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Entrepreneurship as an employment career path and the role of entrepreneurial well-being

PhD Thesis

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Entrepreneurship as an employment career path and the role of entrepreneurial well-being

By

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Abstract

The links between employment and the well-being of people has attracted in recent times the growing interest of researchers in academic, governmental, and non-governmental institutions. A considerable interest has focused on entrepreneurship and the growing number of individuals in self-employment. Entrepreneurial activity has been linked with economic growth and development. Therefore, understanding the *how* and the *why* entrepreneurship and well-being are connected has not only value as academic knowledge, but also value for the society and political decision making. Bearing in mind that people have different preferences, and that those preferences can change over time, it is important for research to examine the phenomena over long periods of time. There have been recently repeated calls for alternative examinations of entrepreneurship as a career path (Burton et al., 2016; Sullivan and Al Ariss, 2019) and as an experience over time (Ryff, 2019; Stephan, 2018). This PhD research examines the allocation of time to self-employment and how self-employment experience is associated with facets of well-being over time. This PhD research critically examines the phenomena using data from the United Kingdom's Household Longitudinal Study survey (UKHLS). Using work histories information from Waves 1 to 9 of the UKHLS, I calculate the proportion of individuals' employment time that was allocated to self-employment, compared to the proportion allocated to wage-employment. This method allows the measuring of self-employment in an alternative way as a continuous employment experience. Using this method, I also investigate how individuals who live or migrate to urban and rural areas allocate time to self-employment, as well as differences between women and men in different age groups. The findings show that self-employment experience affects facets of well-being in a non-monotonic fashion. Moreover, the analysis indicates that these effects not only differ across levels of experience, but also that the effect of self-employment experience differs across the various facets of well-being and between women and men.

Keywords: self-employment, entrepreneurship, well-being, job satisfaction, life satisfaction, gender, rural – urban development

Table of Contents

List of Tables and Figures

List of Tables

List of Figures

Appendix Tables

Preface

"Sadly, sadly, the sun rose; it rose upon no sadder sight than the man of good abilities and good emotions, incapable of their directed exercise, incapable of his own help and his own happiness, sensible of the blight on him, and resigning himself to let it eat him away."
Charles Dickens

Charles Dickens describes the character of Sydney Carton in his novel *'A Tale of Two Cities'*, as a man who has given up his ambitions and has become a depressed, hard-drinking cynic. While not as depressed as Dickens's character, many wage-employees feel trapped in organisational hierarchies and incapable of the direct exercise of their own good abilities. Several will transition to self-employment out of dissatisfaction with their previous work arrangements. However, for a variety of reasons, some will return yet again in wage-employment after spending some time as self-employed. This PhD thesis investigates how contemporary career paths allocate time between wage-employment and self-employment, and examines how the self-employment experience affects facets of well-being.

Several people have played an influential role during my PhD research journey. My first supervisor Professor George Saridakis offered me advice and guidance from day one of my PhD journey. I am especially grateful to him because even while the following year he moved to the University of Kent, he continued to supervise me throughout my PhD research as an external supervisor without any direct financial benefit. With the departure of Professor Saridakis from Kingston University, Professor Chris Hand became my new first supervisor. I count myself lucky to have had Professor Hand as a supervisor. I am thankful for all the help and advice he offered me, and for his friendly nature. I am also grateful to Kingston University for the financial support through the full scholarship it provided me. I could not have completed my PhD studies otherwise. I also need to extend my thanks to Professor Yannis Georgellis for reviewing and contributing to an academic article with me. His comments helped me to re-assess and better develop my academic writing.

In the summers of 2017 and 2019 I had the pleasure of participating in the Essex Summer School in Social Science Data Analysis, which is held annually at the University of Essex in Colchester. I learned a great deal from my tutor Dr Andrew Bell on multilevel modelling, and my tutor Prof. Anja Neundorf on longitudinal analysis. I would like to express my gratitude to Prof. Leo-Paul Dana, who after sharing some interesting discussions with me during the 2019 ESU conference in Naples, he invited me to participate in an upcoming book he co-authored. I am also thankful to Dr Gundi Knies from Understanding Society, for her clarifications on various elements of the survey. I would also like to express my thanks to my PhD fellows and colleagues with whom I shared many hours working in the PhD room on the KBS 4th floor. While the space is limited to mention everyone, I would particularly like to thank Gianluca Fabiano with whom I shared a myriad interesting conversation, and Kate Jones who was always happy to share her insight on career mothers.

