomplishment, autonomy and individual initiative.

Unlike entrepreneurs, non-entrepreneurs agreed more to the statement the "success is associated with being promoted up through the ranks in a corporation" (Ind1). This response indicated a common desire among them to "belong to a large organisation" (Hofstede, 1980). As such, it is not surprising to find that many of them want their companies to treat them as members of a large family; and take on greater responsibilities to care for their health and welfare (Ind13). Although such an attitude allows employees to acquire a sense of belonging in the company and emphasizes job security, from the perspective of entrepreneurship, this attitude is detrimental to the country's hope of spurring economic development through entrepreneurial efforts. In fact, the public sectors and the MNCs have not helped to discourage this attitude or alleviate the problem. Instead, as observed by Lee and Low (1990), they have in the past stifled entrepreneurial spirit in Singapore by offering more attractive employment terms. These have made the opportunity cost of initiating local business ventures relatively high. Therefore, in view of Singapore's recent objective to rejuvenate its mature economy, one expects future policies relating to entrepreneurship and small business start-ups to concentrate on reducing the risk and increasing the rewards for engaging in entrepreneurial activity.

Unlike their counterparts, entrepreneurs indicated that they were not overly concerned about maintaining "tightly structured" relationships (Hofstede, 1980) with people in the large community. They tended to place greater importance in fulfilling their own personal goals and those of their immediate families. For instance, they agreed far more than non-entrepreneurs that one should be able to manage and control one's own time (Ind 15); and uphold the values and reputation of the family (Ind 16). As such, entrepreneurs in Singapore are believed to be more individualistic than non-entrepreneurs. Lee and Low (1990) have also found evidences to support this observation. For instance, they noted that when faced with financial difficulty, 4 major sources of capital generally available for these individualistic business-owners (in order of preference) are as follows: personal savings; capital investments in the business by family and friends; loans from family and friends; and loans from financial institutions. This observation follows closely to the general expectation that entrepreneurs will first obtain the needed amount of resources independently, through his personal saving, before

approaching family members or friends for help. Such a behavior probably came about through the highly independent nature of these individuals.

Although self-competency and high independence are admirable characteristics, Aldrich and Zimmer (1986) advised that it is also important for entrepreneurs to socialise and build-up a well-connected social networks. In order to increase the rate of successful entrepreneurship, the 2 researchers recommended that entrepreneurs become members of highly organised groups, such as voluntary association, trade associations or other social units, that will increase the probability of them coming into contacts with people who have the "connections" to offer help in the form of services or timely and accurate information. In Singapore, some of these associations are the Singapore Chinese Chamber of Commerce & Industry, Singapore Manufacturers' Association, and Singapore Contractors Association Limited.

In addition, this present study found entrepreneurs to be the more likely group to establish and maintain equality through the distribution of "rewards that are based on merit" (Ind 6). Since high individualism score is also associated with an emphasis on universal standards, rather than special treatment for certain groups, this finding suggests that local entrepreneurs are, indeed, more individualistic than their counterparts.

Therefore, based on the above findings, there appears to be sufficient evidences to support the hypothesis that Chinese entrepreneurs are more individualistic than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

Comparisons Along the Power Distance Dimension

Along the power distance dimension, entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs were found to differ in their responses to 8 of the 19 statements. Respectively, Table 8 and 9, present the results and summary of the comparison between the 2 groups.

Although entrepreneurs appeared to believe in reciprocity and treating people in a fair manner (Pd 3), they tended to take a more authoritarian stance in their approach (Pd 12). For instance, they believed that one can acquire authority and power by being recognised as the very best (Pd 16). Entrepreneurs probably felt this way because, once acknowledged as the very best, they tended to believe that they had earned their rights and were, therefore, entitled to exercise the level of authority deemed only appropriate for people of their calibre.

With such a high superiority complex (Lim, 1993), it is clear that entrepreneurs expect to make the ultimate decisions and are, thus, unable to accept authority from any person other than themselves (Hagen 1962). This research has found strong evidences to support Hagen's (1962) observation. For instance, entrepreneurs who were owner-managers of their firms agreed more than non-entrepreneurs that

subordinates should worry if they encountered any opposition or disagreement from their superiors (Pd 19).

