

Analysis of Entrepreneurship: How does Culture Influence Risk-Taking in SMEs in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, Ghana?

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Abstract

This paper empirically examines the influence of culture on risk-taking, which is a key dimension of entrepreneurial orientation. Data from 354 self-administered questionnaires were utilized. Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions were adopted in stating the four hypotheses developed for this study. The data were analysed using descriptive statistic, Person's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis. The findings of this study indicate that power distant and masculinity had a significant positive relationship with risk taking. But, uncertainty avoidance and individualism recorded a non-significant positive relationship with risk taking. Hence, this study recommended that SMEs owner/manager must encourage inputs and suggestions from their employees and also seek for business advice from appropriate individuals and institutions instead of relying solely on their judgment.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, risk taking, culture and small and medium enterprises (SMEs).

1. Introduction

The development of small and medium enterprises is acknowledged as a key condition in promoting equitable and sustainable economic development in Africa. Aryeetey and Ahene (2005) described small businesses as the seedbed for indigenous entrepreneurship and generate all the many little investments, which would otherwise not have occurred. Considerable research is replete with the linkages between culture and entrepreneurship. (Hofstede 1984; Shane 1993, Davidson 1995; Lumpkin & Dess 1996; Davidson & Wiklund 1997; Van Praag 1999; Hayton, George & Zahra, 2002). Culture may be defined as a set of shared values, beliefs and norms of a group or community. Cultural differences are due to variations in national, regional, ethnic, social class, religious, gender and language.

The term "entrepreneurship" has resisted precise definition for over 200 years. The traditional emphasis was on the efforts of an individual who goes against the odds in translating a business vision into a successful business enterprise. In their study, Kuratko and Hodgetts (2004) defined entrepreneurship as an integrated concept that permeates an individual's business in an innovative manner. Entrepreneurs are individuals who recognize opportunities, being aggressive change catalysts within the marketplace. Miller (1983) appears to offer the earliest operationalisation of the entrepreneurial orientation concept. Miller used the dimensions of innovation, proactiveness, and risk-taking to measure entrepreneurial orientation. These three dimensions have been adopted by most previous studies (Covin & Slevin, 1986; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Kreiser, Marino & Weaver, 2002). However, Dess and Lumpkin (1996) propounded autonomy and competitive aggressiveness as two additions to the three entrepreneurial constructs originally theorised by Miller (1983).

Culture is important in any dimension of entrepreneurship as it determines the attitudes of individuals towards the initiation of entrepreneurship (Wortzel & Wortzel, 1997). Numerous empirical studies are inundated with culture and entrepreneurship relationship. For example, Scheinberg and Macmillan (1988) found significant differences across cultures in motivations to launch a new business. Hofstede (1991) shows how national culture affects workplace values across a range of countries. However, Hofstede study ignores the existence of different cultural groups within a country. Davidson and Delmar (1992) noted that most studies have concentrated on entrepreneurs and ignored the general population from which these entrepreneurs emerged. Lastly, Dana (1995) concluded that the perception of opportunity is a function of culture.

It is obvious extant research on culture and its consequences on entrepreneurship are mainly carried out in the western countries. So far, little is known of any similar studies in Africa, particularly in Ghana. The gap between the cultural orientation of the developed countries and Africa is exceedingly wide and this makes the relevance of such results not applicable in the African perspective. This realisation necessitated this study to empirically analyse the influence of culture on risk-taking, which is a key dimension of entrepreneurial orientation, with reference to small and medium enterprises in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis of Ghana. The paper proceeds as follows. First, the literature review will cover the nature of SMEs in Ghana, followed by a discussion on entrepreneurship with risk-taking as the focus and the dimensions of culture. Hypotheses will then be developed to establish the relationship between the various dimension of culture and risk-taking. Next, the methodology is outlined, followed by the findings and discussions. Suggestions for future research conclude the paper.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Nature of SMEs in Ghana

In Ghana, small and medium enterprises (hereafter SMEs) have been variously defined, but the most commonly used criterion is number of employees. This definition creates confusion about the cut-off points used by the various official sources (Osei, Baah-Nuakoh & Sowa, 1993). The Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) in its industrial statistics considers firms with less than 10 employees as small scale enterprises whilst those with more than 10 employees as medium and large-sized enterprises (Kayanula & Quartey, 2000). However, the National Board of Small Scale Industries (thereafter NBSSI) in Ghana applies both the fixed asset and number of employees' criteria. NBSSI defines a Small Scale Enterprise as one with not more than 9 workers, has plant and machinery (excluding land, buildings and vehicles) not exceeding 1000 Ghana Cedis (US\$ 667, using 2011 exchange rate). Osei et al (1993), on the other hand, divided small-scale enterprises into 3 categories (i) micro – employing, less than 6 people; (ii) very small – employing 6 to 9 people; and (iii) small with 10 to 29 employees.

