

Levent, Tuzin Baycan; Masurel, Enno; Nijkamp, Peter

Working Paper

Diversity in Entrepreneurship: Ethnic and Female Roles in Urban Economic Life

Nota di Lavoro, No. 15.2003

Provided in Cooperation with:

Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei (FEEM)

Suggested Citation: Levent, Tuzin Baycan; Masurel, Enno; Nijkamp, Peter (2003) : Diversity in Entrepreneurship: Ethnic and Female Roles in Urban Economic Life, Nota di Lavoro, No. 15.2003, Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei (FEEM), Milano

This Version is available at:

<https://hdl.handle.net/10419/118046>

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.

**Diversity in Entrepreneurship:
Ethnic and Female Roles in
Urban Economic Life**

Tuzin Baycan Levent, Enno Masurel and
Peter Nijkamp

NOTA DI LAVORO 15.2003

JANUARY 2003

KNOW – Knowledge, Technology, Human Capital

Tuzin Baycan Levent, *Department of Spatial Economics,
Free University Amsterdam, The Netherlands and Department of Urban and Regional
Planning, Istanbul Technical University, Turkey*
Enno Masurel, *Department of Business Administration, Free University Amsterdam,
The Netherlands*
Peter Nijkamp, *Department of Spatial Economics, Free University Amsterdam,
The Netherlands*

This paper can be downloaded without charge at:

The Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Note di Lavoro Series Index:
http://www.feem.it/web/attiv/_wp.html

Social Science Research Network Electronic Paper Collection:
http://papers.ssrn.com/abstract_id=XXXXXX

The opinions expressed in this paper do not necessarily reflect the position of
Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei

The special issue on *Economic Growth and Innovation in Multicultural Environments (ENGIME)* collects a selection of papers presented at the multidisciplinary workshops organised by the ENGIME Network.

The ENGIME workshops address the complex relationships between economic growth, innovation and diversity, in the attempt to define the conditions (policy, institutional, regulatory) under which European diversities can promote innovation and economic growth.

This batch of papers has been presented at the first ENGIME workshop: *Mapping Diversity*.

ENGIME is financed by the European Commission, Fifth RTD Framework Programme, Key Action Improving Socio-Economic Knowledge Base, and it is co-ordinated by Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei (FEEM).

Further information is available at www.feem.it/engime.

Workshops

- **Mapping Diversity**
Leuven, May 16-17, 2002
- **Communication across cultures in multicultural cities**
The Hague, November 7-8, 2002
- **Social dynamics and conflicts in multicultural cities**
Milan, March 20-21, 2003
- **Governance and policies in multicultural cities**
Rome, July 2003
- **Trust and social capital in multicultural cities**
Athens, November 2003
- **Diversity as a source of growth**
Milan, April 2004

Partners of the ENGIME network:

- Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Milano, Italy
- Psychoanalytic Institute for Social Research, Roma, Italy
- Institute of Historical, Sociological and Linguistic Studies, University of Ancona, Italy
- Centre for Economic Learning and Social Evolution, University College London, UK
- Faculty of Economics and Applied Economics, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Belgium
- Idea Consult, Bruxelles, Belgium
- Maison de la Recherche en Science Humaines, Laboratoire d'Analyse Socio-Anthropologique du Risque, Maison de la Recherche en Sciences Humaines, Université de Caen, France
- Centre for Economic Research and Environmental Strategy, Athens, Greece
- Institute of Higher European Studies, The Hague University of Professional Education, The Netherlands

Diversity in Entrepreneurship: Ethnic and Female Roles in Urban Economic Life

The aim of this paper is to investigate the phenomenon of ethnic female entrepreneurship in urban economic life. The focus of the research is on the attitude and behaviour of Turkish female entrepreneurs in Amsterdam. The main fascinating question is: *Are ethnic female entrepreneurs special ethnic entrepreneurs or special female entrepreneurs?* This paper provides an answer to this question on the basis of field surveys. The results of the case study research on Turkish female entrepreneurs in Amsterdam show that the “*ethnic female profile*” is a “*special female profile*” and that Turkish female entrepreneurs are “*special female entrepreneurs*”, particularly in terms of personal and business characteristics, driving forces and motivations. They appear to combine their ethnic opportunities with their personal characteristics (and other opportunities) in the urban market, and to have a successful performance. This is also caused by the fact that they have become service providers not only for their own ethnic groups, but also for other groups in the city.

Keywords: Ethnic female entrepreneurship, diversity in entrepreneurship, ethnic female profile, Turkish female entrepreneurs

JEL: M13

Address for correspondence:

Tuzin Baycan Levent
Department of Spatial Economics
Free University Amsterdam
De Boelelaan 1105
1081 HV Amsterdam
The Netherlands
E-mail: tbaycanlevent@econ.vu.nl,

Department of Urban and Regional Planning
Istanbul Technical University
Taskisla 80191
Taksim, Istanbul
Turkey
E-mail: tuzin.baycanlevent@itu.edu.tr

1. Introduction

Metropolitan areas in many countries have increasingly turned into a pluriform, multi-cultural society. Ethnic entrepreneurship and increasingly female entrepreneurship have become popular concepts in the modern multi-cultural society. In a modern “multi-color” city ethnic and female entrepreneurship tend to become an indigeneous and significant part of the local economy. Ethnic entrepreneurs and female entrepreneurs which can be identified as having an untapped job-creating potential, while they reflect different cultures and open-ended capacities for economic growth creation in cities, they also constitute two special groups in urban economic life with their growing numbers and also their contributions to economic diversity.

There are many similarities between these two special groups in terms of opportunities; their business features, management styles, networks and associations, and niches obtained in cities. Both these groups tend to find opportunities for their creative economic roles in big cities and metropolises and offer different approaches and different management styles to urban economic life, which reflect their cultural diversities. They have also common specific barriers and problems in setting up and running businesses. On the other hand, there are distinct differences in terms of their problems and needs, management styles and networks. However, a number of problems and issues that they face are common to both these groups regardless of the gender or ethnicity. Moreover, ethnic and female entrepreneurs tend to suffer from some problems more intensively than small businesses in general do. The most important common point of these two groups is to be “minority” in urban economic life. While ethnic groups are “minorities” as non-natives, females are another kind of “minorities” with often a lower participation level in urban economic life in a male dominant business world. However, each of the groups is itself heterogeneous, with a wide variety of qualifications, experiences, resources, problems and needs, operating within a variety of social contexts.

Despite many studies on ethnic entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship, there is a very limited number of studies addressing female ethnic entrepreneurship. These studies highlight the increasing share of ethnic female entrepreneurship among both ethnic entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship. However, there is no conclusive evidence on the effects of ethnic and gender opportunities and barriers that affect ethnic female entrepreneurs from the perspective of their dual character. This paper aims to identify characteristic indicators of ethnic female entrepreneurship that are combined relevant characteristics or indicators of ethnic entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship. In the next two sections ethnic and female entrepreneurship theories are discussed, while the entrepreneurial behaviour and processes of these two groups are investigated. After this literature overview, the dual character of ethnic female entrepreneurs and related characteristic indicators of ethnic female entrepreneurship are identified through a comparison in terms of some characteristics, advantages and opportunities, and problems and barriers in Section 4. Next, Section 5 examines ethnic female entrepreneurial attitude and behaviour on the basis of case study research on Turkish female entrepreneurs in Amsterdam. This section investigates also the place of Turkish female entrepreneurs, seen from the perspective of ethnic and gender opportunities and barriers in modern urban economic life. The last section concludes with a discussion of relevant policies for ethnic female entrepreneurship.

2. Ethnic Entrepreneurship

In the past decades, most cities in the industrialized world and especially metropolitan areas in many countries have seen a huge influx of people with a different socio-cultural or ethnic origin (see e.g. Cross 1992, Esping-Andersen 1993, or Messey and Denton 1993). With this influx of foreign migrants cities have increasingly turned into a pluriform, multi-cultural society. In some cities in Europe ethnic minorities are gradually becoming even a majority. Guest workers from Mediterranean countries, refugees and asylum seekers from the Balkan area and economic migrants from Central- and Eastern-Europe have meant a drastic change in the face of modern European Cities (see Gorter et al. 1998). The influx of foreign migrants has certainly brought about economic advantages (e.g., the fulfillment of structural vacancies in various segments of the labour market), but has also caused a multiplicity of social and economic tensions (e.g., on the local housing market, ghetto formation in cities, differences in life style and behaviour, socio-cultural stress situations) (see e.g. Borjas 1990, Kloosterman et al. 1998, Pahl 1984, Pinch 1993, Piore and Sabel 1984). Apart from a few exceptions, ethnic groups belong in general to the lower socio-economic segments in European cities, mainly as a result of low education and lack of skills.

In recent years we have observed a significant shift in the orientation of ethnic groups, namely towards self-employment. This movement is generally referred to as ethnic entrepreneurship (see e.g. Van Delft et al. 2000, Masurel et al. 2002, Min 1987, Waldinger et al. 1990, Ward and Jenkins 1984). The latter phenomenon distinguishes itself from 'normal' entrepreneurship through its orientation on ethnic products, on ethnic market customers or on indigenous ethnic business strategies (e.g. informal information channels, Islamic banking) (see Choenni 1997). Gradually, with an expansion in their market area that has occurred towards a much broader coverage of the urban demand, ethnic entrepreneurs have become an indigenous and significant part of the local economy (see Greenwood, 1994). The conditions such as great potential for organizing businesses at the interface of two cultures and advantages for resolving the problematic situation of young people in ethnic segments, offer many opportunities for urban revitalization.

Ethnic entrepreneurship is generally regarded as an important self-organizing principle through which ethnic minorities are able to improve their weak socio-economic position. It has become in recent years an important research topic in the social sciences (e.g., sociology, management science, economics, geography). Much research has addressed the opportunities and the barriers of ethnic entrepreneurship by identifying the critical success or performance conditions of ethnic entrepreneurs. Some authors advocate the so-called *culturalist* approach which takes for granted that ethnic groups have specific values, skills and cultural features which makes them suitable for entrepreneurship. Cultural factors favouring ethnic entrepreneurship are *inter alia* internal solidarity and loyalty, flexibility, personal motivation, hard working ethics, informal network contacts with people from the same ethnic group, flexible financing arrangements etc. Such factors are responsible for an entrepreneurial spirit and performance. For example, Van den Tillaart and Poutsma (1998) find that the relative business participation of Turkish people in The Netherlands is higher than that of the indigenous population. Other authors claim that the situation in the receiving society is the dominant cause for engaging in entrepreneurial activities. Examples of such *structuralist* factors are *inter alia* social exclusion and discrimination, poor access to markets, high unemployment. A synthesis of these conceptual frameworks has been proposed by Waldinger at al. (1990) who formulated the so-called *interaction* model, which supposes that the

opportunity structure (e.g., market conditions, access to entrepreneurship), predispositional factors (e.g., aspiration levels, language deficiency, migration motives) and source mobilisation (e.g., ethnic social networks, cultural and religious commitment) are decisive for successful entrepreneurial strategies.

In general, many authors identify a blend of structural and cultural factors that influence the step towards ethnic entrepreneurship (see e.g. Bull and Winter 1991, Danson 1995 and Davidsson 1995). An important issue is whether ethnic entrepreneurs produce for their own ethnic niches or whether they try to cover a wider market of customers. This difference between a so-called internal and external orientation has been a source of many recent empirical investigations (see e.g. Choenni 1997). An internal orientation offers perhaps a more protected market, but will never lead to market expansion ('break-out strategy'). An external orientation requires more skills, diversified communication channels and access to government policy support measures (see e.g. Bates 1997, Deakins et al. 1997, Deakins 1999, Van Delft et al. 2000, Light and Bhachu 1993).

3. Female Entrepreneurship

It is, in general, true that there is a clear gender bias in entrepreneurship. Female participation is in most countries significantly lower. For example, a recent study by Borooah and Hart (1999) focuses on self-employment of Indian and Black Caribbean *men* in Britain, and neglects female entrepreneurship. However, despite the scarcity of data, the available information on female entrepreneurs shows that the involvement of women in entrepreneurial activity and the consequent self-employment rates, which include women who own and operate their own businesses, are increasing around the world, especially in urban areas and metropolises (NFWBO 2002a, OECD 2001a and 2001b, Weeks 2001). For example, more than half of the number, and more than half of the employment and sales of women-owned firms in the U.S. are located in the top 50 metropolitan areas (NFWBO 2002a and 2002b).

According to available data, between one-quarter and one-third of the formal sector businesses are owned and operated by women. In the U.S. 38% (1999), in Finland 34% (1990), in Australia (1994) and Canada (1996) 33%, in Korea 32% (1998) and in Mexico 30% (1997) of businesses are owned by women (Weeks 2001). According to the OECD's Labour Force Survey database, the total number of entrepreneurs in the OECD has increased considerably over the past decade, particularly after 1995 and in 1999, the average number of entrepreneurs in the OECD was 36% higher compared with 1985. The share of female entrepreneurs during this time period has been between one-fourth to one-third of all entrepreneurs (OECD 2001b). And, in the U.S., it is expected that the number of women-owned businesses will have grown by 14% at twice the rate of all U.S. firms (7% nationwide) between 1997 and 2002 (NFWBO 2002a).

Due to new work concepts (e.g., more flexible work), the work environment has gradually become more favourable to women. Female entrepreneurs are becoming more prominent not only in industries where they were traditionally active, but also in less traditional or non-traditional sectors (i.e., manufacturing, construction and transportation), and in new growth areas such as financial services and communication. Female businesses are increasingly involved in international trade and other forms of globalisation. On the other hand, the advance of new technologies, particularly ICTs, is creating new opportunities which have the potential to alter fundamentally the role of women-owned business in the globalisation process.

With the dramatic increase in the number of women-owned businesses, there has been an increase in the number of research studies focusing female entrepreneurship. While earliest studies focused on psychological and sociological characteristics of female entrepreneurs, assuming there were few differences between males and females, the later studies have focused on gender-based differences in entrepreneurship with a new perspective referred to the *integrated perspective* which is rooted in psychological and sociological theories. According to this new perspective, women's social orientations are more focused on relationships and they see their businesses an interconnected system of relationships that include family, community and business (Brush 1992). On the other, it is focused on sex and gender differences in entrepreneurial characteristics and performance from the perspective of *liberal feminist* and *social feminist* theories which motivated to understand and explain the bases of the lesser status of women in society (Fischer et al. 1993). While liberal feminist theory explains the differences in the achievements of men and women by the discrimination and/or systemic factors that deprive women of essential opportunities such as education and experience, social feminist theory explains these differences by the early and ongoing socialization process that women and men do differ inherently. The reflections of these theories can be found in the approaches of many studies.