Table 8: Power Distance Dimension

Item No.	Statement	μ_{Ent}^2	μ_{NEnt}^3	ρ -value
Pd 1	Having money means you come from an influential family	3.8574	3.4912	0.0170
Pd 3	It is one's duty to offer a service in return when provided with a personal service	2.3968	2.7368	0.0250
Pd 10	Change of social status is open to everyone*	2.8063	3.0764	0.0809
Pd 12	I'm like a more authoritarian manager*	2.9970	3.2860	0.0567
Pd 14	Having rights means you have special privileges that others do not	3.0159	3.2807	0.0878
Pd 15	Having money means you are well connected*	2.9206	3.2281	0.0569
Pd 16	Power comes from being recognized as the best	2.2381	2.4737	0.0521
Pd 19	One should worry if one does not agree with one's manager*	2.9048	3.2807	0.0185

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneur while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

It is clear from the above findings that entrepreneurs tend to have much greater confidence in themselves than do non-entrepreneurs. This strong belief in their own capability to achieve planned goals is thought to have significantly reduced their perceived level of failure and risk; thus, enabling them to do what they set out to accomplish with greater confidence. In fact, it has been said that self-confidence and assurance are two important contributing factors that will determine whether one eventually fails or succeeds in his quest for success.

These results appear to suggest that, if one were to increase the rate of entrepreneurship development in Singapore, a crucial remedy would be an increase in the effort to correct the negative perception held by many non-entrepreneurs, which tends to say: "Compared to others, I am not good enough". So far, a prevalent method that has been used to ensure or increase one's confidence in achieving planned goals is the implementation of training or educational program. These serve to equip potential individuals with the necessary skills and knowledge

essential for managing a successful business. In today's era of high-tech society, Lim (1993) strongly feels that when put to good use, financial and marketing management are two effective skills that will greatly boost one's self-confidence; as well as allow an individual to acquire a sense of power. Since these skills are essential management tools, Lim pointed out that, when used effectively, these have the potential to help decrease or minimise the level of uncertainty experienced by many non-entrepreneurs-turned-entrepreneurs. At this point in time, it is important to take note that the four cultural dimensions are not mutually exclusive. In reality, their characteristics and implications tend to overlap.

Table 9: Summary of Findings for Power Distance Dimension.

	Agreed More	Disagreed More
Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It is one's duty to offer a service in return when provided with personal service. • Change of social status is open to everyone*. • I'm like an authoritarian manager*. • Having money means you are well connected*. • Power comes from being recognized as the best. • One should worry if one does not agree with one's manager*. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having money means you come from an influential family.
Non-Entrepreneurs		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having rights means you have special privileges that others do not.

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

Although in this study, both entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs disagreed with the statement that "having rights means you have special privileges that others do not" (Pd 14), they appeared to have different views with regards to the issue of social mobility. Entrepreneurs tended to agree more than the non-entrepreneurs that "change in social status is open to everyone" (Pd 10). Although this particular finding supports those results obtained in McGrath, et al.'s (1992) study, its occurrence in the context of Singapore is rather surprising. This is because, one would expect the majority of the respondents, including the non-entrepreneurs, to

agree that social mobility is relatively easy in Singapore which is generally regarded as a "paper society". Since this assumption does not seem to hold true in this study, one can attempt to explain this observation as follows:

(1) One may hypothesise that, probably, the non-entrepreneurs are less educated than the entrepreneurs; that is why they tend to find difficulty in making transitions to the higher economic levels. However, referring to the sample profile described in Table 1, this speculation does not seem to be true. In fact, the percentage of degree holders among the non-entrepreneurs: 57.9% is greater than that of the entrepreneurs: 47.6%. This finding appears to lend its support to the "displacement" thesis by Shapero and Sokol (1982), which postulates entrepreneurs as "displaced" people who start-up their own businesses because of their dissatisfaction with their previous jobs (Brockhaus, 1980). Apparently in this case, the non-entrepreneurs who had higher qualifications seemed to be more successful than the entrepreneurs in obtaining jobs that were more satisfying. In addition, with higher qualifications, they were probably earning higher salaries, thus, explaining why they were less inclined to initiate their own enterprises. When explained from this perspective, this particular finding also provides support for the theory of marginality first proposed by Hagen (1961), which argues entrepreneurship as an alternative means adopted by people who are keen to further enhance their economic or social status. Therefore, the relationship between educational level and social mobility appears to be the reverse of what was originally proposed.

(2) Alternatively, the differences in opinion can be explained in terms of the basic attitudes held by the two groups of people. For instance, the more ambitious, "internally controlled" (Shaver and Scott, 1991), achievement-oriented and individualistic entrepreneurs, probably, felt that nothing could prevent them from achieving their goals; while the less confident non-entrepreneurs were more hesitant and doubtful as to whether similar attempts, made by them, would be as successful.

