Entrepreneurship in Southern Brazil: similarities and differences versus Germany, Italy and Portugal

Abstract: This article aims to identify if there are similarities or differences in entrepreneurship for German, Italian and Portuguese descendants leaving in southern Brazil, based mainly on the Nationality principle of Hofstede (1997). Education and entrepreneurial motivation are also analyzed in order to understand these aspects. The methodology used was the GEM – Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. This study has a quantitative approach and a descriptive method. First, we carried out a socio-bibliometric study and applied the techniques of network analysis to identify the theoretical background to the research. We then used the descriptive method to describe and compare the results of the GEM reports 2013. Our finds demonstrate the impact of nationality and Hofstede’s cultural dimensions in the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in the southern region of Brazil. Finally, the outcomes here presented may contribute to further work in this research stream, in such a way that it may help to support Hofstede’s studies of nationality and to analyze the differences between different regions in the same countries, due to different countries of settlement. It also contributes with the research of entrepreneurship in Brazil. It is worthwhile to continue working on this research stream.

Keywords: Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Germany. Italy. Southern Brazil.

1 Introduction

The South is the Brazilian region that was most influenced by the colonization of Europeans such as the Germans, Italians and Portuguese. The three states that make up this region are Santa Catarina, Paraná and Rio Grande do Sul (Guide to Brazil, 2015). The Portuguese colonization in Southern Region of Brazil started from the moment that the King of Portugal encouraged the immigration of settlers from the Azores Islands to this region. The arrival of Azorean couples in 1747 deeply marked the formation of the particular culture of Rio Grande do Sul. In the eighteenth century, Portuguese were more than half of the population of this State (Hoeltgebaum, Bronnemann, & Carraro, 2005). With the signing of the Treaty of Madrid, Portugal becomes sovereign over the whole Brazilian south coast (Paulilo, 1998, p. 60).

The first Germans came to Brazil soon after independence from Portugal in 1822. The Brazilian government had promised the immigrants large tracts of land where they could settle with their families and colonize the region. Over the next five decades, more than 28,000 Germans were brought to Rio Grande do Sul to work as small farmers in the countryside. By 1914, it is estimated that 50,000 Germans had settled in this state (Pollini, 2005). In Santa Catarina, most German immigrants were not brought by the Brazilian government but by private groups that promoted the immigration of Europeans to the
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Americas, such as the Hamburg Colonization Society (Pollini, 2005). These groups created rural communities or colonies for immigrants, many of which developed into large cities, such as Blumenau and Joinville, the largest city in Santa Catarina. Considerable numbers of immigrants from Germany arrived at Paraná during the 1870s, most of them coming from Santa Catarina or Volga Germans: Germans that were recruited as immigrants to Russia in the 18th century, but kept their culture, language, traditions, and churches (Pollini, 2005).

Italian immigrants started arriving in Brazil in 1875 (Paulilo, 1998, p. 85). They were mostly peasants from Veneto in Northern Italy (but also from Trentino and Lombardia) attracted to Southern Brazil to get their own lands and populate the South. Most of the immigrants worked as small farmers, mainly cultivating grapes in the Serra Gaúcha.

Italian immigration to the region lasted until 1914, with a total of 100,000 Italians settling in Rio Grande do Sul in this period and many others in Santa Catarina and Paraná. Pollini (2005), points out that the German settlers who arrived first, usually set up in the most fertile land of the plain, along the course of the main rivers and generally in areas relatively easily accessible. According to Pollini (2005), the Italian settlers had to be satisfied with the remaining land where, despite the large expanse of the lot, do not revealed adequate to meet the family needs, due to the marked ground and difficulty to locate. In 1898, there were 300,000 people of Italian origin in Rio Grande do Sul, 50,000 in Santa Catarina and 30,000 in Paraná. Nowadays, their Southern Brazilian descendants number 9.7 million and comprise 35.9% of Southern Brazil's population (Pollini, 2005).