According to Boeh-Ocansey (1996) and Boohene, Sheridan and Kotey (2008), SMEs in Ghana are dispersed across urban centers and rural areas, though the greater part is concentrated around a few principal cities and towns. The urban-based small businesses have developed more speedily than the rural based businesses because of the presence of wage earning labor force within the confines of their locality. Urban businesses are grouped into organised and unorganised sectors. The organised businesses normally have paid employees with registered offices, while the unorganised businesses are mainly made up of employees who work in open spaces, at home or in impermanent wooden structures, and employ little or in some cases no salaried workers. They mostly rely on family members or apprentices. Furthermore, the rural businesses are largely made up of family groups, individual artisans and women engaged in food production from local crops (Kayanula & Quartey, 2000).

Quartey (2003) posits majority of the SMEs in Ghana are owned by Ghanaians with just a few owned by foreigners. Furthermore, most SMEs operate as sole proprietorships with few running as partnership and joint ventures (Osei, Baah-Nuakoh, Tutu & Sowa, 1993; Quartey, 2003; Boohene, Sheridan & Kotey, 2008). Owner managers of these SMES are either the founder or inherited the business from a family member. But, in rare cases, the business is purchased or formed out of a merger (Quartey, 2003). The capital size of these businesses is insufficient and mostly sourced from the personal savings, relatives and friends. Few of these businesses are obtain financial assistance from commercial banks, government or other informal sources (Osei et al, 1993 & Bani, 2003). Small and medium enterprise sector is pivotal to the development of Ghana. This sector is considered a more reliable vehicle for balanced, equitable and harmonious socio-economic development, and responsible for providing employment to about 65%. (Aryeetey & Fosu, 2005). Additionally, this sector is recognised by Abor and Quartey (2010) as providing about 85% of employment in the manufacturing sector and contributes about 75% and 92% to Ghana's GDP and businesses respectively.

Like many other developed and developing countries, Ghana has recognised the importance of SMEs for economic development and poverty alleviation. This has culminated in the creation of private sector development schemes alongside the already existing Ghana Investments Promotion Centre and the National Board for Small Scale Industries. The main purpose of these public agencies and schemes is to develop an enhanced environment for the utmost functioning of private enterprises, most of which are SMEs. In addition, there are a number of bodies like that the Association of Ghanaian Industries and Federation of Associations of Ghanaian Exporters and the Private Enterprise Foundation which strive to improve the business climate for SMEs to succeed.

SMEs in Ghana, however, are not devoid of obstacles. Among these obstacles are; access to raw materials and market (Meads & Liedholms, 1998), inappropriate technology, access to finance (Arthur, 2003) and unfair competition (Murphy, 2007). According to Olomi (2001), most SMEs in Africa remain at the micro level and are not able to expand further. This phenomenon in Africa has been referred to as the “missing middle”. As a consequence, more research, particularly into the growth of SMEs in African countries is required in order to understand the factors that contribute to the growth of SMEs.

2.2. Entrepreneurship

The concept of entrepreneurship originated from Cantillon (1755), who talks about risk propensity and tolerance for ambiguity as a dimension of entrepreneurship (Thomas and Mueller, 2000). According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), the entrepreneurial function implies the discovery, assessment and exploitation of opportunities, in other words, new products, services or production processes; new strategies and organizational forms and new markets for products and inputs that did not previously exist. Along this line, Reynolds (2005), posits that the entrepreneurial function can be conceptualized as the discovery of opportunities and the subsequent creation of new economic activity, often via the creation of a new organization. Entrepreneurship is often regarded as entrepreneurial behaviour and seen as behaviour that manages to combine innovation, risk-taking and proactiveness (Miller, 1983). It has in recent times been claimed that if the managers and businessmen of many of our firms were to adopt entrepreneurial behaviour when developing their strategies, firms would be facing a much brighter future than current perceptions suggest (Lee and Peterson, 2000).