Most research on female entrepreneurship has focused on the *individual* characteristics such as demographic background, motivations, educational and occupational experiences of female entrepreneurs (Brush 1992, Buttner and Moore 1997, Fagenson 1993, Fischer et al. 1993). However, recent studies have focused on the *organization* such as business characteristics, strategies, problems and management styles and also acquisition of capital and networking behaviours (Bruce 1999, Carter et al. 1997, Cliff 1998, Cromie and Birley, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991, Rietz and Henrekson 2000, Rosa et al. 1994, Thakur 1998, Verheul et al. 2001, Verheul and Thurik 2001). But, gender-based differences in entrepreneurship is still the most important discussion topic in female entrepreneurship studies. These studies show that although there are some similarities between male and female business owners in demographic characteristics, business characteristics and problems, there are also some differences in educational background, work experience and skills, business goals and management styles. However, it needs more empirical testing for these assumptions and claims.

4. Ethnic Female Entrepreneurship: Ethnic and Gender Opportunities and Barriers

Although many research efforts have been undertaken on ethnic entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurship, there is hardly a comprehensive or solid research effort on ethnic female entrepreneurship. One of the few studies on ethnic female entrepreneurship was conducted by the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO) in the United States. According to the study "Minority Women-Owned Businesses in the United States, 2002" published by Center for Women's Business Research (founded as the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO)), businesses owned by minority women are growing in number at rates exceeding all women-owned firms and the national average. The number of minority women-owned firms increased 31.5% between 1997 and 2002, more than twice as fast as all women-owned firms (14.3%), and more than four times the national average (6.8%). Businesses owned by minority women now represent nearly one-third (29.7%) of all minority-owned firms and 20% of all women-owned firms (28% of all U.S. businesses), meaning that one in five women-owned firms is owned by a minority woman. It is expected that the number of minority women-owned businesses will reach 1.2 million in 2002.

According to the study, more than one-half of minority women-owned firms (58%) are in the service sector, which also had the greatest growth (33% between 1997 and 2002), 11% are in retail trade and 4% are in goods-producing industries (NFWBO, 2002c).

On the other hand, although the focus was not on ethnic female entrepreneurship, the research conducted by Cowling and Taylor (2001) emphasized the importance of minorities in self-employment. According to Cowling and Taylor's research in U.K. which is based on the British Household Panel Survey, the foreigners (defined as non-U.K.), be they male or female, are over-represented amongst small enterprises and the unemployed, and this effect is much stronger for women than for men. Cowling and Taylor explain that this effect could be interpreted as clear evidence of discrimination in the waged sector against foreigners in general, but women in particular.

These studies emphasize only the increasing rate of ethnic female entrepreneurs in both of the ethnic and female entrepreneurship, but the characteristics of ethnic female entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship are not explained. From this need, in this study we will try to identify the dual character of ethnic female entrepreneurs and characteristic indicators of ethnic female entrepreneurship that are shaped in both sided effects of ethnic and female entrepreneurship. For this identification we will compare the characteristics, advantages/opportunities and problems/barriers of these two groups.

Although, ethnic groups are not uniform and display a great variation in motives, attitudes and behaviour, there are some similar characteristics in ethnic enterprises and ethnic entrepreneurs (CEEDR 2000, Deakins 1999, Kloosterman et al. 1998, Lee et al. 1997, Masurel et al. 2002, Ram 1994). The most important personal characteristics of ethnic entrepreneurs are mentioned in many studies as the lower education level. Their less favoured position as a result of low education and lack of skills and high levels of unemployment are the most important push effects towards entrepreneurship. On the other hand, the existence of ethnic and social networks play also a major role in their motivation. For business characteristics, the researches show that most of ethnic enterprises belong to the services sector, small and relatively young and family ownership are the legal form of most of the enterprises. Administrative and regulatory barriers, lack of capital and credit, lack of knowledge, language, lack of education, lack of management skills, constraints on access to formal business networks and ethnic discrimination are the common problems of ethnic entrepreneurs.

On the other hand, female entrepreneurs are a heterogeneous and diverse group with wide-ranging skills, motivations and orientations and female enterprises do not share the same characteristics. However, some similar characteristics in female enterprises and female entrepreneurs are mentioned in many studies (Brush 1992, CEEDR 2000, Fischer 1993, Koreen 2001, Letowski 2001, Nielsen 2001, OECD 1998, OECD 2001a, Weeks 2001). Personal characteristics of female entrepreneurs are described in many studies as between the ages 35 and 45, married with children and well educated. They are often motivated by economic factors such as generating extra income but also to be independent, flexibility and better balance between professional and family responsibilities or coming from family with an entrepreneurial tradition can be important factors. For business characteristics, the surveys show that the majority of female enterprises are in the services sector, small and relatively young, set up with little start-up capital and generate lower revenues, and sole proprietorship are the legal form of most of the enterprises. Administrative and regulatory barriers, lack of capital and credit, lack of knowledge, lack of management skills, the constraints on access to

networks, cultural and social values, family responsibilities, gender discrimination, unequal opportunities in terms of work experience are the most important and common problems of female entrepreneurs.

When we compare the characteristics of these two groups (Table 1), many similarities are seen especially in the features of enterprises. Both of these enterprises belong to the service sector, and they are small and relatively young. However, while sole proprietorship are the legal form of most of female enterprises, generally family ownership are the legal form of ethnic enterprises. The other differences between these two groups are in their personal characteristics and motivations. While most of ethnic entrepreneurs are low educated, inversely most of female entrepreneurs are well educated. And, while ethnic entrepreneurs often motivated by economic factors such as generating extra income, female entrepreneurs can motivated by the other factors such as to be independent and own boss or entrepreneurial family tradition. On the other hand, it is observed that both of these groups have similar differences when compared with male or native counterparts, in terms of less experience, higher rate of failure, sector preferences etc. Ethnic and female entrepreneurs often choose the sectors that there is no competition with their male or native counterparts.

When it is compared the advantages and opportunities of two groups, ethnic groups seem have more advantages and opportunities than female ones (Table 2). The market opportunities such as a special ethnic market, demand for ethnic products, ethnic loyalty between ethnic enterprises and their clients and existence of an ethnic and social network in terms of information, capital and personnel support, provide many advantages for ethnic groups. This kind of market opportunity doesn't exist for female entrepreneurs. Sometimes, there can be special demand for female services but it is difficult to say an existence of special female market. The most important advantage of female entrepreneurs can be entrepreneurial family tradition in terms of entrepreneurial spirit and financial support that motivates them for taking risks. However, both of these groups offer many opportunities for their ethnic and female counterparts such as employment opportunities and special market niches. They offer also many opportunities for urban revitalization, reducing unemployment and resolving the problematic situation of ethnic and female groups.

The problems and barriers of two groups have face also show many similarities, especially in administrative and regulatory barriers, access to finance, exclusion from business networks, unequal opportunities in terms of work experience and discrimination (Table 3). But, there are also some ethnic-based or gender-based obstacles. While language and lack of education are the most important ethnic-based obstacles, family responsibilities, social and cultural values and small amount of personal capital are the most important gender-based obstacles.

As a result, it can be said that there are many similarities between ethnic and female entrepreneurs in terms of characteristics and opportunities, business features, management styles, networks, associations and niches obtained in cities. Both of these groups tend to find creative opportunities for their creative economic roles in big cities and metropolises and offer different approaches and different management styles to urban economic life, which reflect their cultural diversities. They have also common specific barriers and problems in setting up and running businesses. On the other hand, there are some differences in terms of the problems and needs, management styles and networks. However, a number of problems and issues that they face are common to both of these groups regardless of the gender or ethnicity. Moreover, ethnic and female entrepreneurs tend to suffer from some of these problems more intensively than small businesses in general do. The most important common element of

Table 1 Some characteristics of ethnic and female entrepreneurs/entrepreneurship

ETHNIC ENTREPRENEURS/ENTREPRENEURSHIP	FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS/ENTREPRENEURSHIP
<p>Enterprises Features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The majority of ethnic minorities-owned enterprises belongs to the services sector ▪ Most of these enterprises are small and also relatively young ▪ Family ownership is the legal form of most of the enterprises ▪ In general these enterprises are set up with little start-up capital and generate also lower revenues <p>Entrepreneurs Characteristics:</p> <p><i>Personal Characteristics:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Many ethnic entrepreneurs are lower educated <p><i>Motivation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Most of ethnic entrepreneurs start their businesses with economic motivations, such as generating extra income. <p>“Ethnic” Differences in Enterprises and Entrepreneurs Characteristics: (differences between natives and non-natives)</p> <p><i>Personal Characteristics:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs are younger than their native counterparts <p><i>Experience:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs have less formal or enterprise related education or prior work experience than natives ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs have less entrepreneurial or management experience than natives <p><i>Sector Preferences and Interest Fields:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs are less likely to own enterprises in goods-producing industries than native entrepreneurs <p><i>Enterprises Features:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic minorities-owned enterprises are somewhat smaller and somewhat younger than natives-owned enterprises ▪ Ethnic enterprises have a higher rate of failure than native enterprises <p><i>Networks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs use formal business support organizations less than natives ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs tend to use informal sources of business support, such as personal and community-based networks <p><i>Management Styles:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic entrepreneurs have specific management methods and enterprise structures <p><i>Training:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic minorities tend to prefer less formal, experienced-based training, to learn from their community-based informal networks, to be helped/mentored by this network 	<p>Enterprises Features:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The majority of female-owned enterprises are in the services sector ▪ Most of these enterprises are small and also relatively young ▪ Sole proprietorship is the legal form of most of the enterprises ▪ In general these enterprises are set up with little start-up capital and generate also lower revenues <p>Entrepreneurs Characteristics:</p> <p><i>Personal Characteristics:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Most of female entrepreneurs are well-educated <p><i>Motivation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female entrepreneurs start their enterprises with economic motivations, such as generating extra income ▪ To be independent or to be own boss are the other motivation factors especially if they have family members who are entrepreneurs <p>“Gender” Differences in Enterprises and Entrepreneurs Characteristics: (differences between females and males)</p> <p><i>Personal Characteristics:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female entrepreneurs are younger than their male counterparts <p><i>Experience:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female entrepreneurs have less formal or enterprise related education or prior work experience than men ▪ Female entrepreneurs have less entrepreneurial or management experience than men <p><i>Sector Preferences and Interest Fields:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Women are less likely to own enterprises in goods-producing industries than men ▪ Female often are more interested in management skills and issues, and less interested in finance than male <p><i>Enterprises Features:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female-owned enterprises are somewhat smaller and somewhat younger than male-owned enterprises ▪ Female enterprises have a higher rate of failure than male enterprises <p><i>Networks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female entrepreneurs use networks and associations less than men <p><i>Management Styles:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female entrepreneurs have specific management methods and enterprise structures <p><i>Training:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Women tend to prefer less formal, experienced-based training, to learn from women, to be helped/mentored by other women networks

Table 2 Some advantages and opportunities of ethnic and female entrepreneurs/entrepreneurship

ETHNIC ADVANTAGES AND OPPORTUNITIES	FEMALE ADVANTAGES AND OPPORTUNITIES
DEMAND SIDE	DEMAND SIDE
<i>Motivation and driving force:</i>	<i>Motivation and driving force:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Generating extra income ▪ Existence of a socio-cultural network as a driving force ▪ Informal social networks and traditional cultural attitudes in shaping an entrepreneurial spirit 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Generating extra income ▪ To be independent and own boss ▪ Existence of an entrepreneurial family tradition
<i>Market opportunities:</i>	<i>Market opportunities:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Existence of a special ethnic market ▪ A potential for organizing enterprise at the interface of two cultures ▪ Demand for socio-cultural and ethnic products ▪ Market niches for specific cultural or ethnic goods ▪ Potential competitive advantages that are offered by ethnic community ▪ Ethnic loyalty between ethnic enterprises and their clients 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Existence of culturally special female market ▪ Demand for female services
<i>Network opportunities:</i>	<i>Network opportunities:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Existence of an ethnic and informal network in terms of information sources ▪ Flexible and efficient possibilities for the recruitment of personnel and the acquisition of capital created by social bonds 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Existence of a female network in terms of information exchange
<i>Management opportunities:</i>	<i>Management opportunities:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Different management styles and enterprise structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Different management styles and enterprise structures
SUPPLY SIDE	SUPPLY SIDE
<i>Motivation and driving force:</i>	<i>Motivation and driving force:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Positive motivation on ethnic entrepreneurial spirit as a role model 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Positive motivation on female entrepreneurial spirit as a role model
<i>Market opportunities:</i>	<i>Market opportunities:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A special enterprise at the interface of two cultures ▪ Supply for socio-cultural and ethnic products ▪ Creation of employment possibilities ▪ Market niches for future ethnic generations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Supply for female services ▪ Creation of employment possibilities ▪ Market niches for future female generations
<i>Network opportunities:</i>	<i>Network opportunities:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic and informal network in terms of entrepreneurial experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Female and informal network in terms of entrepreneurial experience
<i>Provided opportunities to urban economy:</i>	<i>Provided opportunities to urban economy:</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Opportunities for urban revitalization/development of local economies ▪ Job-creating potential and open-ended capacities for economic growth creation ▪ Economic and cultural diversities ▪ Reducing unemployment ▪ Resolving the problematic employment situation of young people in ethnic segment ▪ Reducing social exclusion ▪ Raising living standards in ethnic groups that can be often among the more disadvantaged in society 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Opportunities for urban revitalization/development of local economies ▪ Job-creating potential and open-ended capacities for economic growth creation ▪ Economic and cultural diversities ▪ Reducing unemployment ▪ Resolving the problematic employment situation of women

Table 3 Some problems and barriers of ethnic and female entrepreneurs/entrepreneurship

ETHNIC PROBLEMS AND BARRIERS	FEMALE PROBLEMS AND BARRIERS
<p><i>Administrative and regulatory barriers:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Less experience in acquiring information about relevant administrative regulations <p><i>Access to finance:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of capital and credit ▪ Lack of knowledge ▪ Lack of financial and managerial know-how <p><i>Ethnic-based obstacles:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cultural and social values ▪ Language ▪ Lack of education ▪ Lack of management skills <p><i>Networks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Exclusion from “non-ethnic” informal business networks ▪ Constraints on access to formal business networks <p><i>Opportunities:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Unequal opportunities (between natives and non-natives) in terms of work experience <p><i>Discrimination:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Ethnic discrimination 	<p><i>Administrative and regulatory barriers:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Less experience in acquiring information about relevant administrative regulations <p><i>Access to finance:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lack of capital and credit ▪ Lack of knowledge ▪ Lack of financial and managerial know-how <p><i>Gender-based obstacles:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Cultural and social values ▪ Unconventional thinking ▪ Family responsibilities ▪ Lack of management skills ▪ Small amounts of personal capital <p><i>Networks:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Exclusion from “old boys” informal business networks <p><i>Opportunities:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Unequal opportunities (between male and female) in terms of work experience <p><i>Discrimination:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Gender discrimination

these two groups may be their “minority” character in urban economic life. While ethnic groups are “minorities” as non-natives, females are another kind of “minorities” with often a lower participation level in urban economic life in an often male dominant business world. However, each of the groups is itself heterogeneous, with a wide variety of qualifications, experiences, resources, problems and needs, operating within a variety of different social frameworks.