The southern region has the best HDI indicators in Brazil, considering the history of the municipalities in three important dimensions of human development: longevity, education and income (PNUD, 2010). This may be explained by a variety of factors. First, those communities may have benefited from an initial heads-up from the government subsidies. Second, the immigrants may have brought with them a tradition of education that was unprecedented to nineteenth century in Brazil. Third, the egalitarian land distribution of the official colonies differed from the landholding patterns of other regions of Brazil and the state (de Carvalho Filho & Monasterio, 2012).

In this paper, we seek to understand whether there are inherent similarities or differences in entrepreneurship in southern region from Brazil, which was colonized mostly by Germans, Italians and Portuguese citizens. In order to do that we will use the data collected by the GEM – Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, that was the first global research project of investigation that adds annual evaluation of entrepreneurship economic activity in several countries and has had the aim to collect quantitative data regarding the entrepreneurship phenomenon in a comparative perspective (Reynolds et al, 2005). GEM was launched as a joint initiative between London Business School (UK) and Babson College, Wellesley (USA). The project started in 1999 just with 10 countries, but in 2006 it already counted with 39 countries and in 2010, 59. Considering entrepreneurship as a holistic process, GEM was based on a model that includes a set of measures that aim to describe several aspects of entrepreneurship on a country basis, namely, about questions of entrepreneurship and gender (GEM, 2010). To answer the main question of this article, first we tried to answer with the theory, through a socio-bibliometric study. We searched on Scopus n in July, 21st, 2015 for articles from the last 35 years. As our question of research is “Are there similarities or differences in entrepreneurship for the German, Italian and Portuguese descendants leaving...
In southern Brazil?”, we used a combination of the following search terms in the article title: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneur, Differences, Similarities, Origin, Socio-cultural, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Brazil, Southern Brazil, Paraná, Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul, Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, GEM, Education, Necessity and Opportunity. Through this procedure, we obtained a dataset with 968 entries.

Since 1998, when GEM was launched, studies related to the phenomenon of entrepreneurship focused on countries became more common due to the ease of comparison using GEM indicators as showed, for example, for Brazil, Germany, Italy and Portugal. A growing trend in studies also can be identified in socio-cultural issues related to entrepreneurship. For this reason, we choose to focus the present research in socio-cultural aspects, education in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial motivations, which includes de opportunity/necessity motivations to start a new business.

After finding information in the theory, but not the exhaustive, we decided to scrutinize GEM data, where we compared the results from GEM 2013 for Germany, Italy, Portugal with the main indicators for south of Brazil.

Despite the positive trend in research on entrepreneurship by country, we found only a few studies related to entrepreneurship in Brazil and its regions. It was also not possible to find studies relating colonized countries versus their colonizers. Finally, our search on Scopus did not return results for entrepreneurship in Paraná and Santa Catarina, and only one result to Rio Grande do Sul. It shows that there is a gap in studies of entrepreneurship for these states of the southern region of Brazil. This paper aims to fill some of these gaps and show the opportunity to explore this field of study, especially with the availability of regional GEM reports, as is the case of Brazil, since 2012. However, there are still some limitations related to the comparison between countries and regions by year, because some countries may attend the research in one year and not it the other.

The next section presents the literature review for this study. Section 3 shows the socio-bibliometric and the GEM methods. Section 4 presents and discusses the results of the analysis. Section 5 concludes. Finally, Section 6 presents the implications e suggestions for future research.

2 Literature review

The socio-bibliometric study tried to find an answer for our research question through the search of the main authors and theories regarding the GEM and its indicators.

The literature review tried to explain with the theory how aspects like socio-cultural issues, education and motivation influence the results of our research.

2.1 Socio-cultural issues

Geert Hofstede, a Dutch sociologist in 1980, first introduces the concept of cultural dimensions. In his cultural dimensions concept, Hofstede said that the cultural value is important in national culture of a country and reflects the businesses within that country is operated and organized (Rahman, 2008). People from different nationalities can be shown to think differently about entrepreneurship. According to Hofstede (1997), nationality is
important for at least three reasons. The first is political. Nations are political units, rooted in
history, with their own institutions: forms of government, legal systems, educational systems
and labor and employers’ association systems, that differs each other. The second reason is
sociological. The symbolic value of belonging to a nation or region has been part of the
question “Who am I?”, and still has a sense of common identity. The third one is
psychological. Our thinking is partly conditioned by national culture. This is an effect of early
life experiences in the family and later educational experiences in schools and organizations,
which are not the same across national borders. Beyond nationality, there are other socio-
cultural differences between people within nations, such as those based on region, social
class, occupation, religion, age, sex, or even family.