Entrepreneurial orientation is a generally used measure in entrepreneurship literature. Entrepreneurial orientation is the existence of organizational-level entrepreneurship (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2005). The Entrepreneurial orientation questionnaire developed by Covin and Slevin (1989) is the most extensively utilized instrument for measuring this orientation. It was based on the former study of Khandwalla (1976/1977) and Miller and Friesen (1982). Several researchers have agreed that entrepreneurial orientation could be explained by innovation, proactiveness, and risk taking (Wiklund, 1999). However, Dess and Lumpkin (1996) added autonomy and competitive aggressiveness as two extra dimensions. Covin and Slevin (1989) posited these dimensions could be aggregated into one construct in assessing the overall level of a firm’s entrepreneurial orientation (EO). However, other research indicates that the dimensions of EO may be able to vary independently of one another (Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Kreiser, Marino, & Weaver, 2001).

2.3. Risk-taking

The concept of risk taking is a quality that is repeatedly used to describe entrepreneurship. Cantillon (1755) argued that the principal factor that separated entrepreneurs from hired employees was the uncertainty and riskiness of self-employment. Along this line, Brockhaus (1982), argued that entrepreneurship centered on the willingness of entrepreneurs to engage in calculated business-related risks. While there is an argument for a possible strong association of risk taking with other intrapreneurship dimensions, risk-taking has been considered in past research as a distinctive characteristic or dimension of entrepreneurship within existing firms (Covin & Slevin, 1989; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996). To encourage employees to create novel combinations, risk-taking is most useful if it is woven into the fabric of an organization. And Nystrom (1990) opined organisations are likely to be innovative when risk-taking is promoted in an organization.

2.4. Culture

Culture, as distinct from political, social, technological or economic contexts has relevance for economic behaviour and entrepreneurship (Shapiro & Sokol, 1982; Shane, 1993). Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another and their respective responses to their environments. Accordingly, Tayeb (1988) intimated that culture is a set of historically evolved learned values and meanings shared by the members of a given community that influence the material and non-material way of life. Members of the community learn these shared characteristics through different stages of socialization processes of their lives in institutions such as family, religion, formal education, and the society as a whole. In recent times, the term entrepreneurial culture is an expression of an attitude towards commerce at a business level. It is widely recognised as a management principle in which a positive social attitude towards personal enterprise is prevailing, enabling and at the bottom of entrepreneurial activity. In addition, Bateman (1997) indicates those economies and regions which have succeeded in the late 20th Century, have in universal, a business culture broadly portrayed as entrepreneurial. This study employs the four dimensions of culture identified by Hofstede (1985) to indicate their influence on risk-taking by SMEs.

These dimensions are: uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity and power distance. The ensuing paragraphs will discuss each of these dimensions in detail.

Uncertainty avoidance specifies the preference for certainty and uneasiness with unstructured or ambiguous situations. Furthermore, it explains a society's lack of tolerance for uncertain, unknown, or unstructured situations. Hofstede (2001) defines uncertainty avoidance as feeling uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, and therefore valuing beliefs and institutions that provide certainty and conformity. Hofstede intimated that cultures vary in their level of acceptance for uncertainty and concluded that schemes for embracing ambiguity are at least, partly influenced by cultural programming. Societies attempt to control uncertainty through structures systems in the form of rules, technologies, laws and rituals. The essence of this practice is to standardize the behaviour and attitude of members of a particular community or society. Cultures that promote uncertainty avoidance favour orderliness in their organizations, institutions and personal relations, and will always prefer well-anticipated events. Mihet (2013) concluded that emerging economies tend to be more uncertainty-averse than developed economies.

Individualism stands for society in which the ties between individuals are loose. Individualistic cultures lay emphases on self-centeredness and mostly focus on individual goals. Accordingly, Hofstede (2001) defined individualism as the relationship between the individual and the collectivity which prevails in a given society. Hofstede argued that entrepreneurs would prefer competition over cooperation, and to believe in non-interventionist governments. They would also be expected to believe that planning is more important than luck in success, and to have less concern about failure than non-entrepreneurs.

Masculinity according to Hofstede (2001), measure evaluates the general inclination to act either aggressively (masculine) or in a nurturing manner (feminine). Masculinity does not determine specific distinctions between male and female, but, behaviours that have been stereotypically linked to males and females. Individuals in highly masculine societies are assertive and behave in an ostentatious manner. In addition, they set high performance standards and act vigorously to achieve these standards. Conversely, in cultures with a low masculinity, emphases are on social relationships, cordial organizational climates and job security. Individuals in such cultures are reluctant to set goals, in fact; their achievement motivation is comparatively frail.