After this comparison what can we say for ethnic female entrepreneurship? How do ethnic and gender characteristics, opportunities and barriers affect ethnic female entrepreneurs? This double-sided effect brings together double barriers or more opportunities? We can a priori say that ethnic female entrepreneurs can have more problems than ethnic male entrepreneurs and also female entrepreneurs. However, if ethnic female entrepreneurs can combine their ethnic opportunities with their female ones, they can achieve more success than their female and ethnic male counterparts (Figure 1). Besides the general demand of the market, they can serve for culturally ethnic and female needs and they can benefit from their ethnic market and network opportunities. They can survive and manage their enterprises more easily with the supports of their networks in terms of acquisition of capital, recruitment of personnel and ethnic loyal relations with clients. However, all these factors depend on the cultural motives, attitudes and behaviour of ethnic groups and for describing a more clear profile of ethnic female entrepreneurs it is required further information and empirical testing.

5. A Case Study on Turkish Female Entrepreneurs in Amsterdam

To investigate ethnic female entrepreneurs who have a dual character, ethnic and female, the present paper deals with the following question: “*Are ethnic female entrepreneurs special ethnic entrepreneurs or special female entrepreneurs?*” In this paper we will concentrate on the “*ethnic female profile*”, that is the combined ethnic and gender effects of entrepreneurship. From this perspective, this paper will test hypotheses on this issue, viz. experience and driving force; motivation; network, information and support; satisfaction and performance; goals, plans and strategies for future.

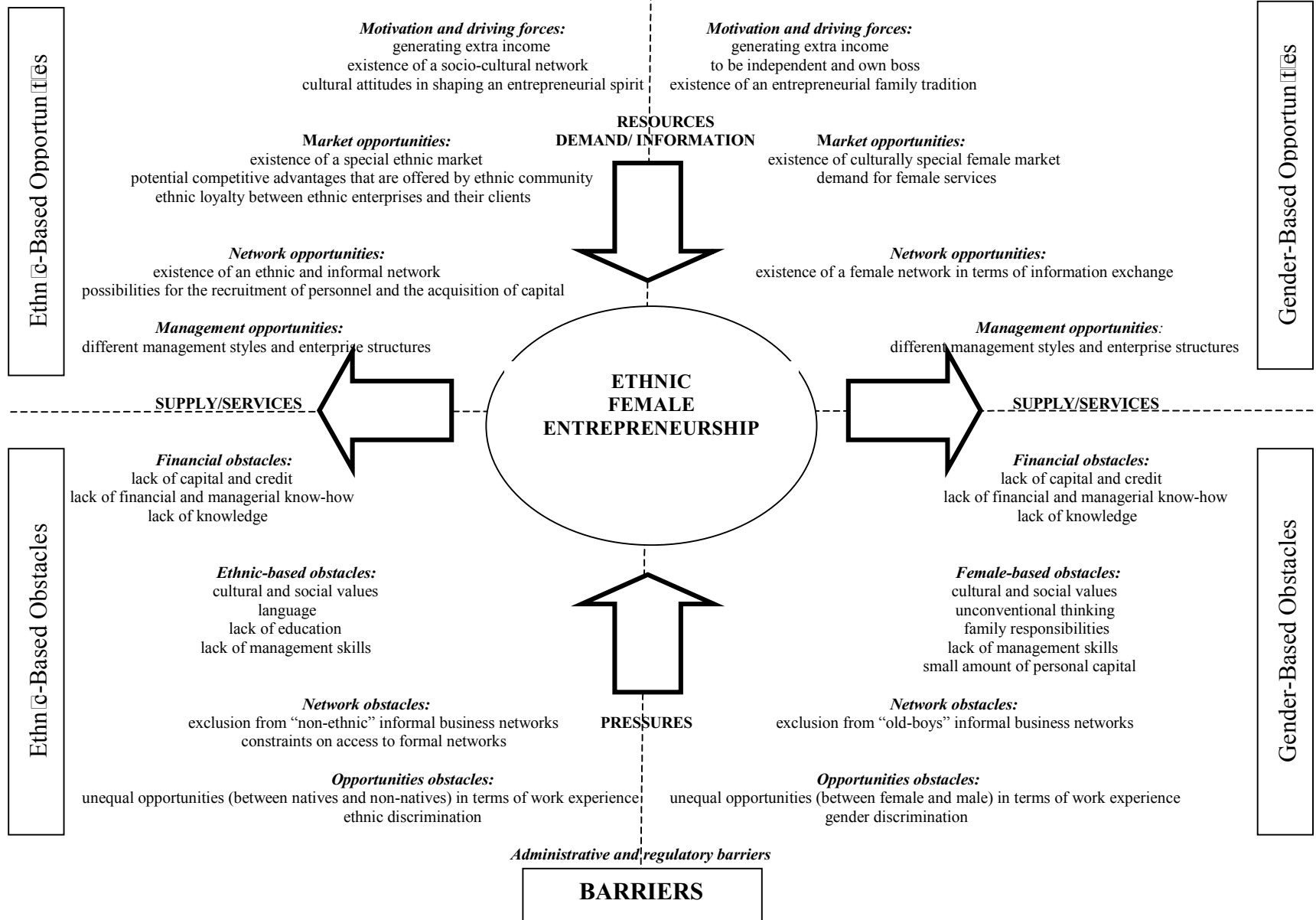
The empirical data of our research is based on the in-depth personal interviews, held in February and March of 2002 among 25 Turkish female entrepreneurs in Amsterdam. As there is no disaggregated data in terms of the ethnicity and gender at the Chamber of Commerce, much information about the entrepreneurs was provided during the survey in an informal way using the ethnic networks and relations among entrepreneurs. Although there is no official or business organization for ethnic business, these ethnic networks and relationships were very useful to reach other entrepreneurs, especially those in the same sector.

Personal Characteristics of Turkish Female Entrepreneurs

This sample contains only Turkish female entrepreneurs who own and operate a firm in Amsterdam; in other words, all entrepreneurs in our sample are self-employed. Reexamination of the personal characteristics of the entrepreneurs (Table 4), shows that almost half of the entrepreneurs (48%) are between the age 36 and 40, and that most of them are married (72%) with children (76%). More than half of the entrepreneurs (56%) graduated from middle level vocational schools and they have no language problem: 76% can speak Dutch fluently or good. Their arrival year in the Netherlands varies, but more than one third

ETHNIC ENTREPRENEURSHIP

FEMALE ENTREPRENEURSHIP



(36%) came between 1970 and 1980. These personal characteristics of the Turkish female entrepreneurs are largely similar to the personal characteristics of female entrepreneurs in other countries.

Table 4 Personal characteristics of Turkish female entrepreneurs

	<i>Number of entrepreneurs</i>	<i>Share in total (%)</i>
<i>Age</i>		
21 - 25	4	16,0
26 - 30	2	8,0
31 - 35	4	16,0
36 - 40	12	48,0
41 - 45	3	12,0
<i>Marital status</i>		
Single	2	8,0
Married	18	72,0
Divorced	5	20,0
<i>Family status</i>		
Without children	6	24,0
With children	19	76,0
<i>Education level</i>		
Primary school level	2	8,0
Secondary school level	5	20,0
Middle vocational training	14	56,0
Higher vocational training	4	16,0
<i>Language ability (Dutch)</i>		
Fluently	12	48,0
Good	7	28,0
Moderate	6	24,0
<i>Arrival year in the Netherlands</i>		
1961-1970	6	24,0
1971-1980	9	36,0
1981-1990	6	24,0
1991-2000	4	16,0
<i>Total</i>	25	100,0

The Features of Turkish Female Enterprises

When we examine the features of enterprises (Table 5), we see that all enterprises are in the service sector, and 80% of the enterprises are in four sectors successively, viz. driver school, hairdresser, fashion shop, and human resource management and temporary job agency. We observe that there is an increase in start-up enterprises after 1996. Between 1996 and 2000, 10 enterprises (40% of the total) have started and this number is equal to the number of the enterprises that have started in the previous two periods. This trend has also continued after 2000 and we see that a total of 60% of the enterprises has started after 1996. When we look at the starting position of the enterprises, 68% of the enterprises newly started and 24% are taken over from aliens in the same sector. Sole proprietorship forms the legal form of most of

the enterprises (88%). On the other hand, most of the enterprises are small (92%), while 48% of the enterprises has no employee, and 44% has less than five workers. These features of Turkish female enterprises are also similar to the features of female enterprises all over the world.

Table 5 The features of Turkish female enterprises

	<i>Number of enterprises</i>	<i>Share in total (%)</i>
<i>Activities of the enterprise</i>		
Driver school	8	32,0
Hairdresser	5	20,0
Fashion shop	4	16,0
Human resource management-temporary job agency	3	12,0
Flowerhouse	1	4,0
Insurance-real estate	1	4,0
Laundry	1	4,0
Press agency	1	4,0
Transport	1	4,0
<i>Foundation year of enterprise</i>		
1986-1990	3	12,0
1991-1995	7	28,0
1996-2000	10	40,0
2001+	5	20,0
<i>Starting situation of the enterprise</i>		
Newly started	17	68,0
Taken over from family in the same sector	1	4,0
Taken over from alien in the same sector	6	24,0
Taken over from family in the different sector	1	4,0
<i>Proprietorship</i>		
Sole proprietorship	22	88,0
Shareholder-husband-children	1	4,0
Shareholder-parents-sisters-brothers	1	4,0
Shareholder-other family members	1	4,0
<i>Number of employees</i>		
No employee	12	48,0
1-5 employees	11	44,0
23 employees	1	4,0
48 employees	1	4,0
<i>Total</i>	25	100,0

6. A Qualitative Test of Attitudinal Hypotheses

Background Information and Driving Force

In the literature on entrepreneurship it is often mentioned that both ethnic and female entrepreneurs start an enterprise with less labor market experience and less entrepreneurial experience (Brush 1992, Fischer et al. 1993, CEEDR 2000, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991, OECD 1998 and 2001a). On the other hand, some studies (Bruce 1999, Brush 1992, Letowski

2001) indicate that if female entrepreneurs have a self-employed husband or family members, the probability to be entrepreneur would increase. Therefore, it can be said that female entrepreneurs tend to benefit from the labor market experience and/or entrepreneurial experience of their husbands or family members and this entrepreneurial spirit is a driving force for them. If these two approaches are combined to describe the driving force of ethnic female entrepreneurs, the first hypothesis of this study can be formulated as follows:

H.1. Ethnic female entrepreneurs start an enterprise with less labor market experience and less entrepreneurial experience (like both ethnic and female entrepreneurs), but most of them have a self-employed husband or family members (like female entrepreneurs); therefore, they benefit from this experience and this entrepreneurial spirit is a driving force for them.

When we look at the position and the previous experience of Turkish female entrepreneurs before the start (Figure 2), we see that more than half (64%) of the entrepreneurs was employed and almost one quarter (24%) was already active as an entrepreneur in their previous position. Similarly, more than half of the entrepreneurs (56%) had experience through employment (36%) and as entrepreneurs (20%) in their previous experience. The entrepreneurs who had no experience constitute only 16% of the total. These figures clearly show that Turkish female entrepreneurs start an enterprise with experience. So, there is no support for the first part of this hypothesis.

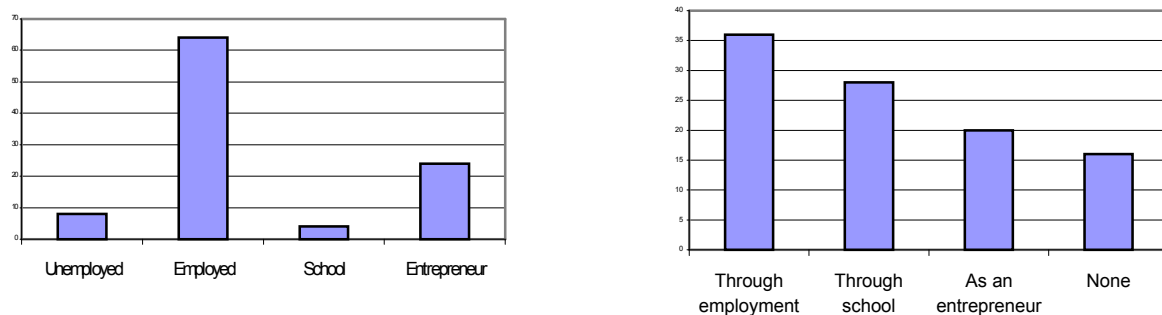


Figure 2 The position before the start and previous experience

On the other hand, the second part of the hypothesis is strongly supported with the very high rate of family members who are entrepreneurs. This is one of the most important results of this study. 80% of Turkish female entrepreneurs have at least one entrepreneur family member (Figure 3). The parents are in the first rank with a rate of 48%, the relatives follow parents with the rate of 44%, the rate of brothers-sisters is 36% and lastly the rate of husband is 20%. While almost half of the entrepreneurs have entrepreneur parents and more than one third have also entrepreneur brothers and sisters, it can be said that this family tradition is a very important driving force for Turkish female entrepreneurs. It is obvious that they benefit from this entrepreneurial experience of the family, and this entrepreneurial spirit is a very important driving force for them. This result shows also that the entrepreneurial spirit of Turkish female entrepreneurs is a not husband matter, but heavily parental (father) matter.

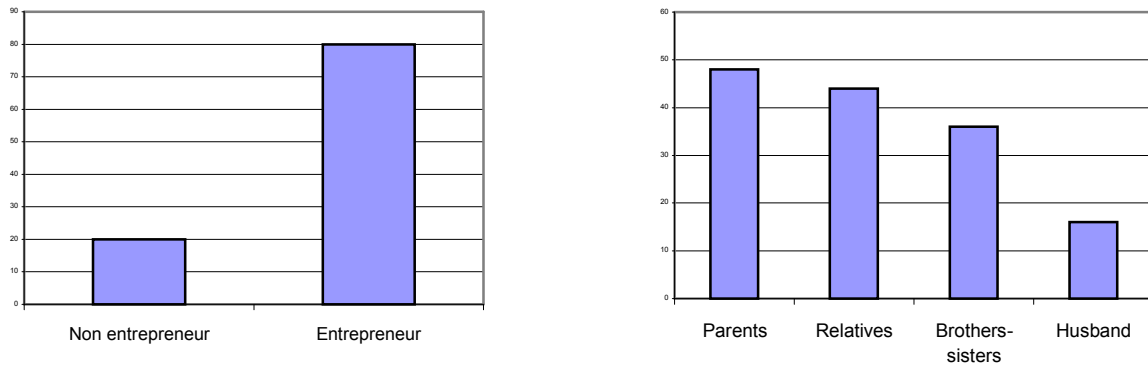


Figure 3 Entrepreneur's family members

In summary, it can be said that Turkish female entrepreneurs start an enterprise with quite some experience. They gain this experience through employment or as an entrepreneur. The entrepreneurial spirit of their family is a very important driving force for them.