The terminology proposed by Hofstede (1997) consists of four different dimensions of
national culture: individualism versus collectivism, large versus small power distance, strong
versus weak uncertainty avoidance and masculinity versus femininity.

In the first dimension, individualism versus collectivism, the fundamental issue
involved is the relationship between an individual and his or her colleagues. In an
individualistic society, everybody is supposed to look after his/her own self-interest and
maybe the interest of his/her immediate family. In collective societies, people are born into
collectivities or in-groups, which may be their extended family (including grandparents,
uncles, aunts, etc.), their tribe or their village. Everybody is supposed to look after the interest
of his/her in-group and to have no other opinions and beliefs than those of the in-group. In
exchange, the in-group protects them when they are in trouble.

The second dimension, power distance, reflects how society deals with inequality.
People are unequal in physical and intellectual capacities, and some societies let such
inequalities grow over time into inequalities in power and wealth. The latter may become
hereditary and no longer related to physical and intellectual capacities at all. In organizations,
the level of power distance is related to the degree of centralization of authority and the
degree of autocratic leadership. Features such as centralization and autocratic leadership are
rooted in the mental programming of the members of a society, not only of those in power but
also of those at the bottom end of the power hierarchy.

Uncertainty avoidance, concerns how society deals with the fact that time only runs one
way; that is, we are all caught in the reality of past, present and future and we have to live
with uncertainty because the future is unknown and will always be so. It is related with the
perception towards fear of failure. Societies where there is a high level of shame in failing,
individuals are affected in a negative manner in their wishes to create a company, and this
would be mainly because of a high perception of social penalization when no entrepreneurial
success is achieved (Mancilla & Amorós, 2015).

In masculinity versus femininity, the fundamental issue is the division of roles between
the sexes in society. In masculine societies, the traditional masculine social values permeate
the completely society—even the way in which the women think. They include the importance
of showing off, of performing, of achieving something visible, of making money, of believing
that ‘big is beautiful’. In feminine societies, the dominant values—among both the men and the
women—are more those traditionally associated with the feminine role: not showing off,
putting relationships with people before money, caring about the quality of life and the
preservation of the environment, helping others, in particular the weak, and believing that
‘small is beautiful’. In a masculine society, the public hero is the successful achiever, the superman. In a feminine society, the public sympathy goes to the antihero, the underdog, the schlemiel. Individual brilliance in a feminine society is suspect.

Latter other two dimensions were added: Long/Short Term Orientation, and Indulgence/Restraint (Hofstede, 2011). In this study, only the first four dimensions are focused. Table 1 summarizes the results of the research carried out by Hofstede between 1967 and 1978 (Hofstede, 1997).

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individualism versus collectivism</td>
<td>More individualist</td>
<td>More individualist</td>
<td>More collectivist</td>
<td>More collectivist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power distance</td>
<td>Small</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Large</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty avoidance</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity versus femininity</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>Feminine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hofstede (1997) adapted by the authors

Family socialization also helps to develop an entrepreneurial personality of a child. Some factors that may influence this development are high standards of excellence and continued demands by child’s success; a feeling of safety and self-esteem sustained by its parents; a low authoritarianism rate, especially by the father, to allow the maximum possibility of initiative and personal expression (Pollini, 2005). When these factors are present in the family, the main features of entrepreneurial activity often appear: the risk taking capacity, the innovative capacity, the individual responsibility, the knowledge of the achievements and results of decisions, the review/anticipating future possibilities and the organizational ability (Pollini, 2005).