Power distance defines the acceptance of disparity in position and authority between people in an organisation or society. Power distance is a measure of the interpersonal power or influence between superiors and their subordinate (Hofstede 2001). According to Hofstede, it explains how a superior in a social ladder can influence the behavior of a subordinate compared to the extent that the subordinate can also influence the behavior of the superior. In the view of Kreiser et al (2001), highly power distance cultures exhibit an unequal distribution of power, strong hierarchies and also, control mechanisms are present. They indicated further that, there is minimal communication among organizational levels and emphasis is placed on subordinates being respectful and compliant to those in positions of power.

2.5. The Relationship between Culture and Risk-taking

Culture is important in any dimension of entrepreneurship as it determines the attitudes of individuals towards the initiation of entrepreneurship (Vernon-Wortzel & Wortzel, 1997). Again, Redding (1993) noted that culture may be a major influence on entrepreneurial attitudes and behavior. Brockhaus (1982) argue early definitions of entrepreneurship centered on the willingness of entrepreneurs to engage in calculated business-related risks. Thus, the concept of risk taking is a quality that is frequently used to describe entrepreneurship. Dess and Lumpkin (1996) stated that organisations that have an entrepreneurial orientation are normally characterised by a risk taking behaviour, assuming greater financial commitments looking forward to obtaining high results through market opportunities grasp. In contrast, a risk-averse management reduces a firm's commitment to cutting-edge products and technologies, thereby decreasing the firm's level of innovation (Gilley, Walters & Olson, 2002).

Certain ethnic groups may have a greater predisposition to entrepreneurial than other groups. In line with this argument, Johansson (1987) intimated societal culture that contains pro-entrepreneurial values will serve as an incubator in the entrepreneurship process. But, in societies where entrepreneurship has become ruined with charges of profiteering and criminality, entrepreneurship has not been well expected. This lack of enthusiasm may be an unavoidable stage of transitional development but, may also foster strong and durable anti-entrepreneurial values (Bateman, 1997). According to Bateman (1997), those economies and regions which have flourished in the late 20th Century, have in common a business culture, which can be broadly described as entrepreneurial.

A research by Begley and Boyd (1987) revealed that risk-taking had a curvilinear relationship with performance in entrepreneurial firms. Majority of researcher using Hofstede's (1980) concept of culture, have in general hypothesized that culture has a profound influence on entrepreneurship and further indicated that entrepreneurship is highly recognised in societies that are high in individualism, low in uncertainty avoidance, low in power-distance and high in masculinity (Hayton et al., 2002). The conceptual of this study is illustrated in Figure one. Figure one shows the independent influence of the cultural dimensions on risk-taking. From the foregoing discussions, this study posited the following statements for testing;

H₁: SMEs risk-taking is negatively associated with the level of uncertainty avoidance in a culture.

H₂: SMEs risk-taking is negatively associated with the level of power distance in a culture.

H₃: SMEs risk-taking is positively associated with the level of masculinity in a culture.

H₄: SMEs risk-taking is positively associated with the level of individualism in a culture.

3. Methodology

3.1. Population

The study was conducted in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, the capital town of the Western Region, Ghana. The metropolis covers a land area of 49km². The Metropolis is estimated to inhabit 412,556 people. It is the third largest metropolis in Ghana and identified as a commercial and industrial hub. The major industries are timber, fishing, shipbuilding and an emerging oil and gas sector (<http://stma.ghanadistricts.gov.gh>). The metropolis has in recent times witnessed the influx of investments and infrastructural development owing to the oil discovery. Additionally, small-to-medium scale business enterprises are spring-up while; exiting ones are experiencing rapid growth. The foregoing happenings in the Metropolis necessitated its choice for this study. The information received from the Business Advisory Centre, an outfit of the National Board for small Scale Industries, Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis, was that the number of registered SMEs in the Metropolis was 6213.

3.2. Sample

This study will use SMEs that meet the criteria set by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) which considers firms with less than 10 employees as Small Scale Enterprises and their counterparts with more than 10 employees as medium and large-sized. In addition, the firm should have been in business not less than 3 years. The SMEs were classified into the various business types based on the Ghana Investment Promotion Council's industry classification (Abor, 2007). A sample size of 364 SMEs was drawn out of the SMEs population size of 6213. This sampling size was arrived at based on Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

3.3. Measures

The four cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980); uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity and power distance were used to measure culture. In addition, the items used to measure these dimensions were adopted from Lee and Peterson (2000). On the other hand, risk-taking behaviors were measured using five items based on Covin and Slevin (1989) and review of related literature. Both the cultural dimensions and risk-taking items were measured on a five-point Likert-type rating scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

3.4. Data Analysis

Data was analysed and interpreted by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 17) computer software program. Additionally, descriptive statistic, Person's Product Moment Correlation Coefficients and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis were employed. Prior to applying this analysis, the reliability of the questionnaire was examined using the Cronbach's Alpha. As can be seen in Table 1, the Cronbach's Alpha values for each of the constructs were greater .70. This implies that all the constructs are reliable and can be used in this study as recommended by Fraenkel and Wallen (2000). They asserted that a useful rule of thumb for research studies is that reliability should be at least .70.