Motivation

Most studies on female entrepreneurship indicate that female entrepreneurs start their business with a strong economic motivation such as generating extra income (Brush 1992, Fischer et al. 1993, OECD 1998 and 2001a, Weeks 2001). However, some studies show the contradictory result that non-economic motives, like being independent, are more important in some countries (Letowski 2001, Nielsen 2001). On the other hand, the studies on ethnic entrepreneurship indicate also that ethnic entrepreneurs start their businesses with economic motivation and that they are attracted by an entrepreneurial opportunity (Kloosterman et al. 1998, Masurel et al. 2001). Therefore, the second hypothesis of this study can be formulated as follows:

H.2. Besides the driving force of an entrepreneurial spirit of their families or relatives, most ethnic female entrepreneurs start a business with economic motivations (like both ethnic and female entrepreneurs) and they are attracted by an entrepreneurial opportunity.

However, the results of our study show that economic motivation, such as generating extra income, was not the first reason for Turkish female entrepreneurs to become entrepreneur (Figure 4). Contrary, the most important reasons are to be independent (60%) and to be their own boss (56%). Only 32% of the entrepreneurs indicate that extra income is also one reason within their preferences to become entrepreneur. While work experience is at the fourth rank with a rate of 24%, continuation of family business tradition is the fifth in rank with a rate of 16%. The low rate of continuation of family business tradition is a very interesting result, when it is compared with the rate of entrepreneur's family members. Although 80% of the Turkish female entrepreneurs have entrepreneur family members, only 16% indicate that their motivation originated from this tradition. This situation can be explained in that they separate the spirit to be independent or to be their own boss from this tradition.

Therefore, it can be said that Turkish female entrepreneurs start their businesses with the motivation to be independent or to be their own boss, that this motivation has been affected by the entrepreneurial spirit of family tradition. The first part of the hypothesis is not supported.

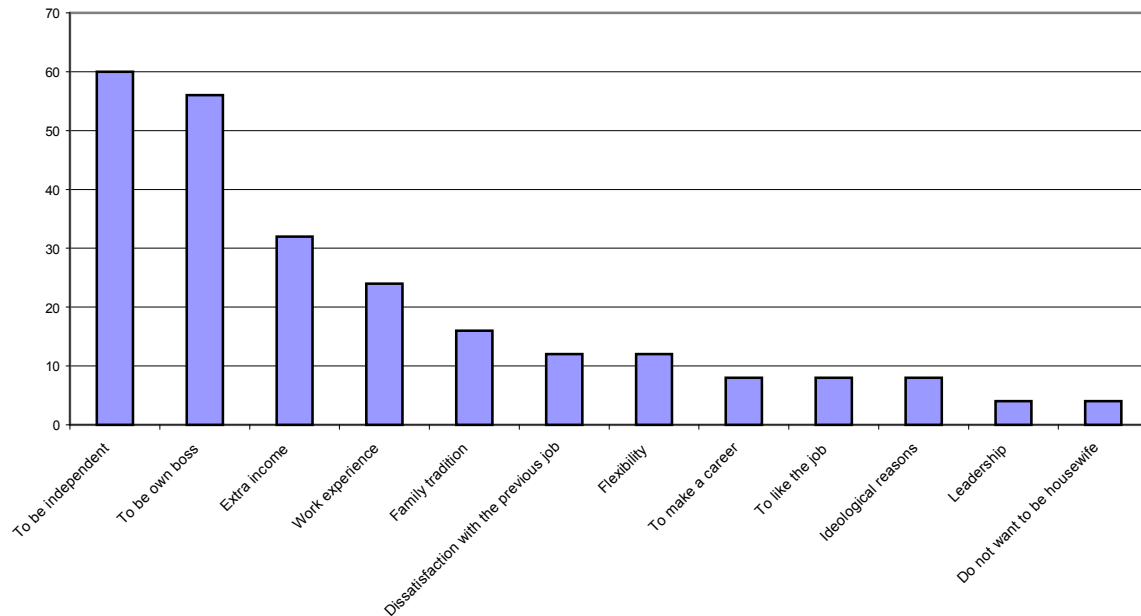


Figure 4 The reasons to be entrepreneur

On the other hand, the specific activities of several enterprises show some distinct ethnic and female entrepreneurial opportunities. For example, in our sample almost one third of the enterprises (32%) are made up of driver schools, and this sector has appeared to serve for clear ethnic and female needs (see Table 5). The clients of these enterprises are Turkish women, and they prefer to learn from other Turkish women for two reasons. The first one is of course the language problem related to learning more easily from women and the second one depends on the cultural and religion reasons such as jealousy of their husbands. This market opportunity has attracted many women to this sector, while female entrepreneurs who work in this sector constitute also “role models” for their clients. Besides this market opportunity, also related opportunities such as the low capital industry of this sector and the flexibility of working hours cause a growth in this sector. This kind of ethnic and female opportunity is less evident for the other sectors, when we examine the profile of their clients (Figure 5 and Figure 6). Some of them serve heavily ethnic and female needs, for example, special dressing for religious women or female hairdressers, but this is not general trend for the entire sector. It can be said that they manage their businesses with economic reasons, and if there are some special market opportunities, they benefit from them; otherwise they do not take into consideration ethnic and female needs and they address other groups. For example, most fashion shop owners and hairdressers have indicated that they do not prefer Turkish clients because of their consumer behaviour -they do not spend more for dressing and caring-, and therefore they address other groups. Most entrepreneurs in other sectors were attracted by their work experience in relation to their knowledge of the market structure of the sector, while some have even taken over the firm they were employed by in the past. In summary, all entrepreneurs are attracted by an entrepreneurial opportunity.

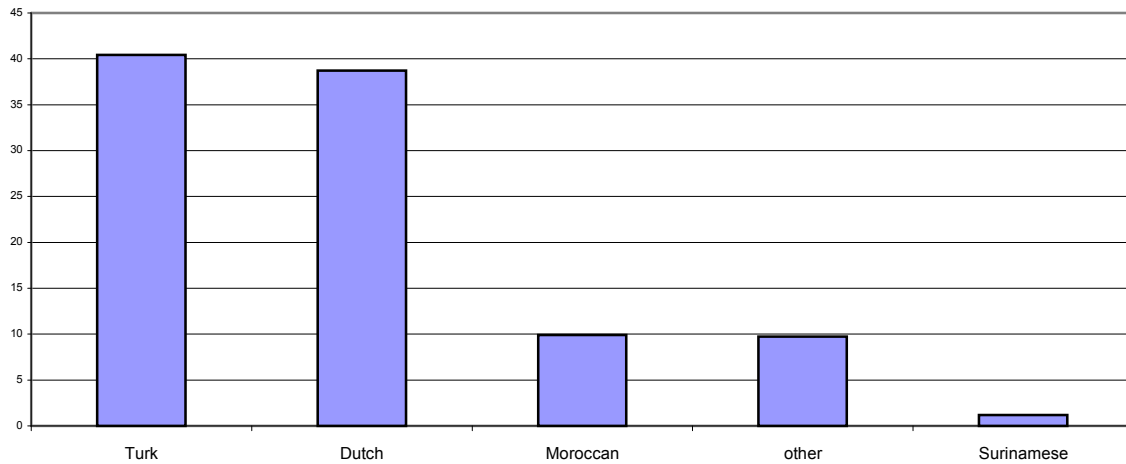


Figure 5 Nationality of the clients

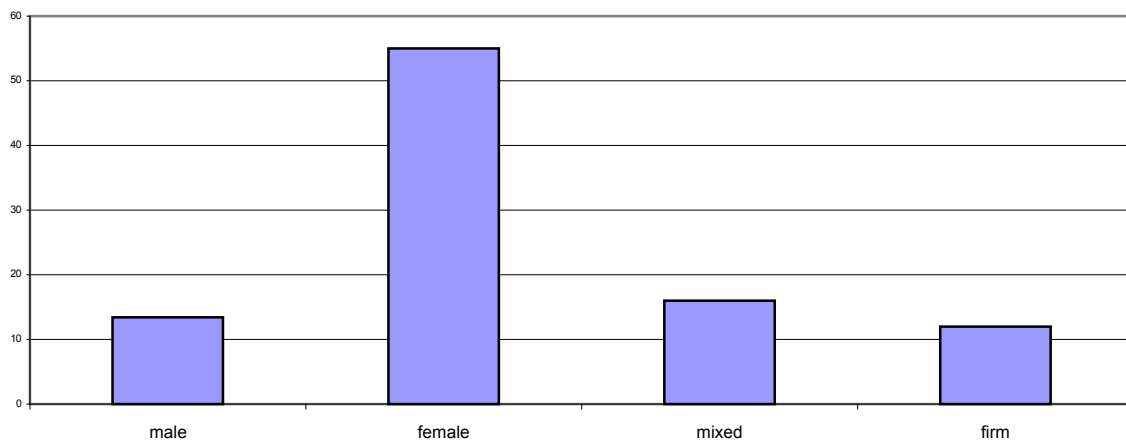


Figure 6 Composition of the clients

Network, Information and Support

It is often argued that ethnic entrepreneurs tend to obtain relevant information in the decision making process from informal information sources such as family members and friends. They tend to use also their own capital or to obtain capital from the same network (Deakins et al. 1997, Van Delft et al. 2000, Kloosterman et al. 1998, Lee et al. 1997, Masurel et al. 2001). This informal network is very important in running an enterprise too. Ethnic entrepreneurs tend to run their enterprises with partners who are family members or relatives. They tend to hire employees of their own ethnic group and they tend to use their personal and ethnic networks in order to recruit new employees. On the other hand, it is often argued that female entrepreneurs also tend to use their own capital or to obtain capital from family members (Bruce 1999, CEEDR 2000, OECD 1998 and 2001a, Verheul and Thurik 2001). Therefore, the next two hypotheses can be formulated

- H.3. Ethnic female entrepreneurs tend to obtain relevant information in the decision-making process from informal information sources such as family members and friends (like ethnic entrepreneurs). They tend also to use their own capital (like both ethnic and female entrepreneurs) or to obtain start-up capital from their ethnic network (like ethnic entrepreneurs).*

H.4. *Ethnic female entrepreneurs tend to hire employees of their own ethnic group and they tend to use their personal and ethnic networks to recruit new employees (like ethnic entrepreneurs). And, these informal ethnic networks often support them.*

When the information sources of the Turkish female entrepreneurs are examined, it is seen that ‘own work experience’ and ‘school’ are the most important information sources for them with a rate of 40% and 32%, successively (Figure 7). The factors referring to informal information sources such as ‘friends in the same sector’ and ‘work experience of a family member’ are not important information sources, contrary to the prior expectations. Most entrepreneurs have indicated that they could gather all information that they need during their education in the school and when they want to start their businesses, they know everything that is necessary. Therefore, the first part of the hypothesis is not supported.

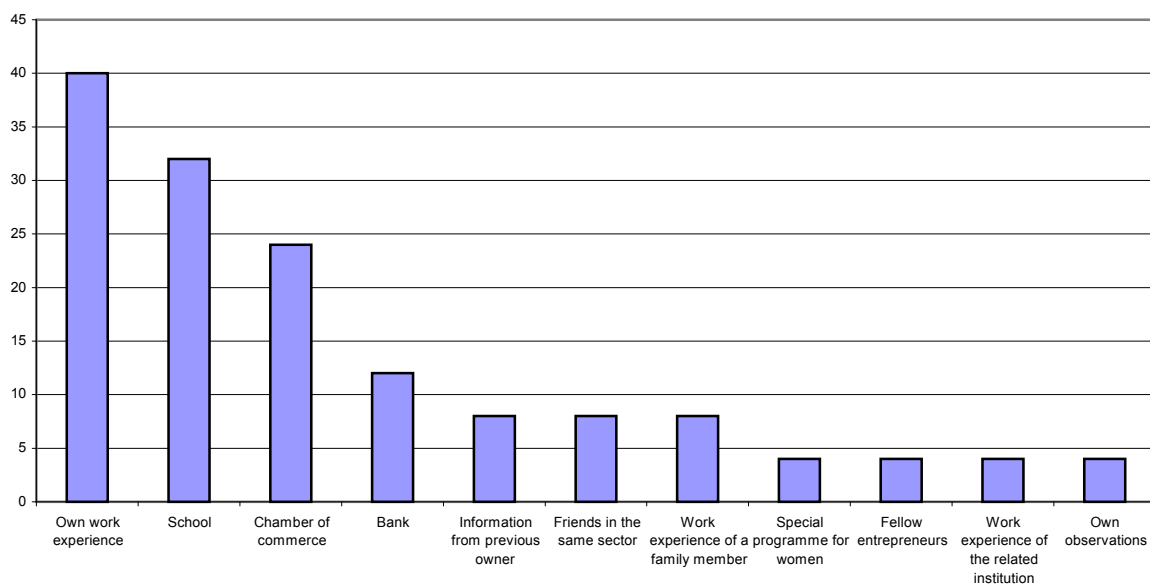


Figure 7 Information sources

On the other hand, the tendencies observed in the use or acquisition of capital in both ethnic and female entrepreneurship are supported for Turkish female entrepreneurs. 40% of the entrepreneurs have used their own capital, while 36% have obtained it from family or friends (Figure 8). Sometimes, they have combined these two sources. Generally, they prefer to obtain capital from family rather than from financial institutions, because of the high interest rates. When they obtain capital from family members, they do not pay interest. On the other hand, 36% of the entrepreneurs have taken credits from financial institutions. However, most of them indicated that they have taken these credits on the names of their husbands or family members for two reasons. The first is that, when they applied to the financial institutions, they had stopped their previous job and were actually unemployed at that stage. And the second reason concerns the difficulties in obtaining credits as a result of a lack of experience as an entrepreneur. Most of them tried to obtain credit from financial institutions on their names, but after their first failure attempts, they used this second way and they obtained credits on the names of their husbands or family members. So, the second part of the hypothesis is supported.