Altinay and Wang (2011) carried out an empirical research to verify the influence of different socio-cultural characteristics (education, experience and religion) on different dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (proactivity, innovativeness and risk taking). The results showed that education has influence in proactivity, innovativeness and risk taking; experience has influence only in proactivity and innovativeness; and religion has no influence in entrepreneurial orientation.

Nationality, influence of family socialization and other socio-cultural characteristics like education, experience and religion, are important to understand if there are similarities between the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in Southern Brazil and its settler’s country of origin.
2.2 Entrepreneurship education

Until recently it was considered sufficient to provide education in entrepreneurship in universities (especially in the area of Business Administration) or in the form of special courses for people who consider starting their own business (Fuchs, Werner & Wallau, 2008). Compulsory education was not thought of as an appropriate platform to convey knowledge about how to start and run a new business. Today, the perspective has shifted. Fuchs, Werner & Wallau (2008) argues that involving compulsory schools into the entrepreneurship education process is seen as an important objective for the following reasons:

(1) The innate entrepreneurial attitude of younger children must be preserved. Younger children tend to display an entrepreneurial attitude in everything they do – they are usually very creative, straightforward and unconcerned with the potential risks inherent in their actions. It is therefore crucial to encourage entrepreneurial behavior as early as possible.

(2) Many “entrepreneurial” skills and qualities are today considered as key competencies every employee should possess. Against this background, general education schools are often criticized for not responding to the changing demands of the economy quickly enough and hence failing to prepare pupils for their professional careers.

(3) Last but not least, whilst it is neither possible nor desirable to convince all pupils to become self-employed, self-employment should be an occupational option for everybody, irrespective of educational background. Hence, education in entrepreneurship must not be restricted to certain fields of study.

Sorenson and Audia (2000) argue that observing successful entrepreneurs enables potential entrepreneurs to organize the resources and activities required for starting and running one’s own venture and increases individual self-confidence, in the sense of ‘if they can do it, I can, too’. Kuratko (2003) claims that entrepreneurship, or at least some pertinent aspects of it, can be taught. However, the emerging generation of entrepreneurship educators must avoid the paradigm paralysis that has consumed so many business disciplines. Professors must become more competent in the use of academic technology and expand their pedagogies to include new and innovative approaches to the teaching of entrepreneurship.

GEM results suggest that any higher level of education, years of school, have a slight impact on entrepreneurial success, independent of which field of study or profession, which suggest that the level of understanding, analysis and choice is better performed with more school years (GEM, 2015).

2.3 Entrepreneurial motivation

People move toward a goal for several reasons, and this motivation plays the role of activating and directing human behavior (Hoeltgebaum et al, 2005). Kuratko, Hornsby and Naffziger (1997), argue that motivation comes in accordance with certain necessities, which can be:

- extrinsic: for example, accumulate personal wealth, increase gain and increase profit opportunity; Independence: keep personal freedom, personal safety, do not have heads and control the professional destiny;
• intrinsic: gain public recognition, face challenges, fun at work, personal growth and prove they can perform; family safety: securing the future of family members and build a business to pass along (heirs).

Since 2001, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) has differentiated between two different types of entrepreneurship, necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship. The difference between the two types of entrepreneurs is in the motivation of the entrepreneurs to start their venture. Opportunity entrepreneurs are viewed as entrepreneurs who start a business in order to pursue an opportunity and start a new business, while necessity entrepreneurship is more need-based (Reynolds et al., 2002), when no other better option is available or visible.

Block and Wagner (2010) classify necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship in a slightly different manner, which is not consistent with the GEM definition. Their classification focuses on the way the entrepreneur came into entrepreneurship. In particular, they examine the circumstances under which the entrepreneur left her previous job as a paid employee. When a person voluntarily leaves her paid job to set up a business, they classify this person as an opportunity entrepreneur. The argument is that this person is drawn into entrepreneurship by a prior discovered entrepreneurial opportunity. They also include those individuals who become entrepreneurs after deliberately moving through several jobs that they used to acquire all the competencies they considered relevant for starting their own business. However, when a person leaves her previous job involuntarily (e.g., her place of work closed down or she was fired), Block and Wagner (2010) interpret this job change to mean that the person was pushed into entrepreneurship by external factors. This situation is defined as necessity entrepreneurship.