Since entrepreneurs felt that nothing, including social status, is fixed, it is understandable as to why they disagreed more than non-entrepreneurs that "having money means you come from an influential family" (Pd 1). Entrepreneurs were also found to be the more likely group to perceive money as a means to acquire power. This is probably because, they believed that with money, it makes it easier for one to establish a "well-connected" social network (Pd 15). As noted by Aldrich and Zimmer (1986), such a network is invaluable as it allows entrepreneurs to use their contacts in such a manner that will open up opportunities and pave the way for events to unfold to their advantage.

From the above findings, strong evidences have clearly been found to support the hypothesis that entrepreneurs are more power distant than non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

Comparisons Along the Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

Out of the 22 questions classified under the uncertainty avoidance dimension, 11 of them were found to significantly differentiate entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs. Table 10 illustrates these statements and their respective statistic measures.

Table 10: Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

Item No.	Statement	μ_{Ent}^2	μ_{NEnt}^3	ρ -value
UA 1	Starting a company means a risk of psychic health.	2.8848	2.4737	0.0033
UA 3	Failure means you were not meant to succeed.	4.0318	3.5088	0.0028
UA 4	Starting company means a risk of losing your assets, including your house.	2.7676	2.1754	0.0007
UA 6	Starting a company means investing money to obtain a profit.	2.1111	1.9123	0.0624
UA 7	Failure is associated with losing a lot of money	2.9745	2.7191	0.0681
UA 9	Starting a company means a risk of money if it fails.	2.2064	1.8597	0.0069
UA 13	Time is a limited resource.	1.3651	1.7530	0.0002
UA 15	Failure is associated with losing face/respect#.	3.1423	2.8421	0.0641
UA 16	Entrepreneur is able to identify resources (machines, money).	1.6508	2.0000	0.0004
UA 18	Change is for the better, since without change, there cannot be progress.	1.9365	2.2281	0.0397
UA 21	Entrepreneurs produce existing products in a more efficient way.	1.9524	2.4561	0.0004

Entrepreneurs disagreed with this statement while non-entrepreneurs agreed with it.

The findings have clearly indicated that entrepreneurs in Singapore were more risk-taking than non-entrepreneurs. For instance, they were less resistant to change, believing that "change is for the better, since without change, there cannot be progress" (UA 18). This is probably because entrepreneurs were more tolerant of

Table 11: Summary of Findings for Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

	Agreed More	Disagreed More
Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time is a limited resource • Entrepreneur is able to identify resources (machines, money). • Change is for the better, since without change, there cannot be progress. • Entrepreneurs produce existing products in a more efficient way 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Failure means you were not meant to succeed.
Non-Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Starting a company means a risk of psychic health. • Starting a company means a risk of losing your assets, including your house. • Starting a company means investing money to obtain a profit. • Starting a company means a risk of losing money if it fails. • Failure is associated with losing a lot of money. • Failure is associated with losing face/respect#. 	

Entrepreneurs disagreed with this statement while non-entrepreneurs agreed with it.

ambiguous situations (Scherer, 1982) and comfortable with unfamiliar risks (Hofstede, 1991). Since these people were more accepting of personal risk, it is not surprising that entrepreneurs disagreed more with the statement that "failure means you were not meant to succeed" (UA 3). From here, it is obvious that the entrepreneur sample is the more likely group of the two to endorse an attitude that says: "better to have tried and failed than never to have tried at all".

Referring to the above statement (UA 3), non-entrepreneurs expressed a different opinion from that of the entrepreneurs. They were not so optimistic and did not think highly of failing. In fact, non-entrepreneurs agreed more with the statement that "failure is associated with a loss of face or respect" (UA 15). This is probably because non-entrepreneurs tended to equate failure with a loss of face or respect, which are two values that are held in high esteem, especially, in the Asian culture. These results appear to confirm the suspicion raised by Lee and Low (1990), suggested that the lack of entrepreneurs in Singapore may be due to the presence of an uncondusive local culture that is highly intolerant of failure; and which does not

consider failure to be an opportunity to learn. An entrepreneur needs to be able to learn from his mistakes before he really does attain success. Therefore, a non-entrepreneur who holds the attitude that says: "one must succeed on the first try" is simply not being realistic as it leaves no room for one to learn from his or her mistakes. It is, therefore, clear that this attitude, which is termed locally as "kiasuism", must be changed if entrepreneurship is to be successfully cultivated in Singapore.