3.5. Data collection

A total of 357 questionnaires were retrieved but, three of the questionnaires were excluded because the responses provided were incomplete. Thus, 354 questionnaires were validly used in this study, representing 97.25%.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive analysis

The demographic analysis of the SMEs revealed that 52.5% of them were both owners and managers of their business enterprises. It was almost split between the genders of the respondents in that 52.9% were males' whiles, 47.1% composed of females. Respondent's level of education was represented by .9% in primary, 16.2% junior high school, 38.4% senior high school, 31.7% commercial/vocation training, 9.8% degree and .8% PhD. The age profile was 13.5% between 20 to 29 years old, 48.8% between 30 to 39 years old, 20.3% between 40 to 49 years old, 15.7% between 50 to 59 years old and 1.7% more than 60 years old.

Regarding the business information of the SMEs, 39.2% operated as a sole proprietor, 31.1% partnership and 29.7% as a limited liability company. In terms of employment, 58.5% representing the majority employ 1 to 3 workers, 31.2% employ 4 to 6 people and 10.3% employ 7 to 9 people. A large percentage (73.9%) of the respondents affirmed that they have had working experience before starting their business enterprise. Furthermore, 11.2% of the respondents indicated they had operated a business enterprise before, 28.6% as government employees, 19.3% had worked in the private sector and 14.8% had worked in a family business enterprise.

4.2. Correlations Analysis

Correlations analysis was carried out to find out whether the dimensions of culture and risk taking are correlated. Results from Table 2 show that all constructs are correlated at 1% and 5% significance level and also, none of the p-values was above 0.90. This implies that this study was devoid of serious collinearity problem as posited by Hair, Black, Anderson and Tatham (2006). They intimated that the correlation coefficient between each pair of independent constructs in the Pearson's correlation should not exceed 0.90 in order to avoid serious collinearity.

4.3. Hypotheses testing

Four hypotheses were used this study. The first and second hypotheses theorised that risk taking is negatively associated with uncertainty avoidance and power distant respectively. Whiles, the other two hypotheses indicated that risk taking is positively associated masculinity and individualism. The results from the multiple regression analysis as depicted in Table 3, show that uncertainty avoidance had no significant negative relationship with risk taking (p-value: .705). However, power distant has a significant positive association with risk taking (p: .000). Masculinity also recorded a significant positive relationship with risk taking (p-value .000). But, individualism had a non-significant positive relationship with risk taking (p-value .147).

5. Discussion and Implications

The first hypothesis formulated that risk taking is negatively associated with uncertainty avoidance. However, this study recorded a less significant positive relationship between uncertainty avoidance and risk taking. This outcome is surprising because previous empirical findings are extant with the conclusion that risk taking is most practiced in business environments where inclination for uncertainty avoidance is discouraged. In fact, Hofstede (1980) argued that managers in societies or businesses that embrace uncertainty acceptance then to score extremely high on McClelland's (1960) need for achievement. This result implies that SMEs owner/ managers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis occasionally make bold decisions in situations they perceive the outcome as unclear.

Hypothesis two postulated that risk taking had a negative association with the level of power distance. But, the findings showed a significantly positive relationship. This outcome disagrees sharply with earlier research works that stated commonly that business enterprises in cultures with high power distant are predisposed to instituting hierarchical and bureaucratic structures. Thus, business enterprises that practice high power distant inhibit managers from the freedom and autonomy to make bold decisions. This outcome brings to light the hierarchical manner in which SMEs in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis operate their businesses. This also confirms previous research study by Kayanula and Quartey (2000), they asserted that SMEs in Ghana are mostly managed by a sole person with little or no freedom for employees to act unilaterally the results from hypothesis three indicated a significantly positive relationship between risk taking and masculinity. This result collaborates other previous research studies particularly Hofstedes (1980).

Hofstedes (1980) claimed that managers in masculine cultures demonstrate high on McClelland's (1960) need for achievement and are more willing to take business-related risky decisions than other managers.