Block and Wagner (2010) found an interaction between context and type of human capital: with opportunity entrepreneurs, it seems that more general human capital, such as formal education, has a high explanatory power, but with necessity entrepreneurs, more specific human capital, such as being educated in the professional area pursued as an entrepreneur, has a high explanatory power. When we consider the impact of human capital on entrepreneurial success, necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs seem to reflect two different types.

Necessity entrepreneurs have been less able than other entrepreneurs are to carefully plan and prepare their move into entrepreneurship. They launch their venture out of necessity and driven by external circumstances. They thus have less time or opportunity to amass or develop the specific resources - the skills, capabilities, and connections - needed to pursue a complex differentiation strategy (Block et al, 2015).

3 Method

3.1 Socio-bibliometric study

This research has a quantitative approach, in which we applied the techniques of network analysis to the data collected on Scopus in order to help to identify the main subjects and authors to be used in the theoretical background. The sociometric research involves the exploration of a relationship matrix derived from social actors (Galaskiewcz & Wasserman,
1994). For social networks (Appendix I), we opted for the analysis of the most cited authors, using the software UNICET® (2002).

3.2 GEM Report Data

This study is also a descriptive research with a quantitative method. The descriptive research is done through observation, recording, analysis and correlation of facts or phenomena without manipulating them (Cervo & Bervian, 2002). It was used to describe and compare the results of the GEM reports 2013 among Germany, Italy, Portugal and South Brazil. The objective was identifying if this origin influences the phenomenon of entrepreneurship in Southern Brazil.

GEM’s entrepreneurship indicators include societal attitudes toward entrepreneurship, participation in multiple phases of the entrepreneurship process, and profile and impact indicators. A key measure of GEM is Total early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA), which comprises nascent entrepreneurs in the process of starting a business as well as new business owners.

We decided to choose indicators that measures the main Hofstede’s dimensions to analyze the difference between countries: TEA, profiles of businesses and performance for women and men entrepreneurs, participation by age, necessity and opportunity motives, fear of failure, perceived opportunities and capabilities, higher education & training, entrepreneurship education and perceptions about being an entrepreneur (GEM, 2013).

4 Analysis

4.1 Socio-bibliometric Analysis

To answer the main question of this article, first we tried to answer by the theory, through a socio-bibliometric study. We searched on Scopus on 21st July, 2015 for articles from the last 35 years. To answer our question of research “Are there similarities or differences in entrepreneurship for the German, Italian and Portuguese descendants leaving in southern Brazil?”, we used a combination of the following search terms: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneur, Differences, Similarities, Origin, Socio-cultural, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Brazil, Southern Brazil, Paraná, Santa Catarina, Rio Grande do Sul, Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, GEM, Education, Necessity and Opportunity. Through this procedure, we obtained a dataset with 968 entries.

In Appendix II, it is observed that studies on entrepreneurship considering the search terms listed above gradually grew in number and importance in Scopus during the selected period. For the period of the 1980s, the search identified only 6 papers. In the 1990s, the results were 26. In the 2000s, the search terms produced 375 articles. Moreover, in the last five years, 561 studies on entrepreneurship were presented. This context reflects the interest in the subject and its importance. The fields most studied listed in Appendix I, are entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship opportunity. This selection found us 10 articles chosen from these 968, that may help us to answer the question of research.
4.2 GEM Analysis

In this section an analysis about entrepreneurship initiatives is presented, comparing the settlers with the south region of Brazil in order to identify similarities and differences of entrepreneurship behavior according the same previous scope of the GEM research. Table 2 presents a list of demographic characteristics compared by country and South Brazil region.

GEM (2013) classifies the early-stage entrepreneurship as a nascent company with less than three and a half year creation by an entrepreneur and the established entrepreneurship as owner-managers’ businesses that exists for three and a half years or more.