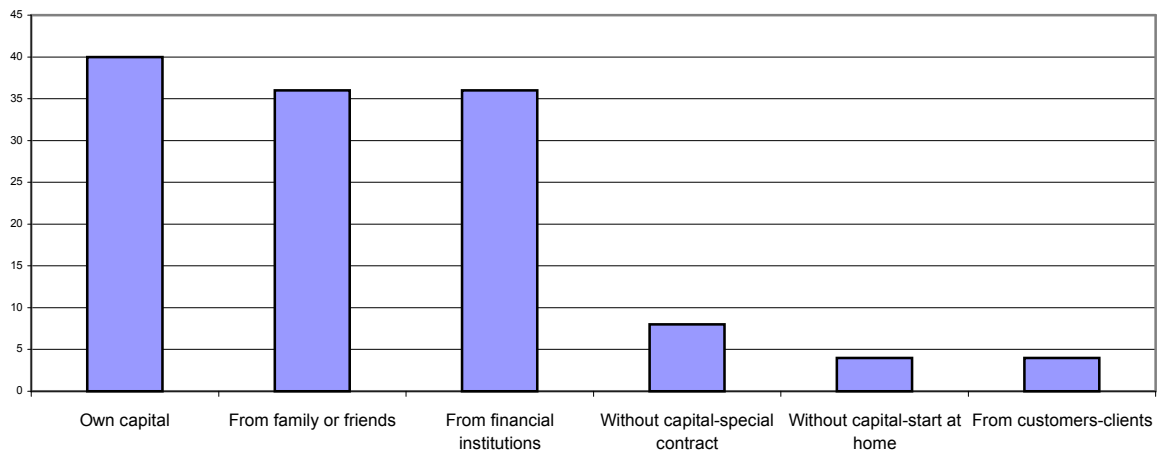


Figure 8 Capital sources

In discussing the features of Turkish female enterprises, it is noteworthy that most of the enterprises are small; 48% of the enterprises has no employee and 44% has less than five workers. When we examine the composition of the employees, it is seen that more than two third of the employees are Turk (69%) (Figure 9). Dutch employees follow Turks with a share of 12%. Only 5% of the employees are family members and, while female workers constitute 56% of the total employees, the share of male workers is 44% (Figure 10). On the other hand, when we ask the criteria in selecting and recruiting new personnel, Turkish female entrepreneurs indicated that they take into consideration respectively, experience (28%), diplomas (20%) and personality such as to be confident and careful etc. (20%). Only one entrepreneur has emphasized the criterion ‘to be Turk’ (Figure 11). However, the high rate of Turkish employees clearly shows that Turkish female entrepreneurs tend to hire employees of their own ethnic group. But for the female employees and family members there is not clear evidence. Thus, we may conclude that they tend to use their personal and ethnic networks to recruit new personnel.

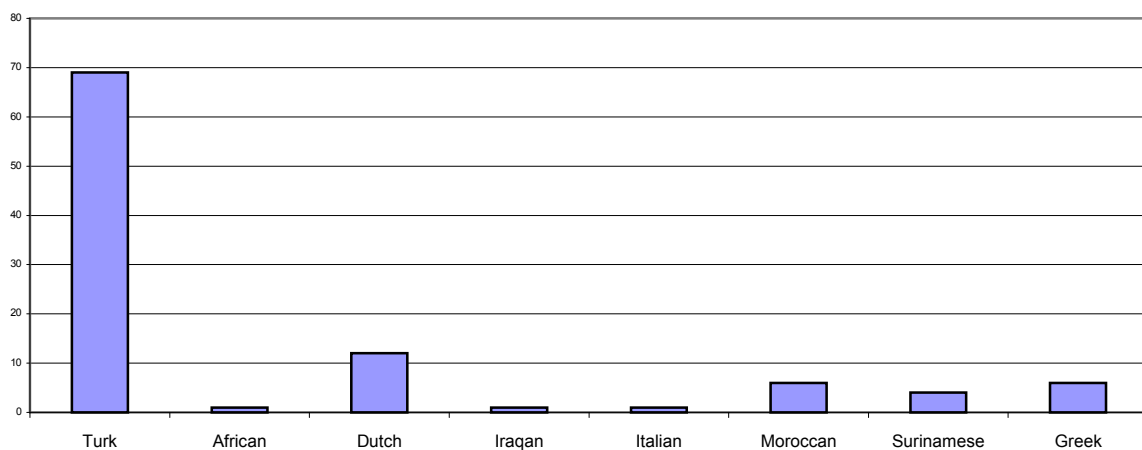


Figure 9 Nationality of the employees

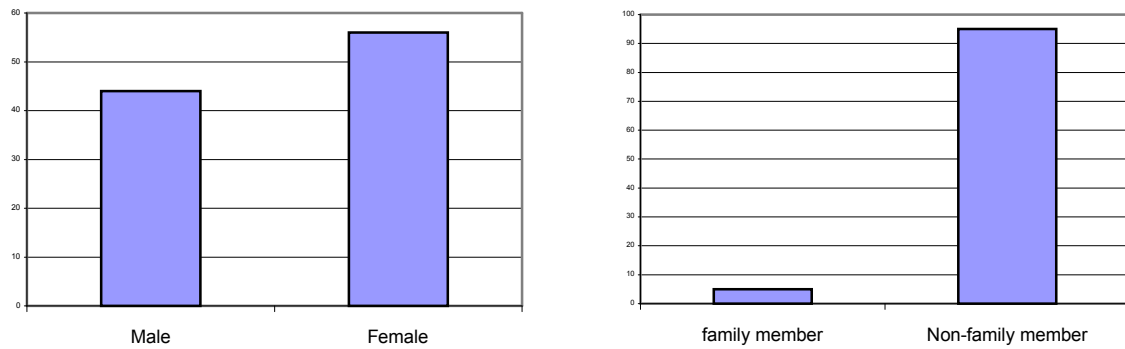


Figure 10 Composition of the employees

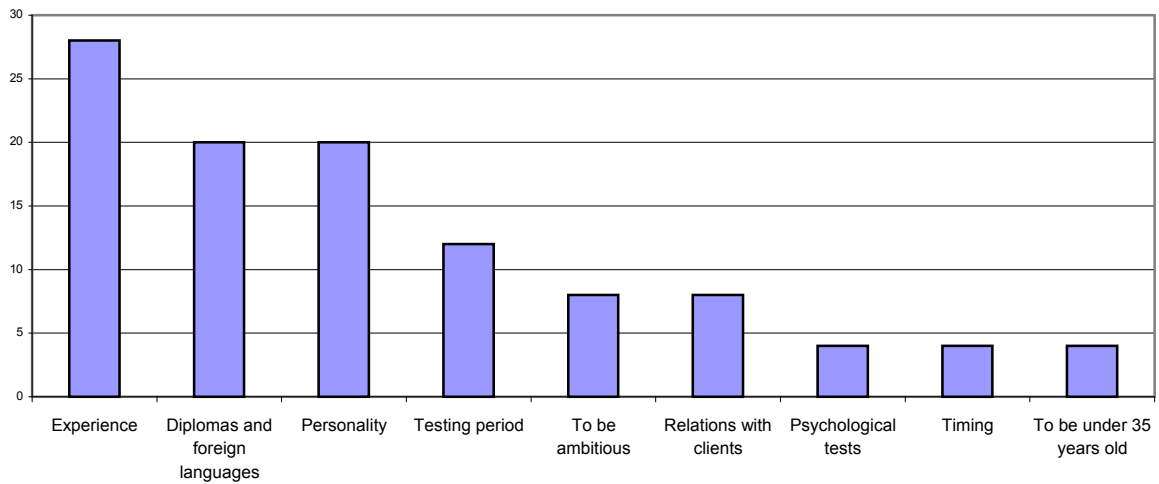


Figure 11 Criteria in selecting and recruiting employees

Next, when we examine the support obtained from family and the social network, 80% of the entrepreneurs have indicated that they have been supported (Figure 12). The most important support provided from the family is the 'caring of children' with a rate of 32%. 'Marketing-sending clients' is the second in rank with a rate of 28%. The support provided as partners of business or family workers follows with a rate of 16%. The rate of support for finding employee is only 12%. It has to be recognized though that they evaluate these supports according to their priorities and their most important needs. From this perspective, the support for finding employees is not among the most important needs or priorities.

As a result, it can be said that Turkish female entrepreneurs receive an important support from their families and social networks in terms of running their enterprise and some family responsibilities such as caring of children.

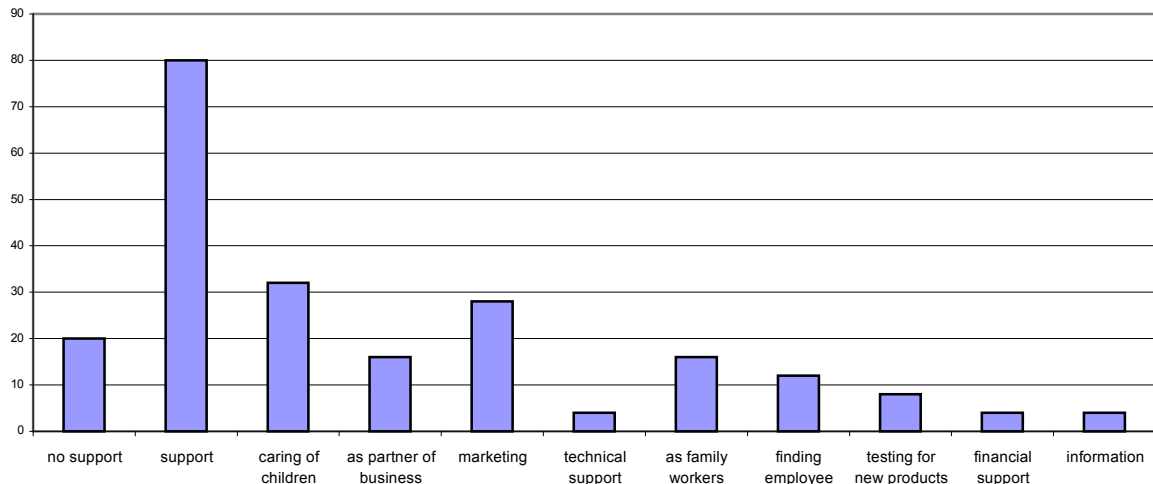


Figure 12 The supports that are provided from families and social networks

Satisfaction and Performance

It is often argued that ethnic entrepreneurs and female entrepreneurs show a low performance and success (Brush 1992, Brush and Hisrich 1999, Buttner and Moore 1997, Fischer et al. 1993, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991, Rietz and Henrekson 2000, Rosa et al. 1994) and especially the success of ethnic entrepreneurs depends on their ethnic networks and support obtained from this network (Deakins 1999, Kloosterman et al. 1998, Lee et al. 1997, Masurel et al. 2001). Therefore, the next hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H.5. Ethnic female entrepreneurs show a low performance (like both ethnic and female entrepreneurs) and their success depends on their ethnic networks and support obtained from this network (like ethnic entrepreneurs).

All Turkish female entrepreneurs have indicated that they are very happy to have their job. When the question was asked “If you get a good job proposal, do you think to close your enterprise?”, 88% of the entrepreneurs answered “No”, while the other 12% answered “It depends on the proposal” (Figure 13). However, this second group has emphasized that they might accept the proposal, if they would have possibilities to run two jobs together or if the position is a ‘manager position’.

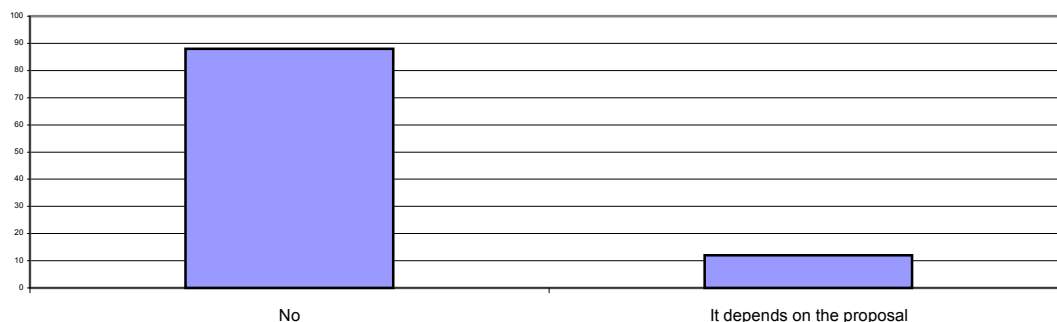


Figure 13 Approaches to other job proposals

On the other hand, when the development of sales and the profit of last year is examined, more than half (56%) has an increase in sales, while 24% have about the same level. Only 12% have a declining profit position (Figure 14). However, when we examine the profit of last year, their success can be clearly seen, 76% of the entrepreneurs had a positive profit, while 12% had neither a positive nor a negative performance. The rate of negative profit is only 4%. These figures show a rather high economic performance.

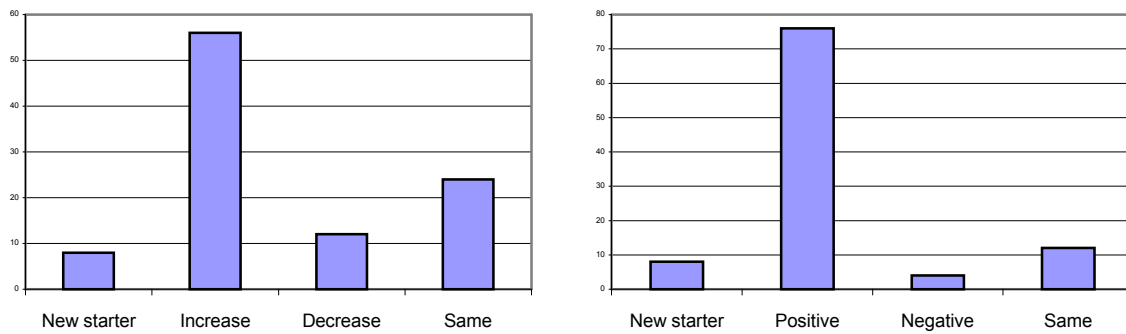


Figure 14 Development of sales and profit

In terms of business success, the figures show that most female entrepreneurs recognize that their success depends on their attitude to be ambitious, patient, obstinate and self-confident (64%) (Figure 15). ‘To work hardly and disciplinary’ and ‘good relationships with clients’ are at the second rank with the rate of 32%. ‘To like the job’ and ‘to do a good job’ follow successively with a rate of 24% and 16%. Only 12% of the entrepreneurs have indicated as a success factor ‘to be supported by spouse and family members’. We may say that they realize that their success depends on their personality and working discipline rather than to be supported by their ethnic networks and supports. In summary, Turkish female entrepreneurs show a rather high performance in terms of growth and profit and their success depends on their personality and working discipline. Therefore, this hypothesis is not supported for Turkish female entrepreneurs.