Thus, owner/managers of SMEs in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis are assertive and willing to take bold decisions in the face of uncertainty.

The fourth hypothesis recorded non-significant positive relationship between risk taking and individualism. But, research is replete with the affirmation that managers in individualistic countries are more autonomous and engaged in making risky decisions than their counterparts in collectivist cultures. Morris, Davis and Allen (1994) posited that the relationship between entrepreneurship and individualism is curvilinear and concluded that extreme levels of either individualism or collectivism weaken entrepreneurial behavior. This result implies that inasmuch as owner/managers in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis take bold decisions, they carefully think through situations before arriving at decision and also seek for business advice from other people.

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

This study sought to examine the influence of culture on risk taking which is a key dimension of entrepreneurship. The findings indicated that power distant and masculinity had a significant positive relationship with risk taking. But, uncertainty avoidance and individualism recorded a non-significant positive relationship with risk taking. Based on this outcome, hypotheses two and three were accepted whilst; hypotheses one and four were not accepted. It could be inferred from this outcome that SMEs in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis operate their business enterprises in hierarchical manner with owner/manager dictating the pace of the business. Also, the SMEs owner/manager thinks through issues carefully before making bold decisions when confronted with uncertainty in the business environment and occasionally they seek for business advice from people. Thus, this study recommended that SMEs owner/manager must relax their business structures to allow for inputs and suggestions from their employees. In addition, they must not rely solely on their judgment in making business decisions but, seek for business advice from appropriate individuals and institutions.

7. Suggestion for future Research

Future research can expand the scope of this study to include the effect of moderating variables such as industry type, capital and firm size. Also, Ghana is a multi-cultural country and a comparative study on this research topic can be carried out in the other regions of Ghana.

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Figure 1: The Influence of Culture on Risk-taking.

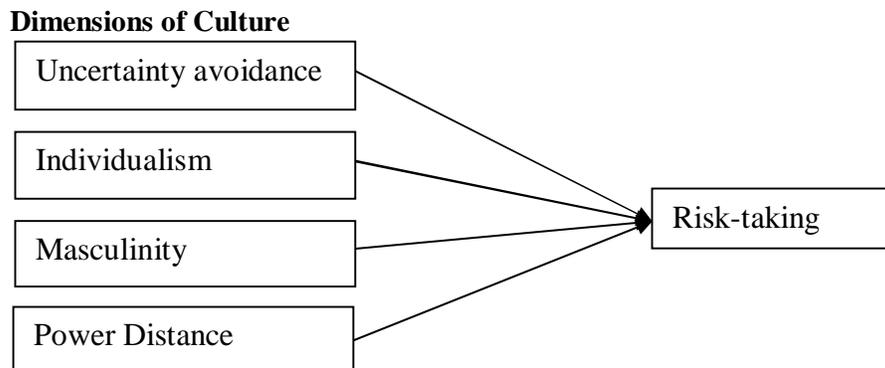


Table 1: Reliability Test

Construct	Cronbach’s Alpha	Number of items
Uncertainty Avoidance	.748	11
individualism	.813	6
Masculinity	.882	5
Power distance	.818	8
Risk taking	.768	5

Table 2: Results of correlation analysis

		UA	I	M	PD	RT
Pearson Correlation	UA	1.000	-.036	.027	.047	.079
	I	-.036	1.000	.116	.023	-.065
	M	.265	.116	1.000	.195	.262
	PD	.047	-.023	.195	1.000	.343
	RT	.079	-.065	.262	.343	1.00
Sig (2-tailed)	UA		.500	.000	.343	.142
	I	.500		.031	.663	.225
	M	.000	.031		.000	.000
	PD	.383	.663	.000		.000
	RT	.142	.225	.000	.000	
N	UA	354	354	354	354	354
	I	354	354	354	354	354
	M	354	354	354	354	354
	PD	354	354	354	354	354
	RT	354	354	354	354	354

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3: Results of Multiple Regressions

ANOVA^b						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	53.359	4	13.340	17.335	.000 ^a
	Residual	260.102	338	.770		
	Total	313.461	342			
a. Predictors: (Constant), power, individualism, uncertainty, masculinity						
b. Dependent Variable: risk						

Coefficients^a						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	.184	.496		.372	.710
	uncertainty	.036	.095	.019	.379	.705
	individualism	.090	.062	.073	1.454	.147
	masculinity	.276	.066	.220	4.179	.000
	power	.599	.101	.301	5.957	.000
a. Dependent Variable: risk						