Comparing results in Table 2, in terms of early-stage entrepreneurship, it is possible to observe that total for settlers’ we have mostly a male population while in South Brazil it is a more female presence. As mentioned by Hofstede in table 1, South Brazil shows a female orientation; therefore, this cultural aspect influences the entrepreneurship phenomenon. Although, when established entrepreneurship is observed, the opposite occurs, where a more male presence is highlighted. In that way, it seems that more women tend to start new businesses in South Brazil, but men usually keep on front as an owner-manager. As mentioned also by Audretsch, Doehse, Neibuhr (2009), cultural diversity is supposed to capture diversity of economic agents (with respect to their experience, background and capabilities) which is expected to facilitate exploitation of a given regional knowledge base and thus promote entrepreneurial activity.

A consideration that can explain this distinction is the southern environment in Brazil, which keeps collectivism above individualism, as mentioned by Hofstede (1997) in Table 1. In collective societies, people are born into collectivities or in groups, which may be their extended family, their tribes or their villages. It means that not only women or men that create a business will remain the owner-manager all the time. Probably, if the wife starts a new business, the husband can be the owner-manager too. But in individualist cultures as presented in Germany and Italy, this role model is less considered because, as presented by Hofstede (1997), in an individualistic society, everybody is supposed to look after his/her own self-interest and maybe the interest of his/her immediate family. Therefore, delivery the business owner-management for third parties can be a difficulty for these cultures.

Regarding the entrepreneurial motivation, for all countries driven-necessity was the most important factor than opportunity factor. This situation was argued by (Block et al, 2015) saying that the entrepreneurs launch their venture out of necessity and are driven by external circumstances, they thus have less time or opportunity to amass or develop the specific resources - the skills, capabilities, and connections - needed to pursue a complex differentiation strategy. Nowadays, necessity is still the most important drive of motivation to create a new business for new entrepreneurs in emergent and developing economies, according to GEM research. Also, as presented by Baptista & Thurik, 2006, when studying Portugal’s (1976-2002) entrepreneurial orientation, it is found that with the adjustment costs to adopt a new technology, tends to lead to productivity slowdowns increasing thus the time lag for the effect of entrepreneurship to be presented. As a consequence entrepreneurs are forced to move to necessity motivation, due to the lack of investments in technology and this is an aspect to be considered as well.
Moreover, the educational aspect is also responsible for part of this situation, as presented in the results on table 2. The South region of Brazil has the major concentration of entrepreneurs with only Basic School Education. However, schools in Brazil are not prepared to teach entrepreneurial tools on this level. As exposed by Fuchs, Werner and Wallau (2008), although it is considered sufficient to provide education in entrepreneurship in universities, compulsory education was not thought of an appropriate platform to convey knowledge about how to start and run a new business. In other words, how to count with the younger innate entrepreneurial propensity, if the tools of entrepreneurship are only stimulated in the high school years? How to preserve the entrepreneurial desire until this stage? Also, this situation can be observed on the perceived capabilities on the table 2, where less than 50% think that...

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>South Brazil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early-stage entrepreneurial activity</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Established business ownership rate</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>7.1%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Demographic characteristics and entrepreneurial profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Italy</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>South Brazil</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement-driven opportunity (% of TEA)</td>
<td>80.4%</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td>78.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necessity-driven (% of TEA)</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>22.2%</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>18-24 years old</th>
<th>25-34 years old</th>
<th>35-44 years old</th>
<th>45-54 years old</th>
<th>55-64 years old</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic School Education</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School Education</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School+ Education</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>22.8%</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>18-24 years old</th>
<th>25-34 years old</th>
<th>35-44 years old</th>
<th>45-54 years old</th>
<th>55-64 years old</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic School Education</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>9.3%</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
<td>3.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School Education</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>6.0%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School+ Education</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Perceived Opportunity</th>
<th>Perceived Capabilities</th>
<th>High status to successful entrepreneurs</th>
<th>Entrepreneurship as a good career choice</th>
<th>Fear of failure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
<td>20.2%</td>
<td>48.0%</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>37.7%</td>
<td>20.1%</td>
<td>48.7%</td>
<td>48.4%</td>
<td>48.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75.2%</td>
<td>72.4%</td>
<td>NI</td>
<td>79.9%</td>
<td>40.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49.4%</td>
<td>65.6%</td>
<td>NI</td>
<td>83.1%</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GEM 2013 Report by country.
they have enough skill, knowledge and experience to open a new business. However, perceived opportunities are also low, which matches with the lack of entrepreneurship vision of new opportunities, moving only in necessity environments directions. Combined with this aspect, Table 2 shows that there exists a high fear of fail (up to 50% in South Brazil and very similar in the others), pointed out by Hofstede (1997), that reinforces the necessity motivation since opportunity can be a risk and these countries have very strong uncertainty avoidance behavior, as aspects of similar culture even mentioned by Reynolds et al., 2002, that opportunity entrepreneurs are viewed as entrepreneurs who start a business in order to pursue an opportunity, while necessity entrepreneurship is more need-based, demonstrating greater necessity motivation here to undertake. Although, comparing with the North American culture as presented by Sorenson & Audia, 2000, the stigma associated with failing arguably impacts entrepreneurs to a lesser extend in the United States than in some other countries as for example, in the German culture. That being considered makes this assumption somewhat severe as cultural orientation.