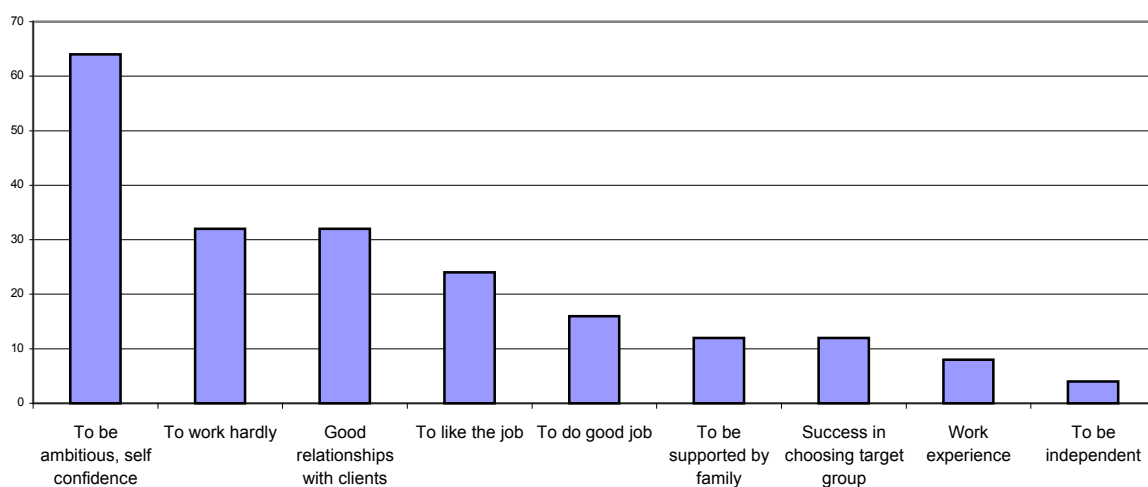


Figure 15 Success factors

Goals, Plans and Strategies for Future

It is often argued that ethnic and female entrepreneurs tend to pursue a niche strategy and to pursue continuity rather than growth. And, they usually adopt a defensive and specialized strategy (Brush 1992, Carter et al. 1997, Cliff 1998, Cromie and Birley 1991, Verheul et al. 2001). Therefore, the final hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H.6. Ethnic female entrepreneurs tend to follow a niche strategy and to pursue continuity rather than growth (like female entrepreneurs).

When we examine the goals, plans and strategies of Turkish female entrepreneurs, most of them indicate that they want to grow their businesses (Figure 16). Only 2 entrepreneurs (8%) do not want any change, but all others want to grow. 28% of the entrepreneurs wants to increase the number of employees, 20% wants a bigger shop, while 12% wants a second shop and 8% wants to open new offices in different cities, 16% wants to increase the interest fields, and 12% wants to increase the number and diversity of products. These figures show that Turkish female entrepreneurs are sure about their success and their niches obtained in the urban economy and that this self-confidence encourages them to grow their enterprises. Therefore, this hypothesis is not supported for Turkish female entrepreneurs.

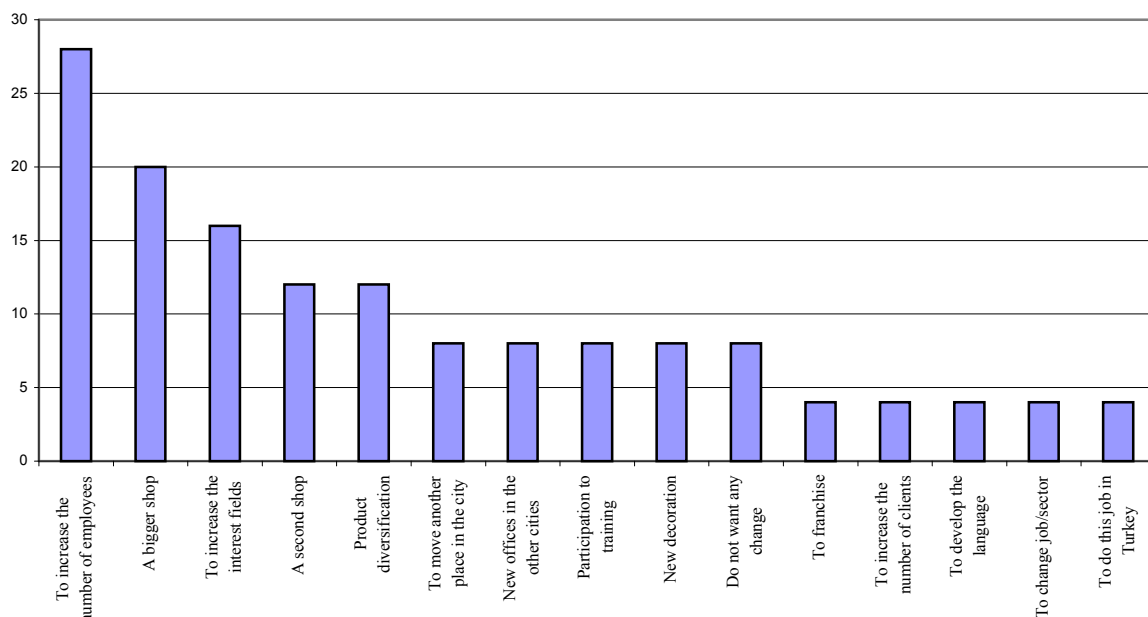


Figure 16 Goals, plans and strategies for future

Are Turkish Female Entrepreneurs Special Ethnic Entrepreneurs or Special Female Entrepreneurs?

All previous observations and findings are relevant to answer the central question of our study: *Are Turkish female entrepreneurs special ethnic entrepreneurs or special female entrepreneurs?*

The personal characteristics of Turkish female entrepreneurs and the features of Turkish female enterprises are very similar to the characteristics of female entrepreneurs and female enterprises in most countries. Therefore, Turkish female entrepreneurs are special female entrepreneurs in terms of these characteristics.

Contrary to the general trends such as less labor market experience and less entrepreneurial experience of both ethnic and female entrepreneurs, our in depth background information about Turkish female entrepreneurs shows that they start an enterprise with quite some experience. Although female entrepreneurs start an enterprise with less experience, it is known that they are generally well educated. Therefore, the background and experience of Turkish female entrepreneurs in terms of female characteristics depend on their education level.

One of the most important results of our study is the very high rate of family members who are entrepreneurs. The driving force of Turkish female entrepreneurs has appeared as having self-employed family members. This entrepreneurial spirit as a driving force is also a female characteristic of entrepreneurship.

The results of this study show clearly that the main motivation of Turkish female entrepreneurs is to be independent and to be their own boss rather than economic motivation such as generating extra income. This kind of motivation is observed generally in female entrepreneurship, and hence we can say that Turkish female entrepreneurs show female characteristics in terms of motivation.

When we evaluate the entrepreneurial opportunities, it is very difficult to generalize these opportunities as ethnic or female. While some sectors or enterprises in one sector serve only ethnic female needs, some others serve generally female needs and a such others serve both female and male needs. Therefore, Turkish female entrepreneurs tend to benefit from both of ethnic and female market opportunities.

Their tendencies in the use or acquisition of capital are similar to both ethnic and female entrepreneurs. They use their own capital or they obtain it from family or friends. On the other hand, their personal and ethnic networks provide much support such as recruitment of new employees, running the enterprise and some family responsibilities like caring of children. In a way, they are special ethnic entrepreneurs in terms of this network and support.

Contrary to the low performance and success of ethnic and female entrepreneurs, Turkish female entrepreneurs show a rather high performance, and their success depends on their personalities such as to be ambitious and to work hard, features which can hardly be seen as typical female characteristics.

Lastly, their strategies for the future show also differences from ethnic and female entrepreneurs, as they want to grow their businesses an ideal that can be explained with special female characteristics: this result shows that they are sure about their success and the continuity of their businesses, and therefore, they can plan to grow.

If we evaluate all our findings, we can say that most characteristics of Turkish female entrepreneurs are very similar to female characteristics (Table 6). They are closer to the species of 'female entrepreneurs' than to that of 'ethnic entrepreneurs'. Thus we may

conclude that “*ethnic female profile*’ is a “*special female profile*” for Turkish female entrepreneurs and that Turkish female entrepreneurs are “*special female entrepreneurs*”.

Table 6 The profile of Turkish female entrepreneurs

	Ethnic characteristics	Female characteristics
Personal characteristics	-	+
Business characteristics	-	+
Experience	-	- / +
Driving force	-	+
Motivation	-	+
Entrepreneurial opportunities	+	+
Access to capital	+	+
Network, information and support	+	-
Performance	-	- / +
Success	-	+
Strategies for future	-	- / +

Legend: (+) confirm, (-) not confirm, (- / +) inconclusive

7. Conclusion and Policy Relevance

Ethnic and female entrepreneurs constitute two special groups in urban economic life with their growing numbers and also their contributions to economic diversity. They offer many opportunities for urban revitalization and the development of local economies with their job-creating potential. This potential does not only reduce unemployment and resolve the problematic employment situation of women and young people in the ethnic segment, but also reduces social exclusion and raises living standards in ethnic groups which are often among the disadvantaged in society. They offer also economic and cultural diversities in the urban economy.

Ethnic female entrepreneurs, who have been affected by the two-sided effects of ethnic and female characteristics, offer special ethnic and female opportunities for the development of local economies. Ethnic female entrepreneurs, on the one hand, offer services for ethnic female needs and they constitute a special market niche in urban economy, and on the other hand they serve not only ethnic female needs, but also the needs of the other groups regardless of their gender or ethnicity.

The results of this study show that -as ethnic female entrepreneurs- Turkish female entrepreneurs are very successful in terms of development of sales, profit and survival conditions. It is clearly seen that they are increasing their market shares with their successful performance. They have become service providers not only for their own ethnic groups but also for other groups in the city. Besides the diversity in the services that they offer in terms of their activities in different sectors and for different targeted groups, they provide employment opportunities especially for their own ethnic groups. And they create also a positive motivation on ethnic female entrepreneurial spirit as a ‘role model’. They combine their ethnic opportunities such as ethnic networks and entrepreneurial family traditions with their work experiences and ambitious personalities and they create success conditions. Their successes give them more self-confidence and encourage them to expand their interest fields and to expand their business.

For understanding the entrepreneurial behaviour and processes of ethnic female entrepreneurs more empirical work on ethnic female entrepreneurs is needed. Different ethnic groups and different cultures can show different characteristics in terms of driving forces, motivation, performance and success conditions. Relevant flanking policies can be developed in a comparative way, e.g., by generating more information about different types of ethnic female entrepreneurs. However, some general policies for improving the participation and contribution of ethnic female entrepreneurs in urban economy may be mentioned, such as the design of appropriate political and economic framework conditions, the development of government programmes to promote ethnic female entrepreneurship and to provide education and training programmes to foster an entrepreneurial spirit.

References

- Bates, T. (1997). Financing Small Business Creation: The Case of Chinese and Korean Immigrant Entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing* **12**: 109-124.
- Borjas, G.J. (1990). *Friends or Strangers: The Impact of Immigrants on the US Economy*. Basic Books, New York.
- Borooah, V.K., M. Hart (1999). Factors Affecting Self-Employment among Indian and Black Caribbean Men in Britain. *Small Business Economics* **13**: 111-129.
- Bruce, D. (1999). Do Husbands Matter? Married Women Entering Self-Employment. *Small Business Economics* **13**: 317-329.
- Brush, C.G. (1992). Research on Women Business Owners: Past Trends, a New Perspective and Future Directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* **17(4)**: 5-30.
- Brush, C., R.D. Hisrich (1999). Women-Owned Businesses: Why Do They Matter? in: Z.J. Acs, *Are Small Firms Important? Their Role and Impact*. U.S. Small Business Administration, Kluwer Academic Publishers 111-127.
- Bull, E., F. Winter (1991). Community Differences in Business Births and Business Growths. *Journal of Business Venturing*, **6**: 29-43.
- Buttner, E.H., D.P. Moore (1997). Women's Organizational Exodus to Entrepreneurship: Self-Reported Motivations and Correlates with Success. *Journal of Small Business Management* **35(1)**: 34-46.
- Carter, N.M., M. Williams, P.D. Reynolds (1997). Discontinuance Among New Firms in Retail: The Influence of Initial Resources, Strategy, and Gender. *Journal of Business Venturing* **12**: 125-145.

CEEDR (2000). *Young Entrepreneurs, Women Entrepreneurs, Ethnic Minority Entrepreneurs and Co-Entrepreneurs in the European Union and Central and Eastern Europe*. Final Report to the European Commission, DG Enterprise, Centre for Enterprise and Economic Development Research (CEEDR) Middlesex University Business School, UK.

Choeni, A. (1997). *Veelsoortig Assortiment*. Het Spinhuis, Amsterdam 1997

Cliff, J.E. (1998). Does One Size Fit All? Exploring the Relationships Between Attitudes Towards Growth, Gender, and Business Size. *Journal of Business Venturing* **13**: 523-542.

Cowling, M., M. Taylor (2001). Entrepreneurial Women and Men: Two Different Species. *Small Business Economics* **16**: 167-175.

Cromie, S., S. Birley. Networking by Female Business Owners in Northern Ireland. *Journal of Business Venturing* **7(3)**: 237-251.

Cross, M. (ed.) (1992). *Ethnic Minorities and Industrial Change in Europe and North America*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Danson, M.W. (1995). New Firm Formation and Regional Economic Development. *Small Business Economics* **7**: 81-87.

Davidsson, P. (1995). Culture Structure and Regional Levels of Entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* **7**: 41-62.

Deakins, D. (1999). *Entrepreneurship and Small Firms*. Second Edition, McGrawHill, London.

Deakins, D., M. Majunder, A. Paddison (1997). Developing Success Strategies for Ethnic Minorities in Business: Evidence from Scotland. *New Community* **23**: 325-342.

Delft, H. van, C. Gorter, P. Nijkamp (2000). In Search of Ethnic Entrepreneurship in the City. *Environmental Planning C* **18**: 429-451.

Esping-Andersen, G. (ed.) (1993). *Changing Classes. Stratification and Mobility in Post-industrial Societies*. Sage, London.

Fagenson, E.A. (1993). Personal Value Systems of Men and Women Entrepreneurs Versus Managers. *Journal of Business Venturing* **8**: 409-430.

Fischer, E.M., A.R. Reuber, L.S. Dyke (1993). A Theoretical Overview and Extension of Research on Sex, Gender, and Entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing* **8(2)**: 2 151-168.

Gorter, C., P. Nijkamp, J. Poot (eds) (1998). *Crossing Borders*. Ashgate, Aldershot.

Greenwood, M.J. (1994). Potential Channels of Immigrants Influence on the Economy of the Receiving Country. *Papers in Regional Science* **73**: 211-240.

Kalleberg, A.L., K.T. Leicht (1991). Gender and Organizational Performance: Determinants of Small Business Survival and Success. *Academy of Management Journal* **34(1)**: 136-161.

Kloosterman, R.C., J. van der Leun, J. Rath (1998). Across the Border; Economic Opportunities, Social Capital and Informal Businesses Activities of Immigrants. *Journal of Ethnic Migration Studies* **24**: 367-376.

Koreen, M. (2001). Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy: Synthesis. *OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy, OECD Proceedings*.

Letowski, M.A. (2001). Improving Statistics on Women Entrepreneurs. *Second OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy, OECD Proceedings*.

Light, I., P. Bhacku (eds.) (1993). *Immigration and Entrepreneurship, Culture, Capital and Ethnic Networks*. Transaction Books, New Brunswick, N.J.

Malecki, E. (1997). Entrepreneurs, Networks, and Economic Development. *Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firms Emergence and Growth* **3**: 57-118.

Massey, D.S., N.A. Denton (1993). *American Apartheid: Segregation and the Making of the Underclass*. Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.

Masurel, E., P. Nijkamp, M. Tastan, G. Vindigni (2002) Motivations and Performance Conditions for Ethnic Entrepreneurship. *Growth & Change*. (forthcoming).