In order to change such unfavourable disposition, a viable option appears to be through training and educational programs such as those described in the previous section. It would also be beneficial to teach the mistakes to avoid and the right way of doing things so that potential entrepreneurs can achieve greater success more rapidly than he or she would have done without the teaching.

Besides being afraid of failing, non-entrepreneurs were also found to be more pessimistic in their general outlook of life. For instance, with respect to starting their own companies, they tended to agree far more than entrepreneurs that such a venture entailed a risk of losing money (UA 7; UA 9) and all assets including one's house (UA 4). They also felt more strongly that "starting a company means a risk of psychic health (UA 1). This finding lends its support to Liles (1974) who argued that, it is in all likelihood, that a business-owner may interpret that failure of his or her personal venture to mean the failure of himself or herself as an individual. In view of such an association, it is no wonder that many non-entrepreneurs hesitate to start their own business for fear of having to go through emotional consequences such as moral crisis, should their venture ever fail.

Therefore, in the face of these risks, non-entrepreneurs were more agreeable to starting their own businesses only when they believed that a certain amount of profit could be realised from the venture (UA 7). This finding should not come as a surprise. This is because, Kirzner (1982) has noted that a main reason as to why most entrepreneurs engage in their own companies is the opportunity that allows them to keep their own earnings. Therefore, this profit motive, although observed mainly in the western parts of the world, does not appear to be an exception even in the context of Singapore. However, Lee and Low (1990) pointed out that, in Singapore, the amount of profits and rewards borne by the entrepreneurs must be high enough to compensate for the good salaries, attractive perks and career opportunities that could have been earned in working for MNCs. Since local non-entrepreneurs are so highly risk-averse, policy-makers should understand that a major influence on decisions to initiate business ventures is that of encouragement and support. According to Liles (1974), these supports can come from potential suppliers, lawyers, banks, and other entrepreneurs and government officials. To add weight to Lile's observation, it is also worthy to take note of Cooper's (1970) definition of a "conducive entrepreneurial environment". He defined such an environment as "a situation in which prospective founders of new firms have a high

awareness of past entrepreneurial actions, of sources of venture capital and of individuals and institutions that might provide help and services”.

In this research, evidences were also found to indicate that the two groups showed differences in their responses to the questions of what entrepreneurs do and contribute to the society. For instance, entrepreneurs agreed more than non-entrepreneurs that “an entrepreneur is able to identify resources” (UA 16) and improve the efficiency of producing existing products (UA 21). These answers indicate a willingness on the part of the entrepreneurs to take on roles that may lead to deviant or unconventional behaviors, such as developing products that may be different from those that are already in existence. Therefore, in a way, these responses illustrate the willingness of entrepreneurs to take risks and initiate changes in the competitive environment.

With regards to their views of time, the opinions of the two groups also differ. Entrepreneurs were more likely to agree that “time is a limited resource” (UA 13) than were non-entrepreneurs. This result indicates a support for McClelland’s (1961) theory that postulates entrepreneurs as people who equate time with money and perceive it as a highly valuable resource. Table 11 provides a summary of the findings discussed above.

In conclusion, the findings presented in this section provide sufficient evidences to support the notion that Chinese entrepreneurs are less uncertainty avoiding than Chinese non-entrepreneurs in Singapore.

Table 12: Masculinity Dimension

Item No.	Statement	μ_{Ent}^2	μ_{NEnt}^3	p-value
Mas 1	Success means having a lot of money	2.5714	2.9091	0.0050
Mas 2	Work is the means by which you get material things	2.1113	2.4035	0.0144
Mas 4	Work is the way you develop social status.	2.1429	2.4737	0.0056
Mas 6	I work for interest more than wages*.	2.6190	3.1579	0.0009
Mas 9	Interesting and challenging work is more important than high earnings	2.3651	2.5614	0.0772

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

Comparisons Along the Masculinity Dimension

Along the masculinity dimension, 5 significant differences were found between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs. The results of the comparison are presented in the Table 12 above.

Table 13: Summary of Findings for Masculinity Dimension

	Agreed More
Entrepreneurs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Success means having a lot of money. • Work is the means by which you get material things. • Work is the way you develop social status. • I work for interest more than wages. • Interesting and challenging work is more important than high earnings*

*Entrepreneurs agreed with this statement while non-entrepreneur while non-entrepreneurs disagreed with it.