Finally, regarding the power and career growth that the entrepreneur can reach, according to table 2 presented as the relevance of the high status to successful entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship as a good career choice in South Brazil can be compared with Italy and Portugal Hofstede (1997) dimensions in Table 1, which large power distance positions (boss versus employees) is the culture characteristic of these countries. In case of Germany, the choice of entrepreneurship as a career, is not the only step to have power, because in Germany the power distance is small (as table 1), therefore in Germany there are more opportunities to seek power not only as ownership of a business. This is not perceived in South Brazil which both dimensions (power and career) are important.

5 Conclusion

A growing body of literature is addressing the issue of the determinants of entrepreneurship. In this paper, the contribution for the literature is highlighting the importance of the socio-cultural aspects in influencing the decisions of individuals to become entrepreneurs. The paper in general has analyzed the relationship between the spread of entrepreneurship, family ties, and gender aspects across settlers’ and South Brazil.

The results suggest that the cultural aspects of entrepreneurship may remain although the life trajectory of a country or region as is possible to see on the results of culture aspects of entrepreneurship has pointed similarity on positively responses from settlers and South Brazil and in some aspects also comparing with United States cultural orientation.

Nevertheless, this orientation may be not significant to make sure that a large number of new firms will be open in the future, because of existing complementary aspects to be considered, such as regional issues (infrastructure, politics, investments, new technology). Also education orientation for new people as a set of initiatives in order to guarantee the growing of entrepreneurship vision is relevant. In addition, the difficulty to make a longitudinal investigation of data may show that economic impacts on this environment also may disturb this orientation and should be considered for new studies in the future.

Finally, the outcomes here presented may contribute to further work on this research stream in such a way that it may help to support Hofstede’s studies of nationality. And thus,
analyze the differences between different regions in the same countries, due to different countries of settlement. It also contributes to the research of entrepreneurship in Brazil. It is worthwhile to continue working on this research stream.

6 Implications and Further Research

It is necessary to consider some limitations, which does not detract the findings. The first one is the limited access to the information published most recently by country on the GEM Repository. For example, the results by region from Brazil are available only from 2012 on. The GEM consortium has adopted a three-year rule regarding the GEM data. Three years after the completion of a cycle, all data is placed on the website and made available at no cost to any interested party. These limitations are constraints to analyze the data in a longitudinal way.

7 References


Tema 1: Empreendedorismo, pequenas empresas e inovação


Tema 1: Empreendedorismo, pequenas empresas e inovação


Appendix I

Network of cooperation between authors with more than 4 ties

Source: Scopus – 10 articles from Appendix II.

The majority of authors are American and belong to a classic group of researchers of entrepreneurship. They usually write with the same pairs.
Tema 1: Empreendedorismo, pequenas empresas e inovação


Appendix II

Articles by search terms and year of publication

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Source: Search on Scopus, on 21st July, 2015 for articles from the last 35 years.