Min, P.G. (1987). Factors Contributing to Ethnic Business: A Comprehensive Synthesis. *International Journal of Comparative Sociology* **28(3/4)**: 173-193.

Nielsen, P.B. (2001). Statistics on Start-ups and Survival of Women Entrepreneurs: The Danish Experience. *Second OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy, OECD Proceedings*.

NFWBO (2002a). *Women-Owned Businesses in the United States, 2002*. Published by Center for Women's Business Research (founded as the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO)).

NFWBO (2002b). *Women-Owned Businesses in the Top 50 Metropolitan Areas, 2002*. Published by Center for Women's Business Research (founded as the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO)).

NFWBO (2002c). *Minority Women-Owned Businesses in the United States, 2002*. Published by Center for Women's Business Research (founded as the National Foundation for Women Business Owners (NFWBO)).

OECD (1998). *First OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs*. OECD Proceedings.

OECD (2001a). *Second OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy, OECD Proceedings*.

OECD (2001b). *Issues Related to Statistics on Women's Entrepreneurship*. Workshop on Firm-Level Statistics, 26-27 November, 2001. DSTI/EAS/IND/SWP/AH(2001)11.

Pahl, R. (1984). *Division of Labour*. Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

Pinch, S. (1993). Social Polarization: A Comparison of Evidence from Britain and the United States. *Environment and Planning A* **25**: 779-795.

Piore, M., C. Sabel (1984). *The Second Industrial Divide*. Basic Books, New York.

Rietz, A.D., M. Henrekson (2000). Testing Female Underperformance Hypothesis. *Small Business Economics* **14**: 1-10.

Rosa, P., D. Hamilton, S. Carter, H. Burns (1994). The Impact of Gender on Small Business Management: Preliminary Findings of a British Study. *International Small Business Journal* **12(3)**: 25-32.

Thakur, S.P. (1998). Size of Investment, Opportunity Choice and Human Resources in New Venture Growth: Some Typologies. *Journal of Business Venturing* **14**: 283-309.

The European Commission (2001). *Fourth Annual Report of the European Observatory for SMEs*.

Tillaart, H. van den, E. Poutsma (1998). *Een Factor van Betekenins: Zelfstandig Ondernemerschap van Allochtonen in Nederland*. Instituut voor Toegepaste Sociale Wetenschappen, Nijmegen.

Verheul, I., P. Risseuw, G. Bartelse (2001). *Gender differences in strategy and human resource management*. Rotterdam Institute for Business Economic Studies 2001/3.

Verheul, I., Thurik, T. (2001). *Start-Up Capital: "Does Gender Matter"*. Small Business Economics 16: 329-345.

Waldinger, R., H. Aldrich, R. Ward (eds) (1990). *Ethnic Entrepreneurs*. Sage Publishers, Newbury Park, Ca.

Ward, R., R. Jenkins (eds) (1984). *Ethnic Communities in Business*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Weeks, J.R. (2001). The Face of Women Entrepreneurs: What We Know Today. *Second OECD Conference on Women Entrepreneurs in SMEs: Realising the Benefits of Globalisation and the Knowledge-Based Economy, OECD Proceedings*.

NOTE DI LAVORO DELLA FONDAZIONE ENI ENRICO MATTEI

Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei Working Paper Series

Our working papers are available on the Internet at the following addresses:

http://www.feem.it/web/attiv/_wp.html

<http://papers.ssrn.com>

SUST	1.2002	<i>K. TANO, M.D. FAMINOW, M. KAMUANGA and B. SWALLOW: <u>Using Conjoint Analysis to Estimate Farmers' Preferences for Cattle Traits in West Africa</u></i>
ETA	2.2002	<i>Efrem CASTELNUOVO and Paolo SURICO: <u>What Does Monetary Policy Reveal about Central Bank's Preferences?</u></i>
WAT	3.2002	<i>Duncan KNOWLER and Edward BARBIER: <u>The Economics of a "Mixed Blessing" Effect: A Case Study of the Black Sea</u></i>
CLIM	4.2002	<i>Andreas LÖSCHEL: <u>Technological Change in Economic Models of Environmental Policy: A Survey</u></i>
VOL	5.2002	<i>Carlo CARRARO and Carmen MARCHIORI: <u>Stable Coalitions</u></i>
CLIM	6.2002	<i>Marzio GALEOTTI, Alessandro LANZA and Matteo MANERA: <u>Rockets and Feathers Revisited: An International Comparison on European Gasoline Markets</u></i>
ETA	7.2002	<i>Effrosyni DIAMANTOUDI and Eftichios S. SARTZETAKIS: <u>Stable International Environmental Agreements: An Analytical Approach</u></i>
KNOW	8.2002	<i>Alain DESDOIGTS: <u>Neoclassical Convergence Versus Technological Catch-up: A Contribution for Reaching a Consensus</u></i>
NRM	9.2002	<i>Giuseppe DI VITA: <u>Renewable Resources and Waste Recycling</u></i>
KNOW	10.2002	<i>Giorgio BRUNELLO: <u>Is Training More Frequent when Wage Compression is Higher? Evidence from 11 European Countries</u></i>
ETA	11.2002	<i>Mordecai KURZ, Hehui JIN and Maurizio MOTOLESE: <u>Endogenous Fluctuations and the Role of Monetary Policy</u></i>
KNOW	12.2002	<i>Reyer GERLAGH and Marjan W. HOFKES: <u>Escaping Lock-in: The Scope for a Transition towards Sustainable Growth?</u></i>
NRM	13.2002	<i>Michele MORETTO and Paolo ROSATO: <u>The Use of Common Property Resources: A Dynamic Model</u></i>
CLIM	14.2002	<i>Philippe QUIRION: <u>Macroeconomic Effects of an Energy Saving Policy in the Public Sector</u></i>
CLIM	15.2002	<i>Roberto ROSON: <u>Dynamic and Distributional Effects of Environmental Revenue Recycling Schemes: Simulations with a General Equilibrium Model of the Italian Economy</u></i>
CLIM	16.2002	<i>Francesco RICCI (I): <u>Environmental Policy Growth when Inputs are Differentiated in Pollution Intensity</u></i>
ETA	17.2002	<i>Alberto PETRUCCI: <u>Devaluation (Levels versus Rates) and Balance of Payments in a Cash-in-Advance Economy</u></i>
Coalition Theory	18.2002	<i>László Á. KÓCZY (liv): <u>The Core in the Presence of Externalities</u></i>
Network Theory	19.2002	<i>Steven J. BRAMS, Michael A. JONES and D. Marc KILGOUR (liv): <u>Single-Peakedness and Disconnected Coalitions</u></i>
Coalition Theory	20.2002	<i>Guillaume HAERINGER (liv): <u>On the Stability of Cooperation Structures</u></i>
Network Theory	21.2002	<i>Fausto CAVALLARO and Luigi CIRAOLO: <u>Economic and Environmental Sustainability: A Dynamic Approach in Insular Systems</u></i>
NRM	22.2002	<i>Barbara BUCHNER, Carlo CARRARO, Igor CERSOSIMO and Carmen MARCHIORI: <u>Back to Kyoto? US Participation and the Linkage between R&D and Climate Cooperation</u></i>
CLIM	23.2002	<i>Andreas LÖSCHEL and ZhongXIANG ZHANG: <u>The Economic and Environmental Implications of the US Repudiation of the Kyoto Protocol and the Subsequent Deals in Bonn and Marrakech</u></i>
ETA	24.2002	<i>Marzio GALEOTTI, Louis J. MACCINI and Fabio SCHIANTARELLI: <u>Inventories, Employment and Hours</u></i>
CLIM	25.2002	<i>Hannes EGLI: <u>Are Cross-Country Studies of the Environmental Kuznets Curve Misleading? New Evidence from Time Series Data for Germany</u></i>
ETA	26.2002	<i>Adam B. JAFFE, Richard G. NEWELL and Robert N. STAVINS: <u>Environmental Policy and Technological Change</u></i>
SUST	27.2002	<i>Joseph C. COOPER and Giovanni SIGNORELLO: <u>Farmer Premiums for the Voluntary Adoption of Conservation Plans</u></i>
SUST	28.2002	<i><u>The ANSEA Network: Towards An Analytical Strategic Environmental Assessment</u></i>
KNOW	29.2002	<i>Paolo SURICO: <u>Geographic Concentration and Increasing Returns: a Survey of Evidence</u></i>
ETA	30.2002	<i>Robert N. STAVINS: <u>Lessons from the American Experiment with Market-Based Environmental Policies</u></i>

NRM	31.2002	<i>Carlo GIUPPONI and Paolo ROSATO: <u>Multi-Criteria Analysis and Decision-Support for Water Management at the Catchment Scale: An Application to Diffuse Pollution Control in the Venice Lagoon</u></i>
NRM	32.2002	<i>Robert N. STAVINS: <u>National Environmental Policy During the Clinton Years</u></i>
KNOW	33.2002	<i>A. SOUBEYRAN and H. STAHN : <u>Do Investments in Specialized Knowledge Lead to Composite Good Industries?</u></i>
KNOW	34.2002	<i>G. BRUNELLO, M.L. PARISI and Daniela SONEDDA: <u>Labor Taxes, Wage Setting and the Relative Wage Effect</u></i>
CLIM	35.2002	<i>C. BOEMARE and P. QUIRION (lv): <u>Implementing Greenhouse Gas Trading in Europe: Lessons from Economic Theory and International Experiences</u></i>
CLIM	36.2002	<i>T. TIETENBERG (lv): <u>The Tradable Permits Approach to Protecting the Commons: What Have We Learned?</u></i>
CLIM	37.2002	<i>K. REHDANZ and R.J.S. TOL (lv): <u>On National and International Trade in Greenhouse Gas Emission Permits</u></i>
CLIM	38.2002	<i>C. FISCHER (lv): <u>Multinational Taxation and International Emissions Trading</u></i>
SUST	39.2002	<i>G. SIGNORELLO and G. PAPPALARDO: <u>Farm Animal Biodiversity Conservation Activities in Europe under the Framework of Agenda 2000</u></i>
NRM	40.2002	<i>S.M. CAVANAGH, W. M. HANEMANN and R. N. STAVINS: <u>Muffled Price Signals: Household Water Demand under Increasing-Block Prices</u></i>
NRM	41.2002	<i>A. J. PLANTINGA, R. N. LUBOWSKI and R. N. STAVINS: <u>The Effects of Potential Land Development on Agricultural Land Prices</u></i>
CLIM	42.2002	<i>C. OHL (lvi): <u>Inducing Environmental Co-operation by the Design of Emission Permits</u></i>
CLIM	43.2002	<i>J. EYCKMANS, D. VAN REGEMORTER and V. VAN STEENBERGHE (lvi): <u>Is Kyoto Fatally Flawed? An Analysis with MacGEM</u></i>
CLIM	44.2002	<i>A. ANTOCI and S. BORGHESI (lvi): <u>Working Too Much in a Polluted World: A North-South Evolutionary Model</u></i>
ETA	45.2002	<i>P. G. FREDRIKSSON, Johan A. LIST and Daniel MILLIMET (lvi): <u>Chasing the Smokestack: Strategic Policymaking with Multiple Instruments</u></i>
ETA	46.2002	<i>Z. YU (lvi): <u>A Theory of Strategic Vertical DFI and the Missing Pollution-Haven Effect</u></i>
SUST	47.2002	<i>Y. H. FARZIN: <u>Can an Exhaustible Resource Economy Be Sustainable?</u></i>
SUST	48.2002	<i>Y. H. FARZIN: <u>Sustainability and Hamiltonian Value</u></i>
KNOW	49.2002	<i>C. PIGA and M. VIVARELLI: <u>Cooperation in R&D and Sample Selection</u></i>
Coalition	50.2002	<i>M. SERTEL and A. SLINKO (liv): <u>Ranking Committees, Words or Multisets</u></i>
Theory		
Network		
Coalition	51.2002	<i>Sergio CURRARINI (liv): <u>Stable Organizations with Externalities</u></i>
Theory		
Network		
ETA	52.2002	<i>Robert N. STAVINS: <u>Experience with Market-Based Policy Instruments</u></i>
ETA	53.2002	<i>C.C. JAEGER, M. LEIMBACH, C. CARRARO, K. HASSELMANN, J.C. HOURCADE, A. KEELER and R. KLEIN (liii): <u>Integrated Assessment Modeling: Modules for Cooperation</u></i>
CLIM	54.2002	<i>Scott BARRETT (liii): <u>Towards a Better Climate Treaty</u></i>
ETA	55.2002	<i>Richard G. NEWELL and Robert N. STAVINS: <u>Cost Heterogeneity and the Potential Savings from Market-Based Policies</u></i>
SUST	56.2002	<i>Paolo ROSATO and Edi DEFRANCESCO: <u>Individual Travel Cost Method and Flow Fixed Costs</u></i>
SUST	57.2002	<i>Vladimir KOTOV and Elena NIKITINA (lvii): <u>Reorganisation of Environmental Policy in Russia: The Decade of Success and Failures in Implementation of Perspective Quests</u></i>
SUST	58.2002	<i>Vladimir KOTOV (lvii): <u>Policy in Transition: New Framework for Russia's Climate Policy</u></i>
SUST	59.2002	<i>Fanny MISSELDT and Arturo VILLAVICENCO (lvii): <u>How Can Economies in Transition Pursue Emissions Trading or Joint Implementation?</u></i>
VOL	60.2002	<i>Giovanni DI BARTOLOMEO, Jacob ENGWERDA, Joseph PLASMANS and Bas VAN AARLE: <u>Staying Together or Breaking Apart: Policy-Makers' Endogenous Coalitions Formation in the European Economic and Monetary Union</u></i>
ETA	61.2002	<i>Robert N. STAVINS, Alexander F. WAGNER and Gernot WAGNER: <u>Interpreting Sustainability in Economic Terms: Dynamic Efficiency Plus Intergenerational Equity</u></i>
PRIV	62.2002	<i>Carlo CAPUANO: <u>Demand Growth, Entry and Collusion Sustainability</u></i>
PRIV	63.2002	<i>Federico MUNARI and Raffaele ORIANI: <u>Privatization and R&D Performance: An Empirical Analysis Based on Tobin's Q</u></i>
PRIV	64.2002	<i>Federico MUNARI and Maurizio SOBRERO: <u>The Effects of Privatization on R&D Investments and Patent Productivity</u></i>
SUST	65.2002	<i>Orley ASHENFELTER and Michael GREENSTONE: <u>Using Mandated Speed Limits to Measure the Value of a Statistical Life</u></i>
ETA	66.2002	<i>Paolo SURICO: <u>US Monetary Policy Rules: the Case for Asymmetric Preferences</u></i>
PRIV	67.2002	<i>Rinaldo BRAU and Massimo FLORIO: <u>Privatisations as Price Reforms: Evaluating Consumers' Welfare Changes in the U.K.</u></i>
CLIM	68.2002	<i>Barbara K. BUCHNER and Roberto ROSON: <u>Conflicting Perspectives in Trade and Environmental Negotiations</u></i>
CLIM	69.2002	<i>Philippe QUIRION: <u>Complying with the Kyoto Protocol under Uncertainty: Taxes or Tradable Permits?</u></i>
SUST	70.2002	<i>Anna ALBERINI, Patrizia RIGANTI and Alberto LONGO: <u>Can People Value the Aesthetic and Use Services of Urban Sites? Evidence from a Survey of Belfast Residents</u></i>
SUST	71.2002	<i>Marco PERCOCO: <u>Discounting Environmental Effects in Project Appraisal</u></i>