The findings indicated that entrepreneurs were more oriented towards money and things. They agreed far more than non-entrepreneurs that being successful is associated with making a lot of money (Mas 1). They also perceived work as a means to get material things (Mas 2); and develop one's social status (Mas 4). It is, therefore, evident from here that some of the important goals as perceived by entrepreneurs are high earnings, recognition and social mobility. These goals seemed to suggest that a major motive for them to engage in entrepreneurial activities is to further increase their wealth and economic status (Burch, 1986). So far, the above characteristics exhibited by these entrepreneurs appeared to be related to Hofstede's (1980) cultural values that fall into the high end to the masculinity continuum.

In this study, findings also indicate that entrepreneurs were the more likely group to carry with them an attitude towards life that says: "living to work" rather than "working to live". In other words, entrepreneurs were found to be individuals who are highly involved in their jobs; and who consider work to be a central activity in their lives. Unlike their counterparts, non-entrepreneurs indicated a tendency to adopt a more practical attitude towards life that says: "working to live" instead of "living to work". This implies that, in life, non-entrepreneurs appeared to be more concerned about surviving than in seeking jobs that would allow them the opportunity to satisfy some intrinsic motive such as self-actualisation. Therefore, in order to persuade these individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activities, effective arguments would, probably, be those that emphasised wealth creation and upward

mobility rather than those that present entrepreneurship as an exciting and self-fulfilling activity.

Although entrepreneurs acknowledged high earnings as one their priorities, they seemed to emphasize more than the non-entrepreneurs that interesting and challenging work was more important to them than receiving high salaries (Mas 9). Unlike non-entrepreneurs, these individuals also indicated that they worked more for interest than wages (Mas 6). Therefore, from these findings, if we were to rank the masculinity goals as perceived by the entrepreneurs, it would probably be as follows: (1) interesting and challenging work, as more important than (2) career advancement and high earnings.

Although the crucial issue for Singapore, at the moment, is to initiate non-entrepreneurs into entrepreneurship, policy-makers must continue to ensure and maintain the interest of the current entrepreneurs in their chosen career path. For instance, efforts to further increase the psychological rewards and image of entrepreneurship should be stepped up. Since there are indications to suggest that entrepreneurs value recognition and rewards highly, one suggestion would be to hold more public recognition-awarding events such as those currently in place: the "Businessman & Enterprise of the Year" award; and the "Small Businessman of the Year" award. Trade associations or professional bodies can also substantiate these recognition efforts with rewards of their own to commemorate the attainment of certain professional standards (Lim, 1993).

Based on the above findings, this section closes with the conclusion that sufficient evidences have been gathered to support the hypothesis, in Singapore, Chinese entrepreneurs are more masculine-oriented than Chinese non-entrepreneurs.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has found that entrepreneurs revealed a higher inclination to uphold the values of the family; and were more concerned about fulfilling their personal goals than those of the larger community. Many of them also associated success with being able to strike out on their own and set-up their own companies. The entrepreneurs are more individualistic than the non-entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurs are found to be more power-distant than non-entrepreneurs. Unlike non-entrepreneurs, entrepreneurs appeared to have an extremely high superiority complex. This attitude is accompanied by the perception that "as the very best", they are entitled to exercise levels of authority and power, not delegated to less capable people other than themselves. As such, entrepreneurs have no qualms about behaving like an "authoritarian manager". They believed that nothing,

including social status, is fixed. They tend to perceive entrepreneurship as an alternative means that can allow them to enhance their social or economic status.

The research findings suggested that non-entrepreneurs were significantly more risk averse than entrepreneurs. Most of their fears conformed to the four types of risk suggested by Liles (1974): financial risk, career risk, family and psychic risk. Entrepreneurs, on the other hand, were more prepared to take substantial risk for substantial returns. They were less resistant to changes and are less uncertainty avoiding than non-entrepreneurs, believing that changes would allow them to move on to better future.

The research findings also suggested that most entrepreneurs started their own business ventures for the main purpose of upgrading their social status and increasing their wealth. They appeared to be more oriented towards money and things than were non-entrepreneurs. Compared to their counterparts, entrepreneurs also indicated a higher need for career advancement and recognition.

Thus far, this study has discussed how individual's psychology, attitudes, values and beliefs relate to people's willingness to participate in the nation's economic development plans. In recent times, advice from psychologists, sociologists and economists have increasingly stressed the importance of paying attention to the values, motives and attitudes of people in a culture, when attempting to implement public policies that would speed up or slow down the process of economic development. It is believed that, in the long run, these cultural factors will ultimately determine the success of the economic development.

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