NRM	72.2002	<i>Philippe BONTEMS and Pascal FAVARD: <u>Input Use and Capacity Constraint under Uncertainty: The Case of Irrigation</u></i>
PRIV	73.2002	<i>Mohammed OMRAN: <u>The Performance of State-Owned Enterprises and Newly Privatized Firms: Empirical Evidence from Egypt</u></i>
PRIV	74.2002	<i>Mike BURKART, Fausto PANUNZI and Andrei SHLEIFER: <u>Family Firms</u></i>
PRIV	75.2002	<i>Emmanuelle AURIOL, Pierre M. PICARD: <u>Privatizations in Developing Countries and the Government Budget Constraint</u></i>
PRIV	76.2002	<i>Nichole M. CASTATER: <u>Privatization as a Means to Societal Transformation: An Empirical Study of Privatization in Central and Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union</u></i>
PRIV	77.2002	<i>Christoph LÜLSFESMANN: <u>Benevolent Government, Managerial Incentives, and the Virtues of Privatization</u></i>
PRIV	78.2002	<i>Kate BISHOP, Igor FILATOTCHEV and Tomasz MICKIEWICZ: <u>Endogenous Ownership Structure: Factors Affecting the Post-Privatisation Equity in Largest Hungarian Firms</u></i>
PRIV	79.2002	<i>Theodora WELCH and Rick MOLZ: <u>How Does Trade Sale Privatization Work? Evidence from the Fixed-Line Telecommunications Sector in Developing Economies</u></i>
PRIV	80.2002	<i>Alberto R. PETRUCCI: <u>Government Debt, Agent Heterogeneity and Wealth Displacement in a Small Open Economy</u></i>
CLIM	81.2002	<i>Timothy SWANSON and Robin MASON (Ivi): <u>The Impact of International Environmental Agreements: The Case of the Montreal Protocol</u></i>
PRIV	82.2002	<i>George R.G. CLARKE and Lixin Colin XU: <u>Privatization, Competition and Corruption: How Characteristics of Bribe Takers and Payers Affect Bribe Payments to Utilities</u></i>
PRIV	83.2002	<i>Massimo FLORIO and Katuscia MANZONI: <u>The Abnormal Returns of UK Privatisations: From Underpricing to Outperformance</u></i>
NRM	84.2002	<i>Nelson LOURENÇO, Carlos RUSSO MACHADO, Maria do ROSÁRIO JORGE and Luís RODRIGUES: <u>An Integrated Approach to Understand Territory Dynamics. The Coastal Alentejo (Portugal)</u></i>
CLIM	85.2002	<i>Peter ZAPFEL and Matti VAINIO (Iv): <u>Pathways to European Greenhouse Gas Emissions Trading History and Misconceptions</u></i>
CLIM	86.2002	<i>Pierre COURTOIS: <u>Influence Processes in Climate Change Negotiations: Modelling the Rounds</u></i>
ETA	87.2002	<i>Vito FRAGNELLI and Maria Erminia MARINA (Iviii): <u>Environmental Pollution Risk and Insurance</u></i>
ETA	88.2002	<i>Laurent FRANCKX (Iviii): <u>Environmental Enforcement with Endogenous Ambient Monitoring</u></i>
ETA	89.2002	<i>Timo GOESCHL and Timothy M. SWANSON (Iviii): <u>Lost Horizons. The noncooperative management of an evolutionary biological system.</u></i>
ETA	90.2002	<i>Hans KEIDING (Iviii): <u>Environmental Effects of Consumption: An Approach Using DEA and Cost Sharing</u></i>
ETA	91.2002	<i>Wietze LISE (Iviii): <u>A Game Model of People's Participation in Forest Management in Northern India</u></i>
CLIM	92.2002	<i>Jens HORBACH: <u>Structural Change and Environmental Kuznets Curves</u></i>
ETA	93.2002	<i>Martin P. GROSSKOPF: <u>Towards a More Appropriate Method for Determining the Optimal Scale of Production Units</u></i>
VOL	94.2002	<i>Scott BARRETT and Robert STAVINS: <u>Increasing Participation and Compliance in International Climate Change Agreements</u></i>
CLIM	95.2002	<i>Banu BAYRAMOGLU LISE and Wietze LISE: <u>Climate Change, Environmental NGOs and Public Awareness in the Netherlands: Perceptions and Reality</u></i>
CLIM	96.2002	<i>Matthieu GLACHANT: <u>The Political Economy of Emission Tax Design in Environmental Policy</u></i>
KNOW	97.2002	<i>Kenn ARIGA and Giorgio BRUNELLO: <u>Are the More Educated Receiving More Training? Evidence from Thailand</u></i>
ETA	98.2002	<i>Gianfranco FORTE and Matteo MANERA: <u>Forecasting Volatility in European Stock Markets with Non-linear GARCH Models</u></i>
ETA	99.2002	<i>Geoffrey HEAL: <u>Bundling Biodiversity</u></i>
ETA	100.2002	<i>Geoffrey HEAL, Brian WALKER, Simon LEVIN, Kenneth ARROW, Partha DASGUPTA, Gretchen DAILY, Paul EHRlich, Karl-Goran MALER, Nils KAUTSKY, Jane LUBCHENCO, Steve SCHNEIDER and David STARRETT: <u>Genetic Diversity and Interdependent Crop Choices in Agriculture</u></i>
ETA	101.2002	<i>Geoffrey HEAL: <u>Biodiversity and Globalization</u></i>
VOL	102.2002	<i>Andreas LANGE: <u>Heterogeneous International Agreements – If per capita emission levels matter</u></i>
ETA	103.2002	<i>Pierre-André JOUVET and Walid OUESLATI: <u>Tax Reform and Public Spending Trade-offs in an Endogenous Growth Model with Environmental Externality</u></i>
ETA	104.2002	<i>Anna BOTTASSO and Alessandro SEMBENELLI: <u>Does Ownership Affect Firms' Efficiency? Panel Data Evidence on Italy</u></i>
PRIV	105.2002	<i>Bernardo BORTOLOTTI, Frank DE JONG, Giovanna NICODANO and Ibolya SCHINDELE: <u>Privatization and Stock Market Liquidity</u></i>
ETA	106.2002	<i>Haruo IMAI and Mayumi HORIE (Iviii): <u>Pre-Negotiation for an International Emission Reduction Game</u></i>
PRIV	107.2002	<i>Sudeshna GHOSH BANERJEE and Michael C. MUNGER: <u>Move to Markets? An Empirical Analysis of Privatisation in Developing Countries</u></i>
PRIV	108.2002	<i>Guillaume GIRMENS and Michel GUILLARD: <u>Privatization and Investment: Crowding-Out Effect vs Financial Diversification</u></i>
PRIV	109.2002	<i>Alberto CHONG and Florencio LÓPEZ-DE-SILANES: <u>Privatization and Labor Force Restructuring Around the World</u></i>
PRIV	110.2002	<i>Nandini GUPTA: <u>Partial Privatization and Firm Performance</u></i>
PRIV	111.2002	<i>François DEGEORGE, Dirk JENTER, Alberto MOEL and Peter TUFANO: <u>Selling Company Shares to Reluctant Employees: France Telecom's Experience</u></i>

PRIV	112.2002	<i>Isaac OTCHERE</i> : <u>Intra-Industry Effects of Privatization Announcements: Evidence from Developed and Developing Countries</u>
PRIV	113.2002	<i>Yannis KATSOULAKOS and Elissavet LIKOYANNI</i> : <u>Fiscal and Other Macroeconomic Effects of Privatization</u>
PRIV	114.2002	<i>Guillaume GIRMENS</i> : <u>Privatization, International Asset Trade and Financial Markets</u>
PRIV	115.2002	<i>D. Teja FLOTHO</i> : <u>A Note on Consumption Correlations and European Financial Integration</u>
PRIV	116.2002	<i>Ibolya SCHINDELE and Enrico C. PEROTTI</i> : <u>Pricing Initial Public Offerings in Premature Capital Markets: The Case of Hungary</u>
PRIV	1.2003	<i>Gabriella CHIESA and Giovanna NICODANO</i> : <u>Privatization and Financial Market Development: Theoretical Issues</u>
PRIV	2.2003	<i>Ibolya SCHINDELE</i> : <u>Theory of Privatization in Eastern Europe: Literature Review</u>
PRIV	3.2003	<i>Wietze LISE, Claudia KEMFERT and Richard S.J. TOL</i> : <u>Strategic Action in the Liberalised German Electricity Market</u>
CLIM	4.2003	<i>Laura MARSILLANI and Thomas I. RENSTRÖM</i> : <u>Environmental Policy and Capital Movements: The Role of Government Commitment</u>
KNOW	5.2003	<i>Reyer GERLAGH</i> : <u>Induced Technological Change under Technological Competition</u>
ETA	6.2003	<i>Efrem CASTELNUOVO</i> : <u>Squeezing the Interest Rate Smoothing Weight with a Hybrid Expectations Model</u>
SIEV	7.2003	<i>Anna ALBERINI, Alberto LONGO, Stefania TONIN, Francesco TROMBETTA and Margherita TURVANI</i> : <u>The Role of Liability, Regulation and Economic Incentives in Brownfield Remediation and Redevelopment: Evidence from Surveys of Developers</u>
NRM	8.2003	<i>Elissaios PAPYRAKIS and Reyer GERLAGH</i> : <u>Natural Resources: A Blessing or a Curse?</u>
CLIM	9.2003	<i>A. CAPARRÓS, J.-C. PEREAU and T. TAZDAÏT</i> : <u>North-South Climate Change Negotiations: a Sequential Game with Asymmetric Information</u>
KNOW	10.2003	<i>Giorgio BRUNELLO and Daniele CHECCHI</i> : <u>School Quality and Family Background in Italy</u>
CLIM	11.2003	<i>Efrem CASTELNUOVO and Marzio GALEOTTI</i> : <u>Learning By Doing vs Learning By Researching in a Model of Climate Change Policy Analysis</u>
KNOW	12.2003	<i>Carole MAIGNAN, Gianmarco OTTAVIANO and Dino PINELLI (eds.)</i> : <u>Economic Growth, Innovation, Cultural Diversity: What are we all talking about? A critical survey of the state-of-the-art</u>
KNOW	13.2003	<i>Carole MAIGNAN, Gianmarco OTTAVIANO, Dino PINELLI and Francesco RULLANI (Ivix)</i> : <u>Bio-Ecological Diversity vs. Socio-Economic Diversity. A Comparison of Existing Measures</u>
KNOW	14.2003	<i>Maddy JANSSENS and Chris STEYAERT (Ivix)</i> : <u>Theories of Diversity within Organisation Studies: Debates and Future Trajectories</u>
KNOW	15.2003	<i>Tuzin BAYCAN LEVENT, Enno MASUREL and Peter NIJKAMP (Ivix)</i> : <u>Diversity in Entrepreneurship: Ethnic and Female Roles in Urban Economic Life</u>

(I) This paper was presented at the Workshop “Growth, Environmental Policies and Sustainability” organised by the Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Venice, June 1, 2001

(Ii) This paper was presented at the Fourth Toulouse Conference on Environment and Resource Economics on “Property Rights, Institutions and Management of Environmental and Natural Resources”, organised by Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, IDEI and INRA and sponsored by MATE, Toulouse, May 3-4, 2001

(Iii) This paper was presented at the International Conference on “Economic Valuation of Environmental Goods”, organised by Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei in cooperation with CORILA, Venice, May 11, 2001

(Iiii) This paper was circulated at the International Conference on “Climate Policy – Do We Need a New Approach?”, jointly organised by Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Stanford University and Venice International University, Isola di San Servolo, Venice, September 6-8, 2001

(Iv) This paper was presented at the Seventh Meeting of the Coalition Theory Network organised by the Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei and the CORE, Université Catholique de Louvain, Venice, Italy, January 11-12, 2002

(Iv) This paper was presented at the First Workshop of the Concerted Action on Tradable Emission Permits (CATEP) organised by the Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Venice, Italy, December 3-4, 2001

(Ivi) This paper was presented at the ESF EURESCO Conference on Environmental Policy in a Global Economy “The International Dimension of Environmental Policy”, organised with the collaboration of the Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Acquafredda di Maratea, October 6-11, 2001

(Ivii) This paper was presented at the First Workshop of “CFEWE – Carbon Flows between Eastern and Western Europe”, organised by the Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei and Zentrum für Europäische Integrationsforschung (ZEI), Milan, July 5-6, 2001

(Iviii) This paper was presented at the Workshop on “Game Practice and the Environment”, jointly organised by Università del Piemonte Orientale and Fondazione Eni Enrico Mattei, Alessandria, April 12-13, 2002

(Ivix) This paper was presented at the ENGINE Workshop on “Mapping Diversity”, Leuven, May 16-17, 2002

2002 SERIES

CLIM	<i>Climate Change Modelling and Policy</i> (Editor: Marzio Galeotti)
VOL	<i>Voluntary and International Agreements</i> (Editor: Carlo Carraro)
SUST	<i>Sustainability Indicators and Environmental Valuation</i> (Editor: Carlo Carraro)
NRM	<i>Natural Resources Management</i> (Editor: Carlo Giupponi)
KNOW	<i>Knowledge, Technology, Human Capital</i> (Editor: Dino Pinelli)
MGMT	<i>Corporate Sustainable Management</i> (Editor: Andrea Marsanich)
PRIV	<i>Privatisation, Regulation, Antitrust</i> (Editor: Bernardo Bortolotti)
ETA	<i>Economic Theory and Applications</i> (Editor: Carlo Carraro)

2003 SERIES

CLIM	<i>Climate Change Modelling and Policy</i> (Editor: Marzio Galeotti)
GG	<i>Global Governance</i> (Editor: Carlo Carraro)
SIEV	<i>Sustainability Indicators and Environmental Valuation</i> (Editor: Anna Alberini)
NRM	<i>Natural Resources Management</i> (Editor: Carlo Giupponi)
KNOW	<i>Knowledge, Technology, Human Capital</i> (Editor: Gianmarco Ottaviano)
IEM	<i>International Energy Markets</i> (Editor: Anil Markandya)
CSRM	<i>Corporate Social Responsibility and Management</i> (Editor: Sabina Ratti)
PRIV	<i>Privatisation, Regulation, Antitrust</i> (Editor: Bernardo Bortolotti)
ETA	<i>Economic Theory and Applications</i> (Editor: Carlo Carraro)