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Nicholas Litsardopoulos
Kingston Upon Thames, January 2021

Chapter 1

1 General Introduction

1.1 The structure of the thesis

This thesis investigates self-employment in a novel way. It examines the employment careers of individuals as a continuous experience with periods spent in wage-employment or self-employment. Periods spent in unemployment are also considered. The concept of self-employment as a career option (Douglas and Shepherd, 2002) has been drawing the attention of entrepreneurship scholars, as can be seen by the over 1200 citation of the Douglas and Shepherd (2002) article on Google Scholar. The motivation to examine self-employment as part of a continuous employment experience career path, comes from the increasing realisation among entrepreneurship scholars that the transition to self-employment is no longer exclusively considered as an end state in the careers of individuals (Koch et al., 2021; Marshall, 2016). The continuous changes in the ease of setting up a business and start working for yourself in the United Kingdom (UK) (Bosma et al., 2020; Bosma and Kelley, 2019; Kelley et al., 2015) and elsewhere (World Bank, 2020), are having profound impacts on the employment choices of people.

This thesis attempts to develop the idea of employment careers measured beyond the linear progression in salaried employment in organisations that are terminated by a transition to self-employment as if that is the end of the journey. The concept has been explored in some respect through the framework of boundaryless careers (Arthur et al., 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2008). However, the investigations that exist, typically explore the phenomena from the organisational employee perspective, with the few studies involving self-employment focusing exclusively on freelance work (Leung, 2014; Shevchuk et al., 2015; Smeaton, 2003). Moreover, when reading the early account of Saxenian (1996: 25) on the concept of

boundaryless careers of Silicon Valley, the *boundarylessness* is suggestive of risk taking which is typically associated with entrepreneurial activities:

> *"Silicon Valley's pioneers had the freedom to experiment with institutions and organizational forms, as well as technologies. These young engineers, having left behind families, friends, and established communities, were unusually open to risk-taking and experimentation".*

The thesis consists of three closely related papers which use a new approach of measuring self-employment experience to explore the association of self-employment and facets of well-being, and how self-employment experience differs between urban and rural areas. Major parts of this thesis have been published[1] in peer-reviewed journals or are currently under review in a peer-reviewed journal. The first paper in Chapter 3 examines the association of the cumulative self-employment experience and three facets of well-being: job satisfaction, leisure satisfaction and income satisfaction. The second paper in Chapter 4 investigates association of self-employment experience and life satisfaction. This paper also considers periods of unemployment as part of the allocation of time between employment statuses. The third paper in Chapter 5 examines the allocation of time to self-employment between rural and urban areas residents, accounting for differences between long term residents and recent movers.

1.2 Entrepreneurship as a choice of employment

Work has been central to human life for millennia. It is often said that if one wishes to understand the present, then one needs to know the past. The ancient Greek poet Hesiod (~ 750 BC) in his didactic poem "Works and Days", accounts for life as the variety of work in which

[1] Major parts of Chapter 5 have been published in an article in the Sustainability journal as: Litsardopoulos, N., Saridakis, G. and Hand, C., 2020. The effects of rural and urban areas on time allocated in self-employment: differences between men and women. *Sustainability*, *12*(17), p.7049.

people employ themselves from dusk till dawn, and from one season to another. Hesiod describes life as work over time, suggesting that those who appropriately adjust their work to the seasons are happy and lucky[2] (Evelyn-White, 1914). Today, there is an extensive body of literature in economics, sociology, management, and psychology, which examines how work is associated with well-being (Abreu et al., 2019; Binder and Freytag, 2013; Blanchflower, 2000; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998; Drobnič et al., 2010; Eddleston et al., 2006; Pacheco et al., 2016; Smeaton, 2003; Warr and Inceoglu, 2018).

A segment of the literature on well-being has focused on entrepreneurship and its association with work and life satisfaction (Abreu et al., 2019; Shir et al., 2019). The research output generated in different disciples create a rich and diverse body of literature, which deepens the understanding of the phenomena (Shepherd and Patzelt, 2017). The association of entrepreneurship and well-being is arguably a complex one. For example, differences have been shown to exist between countries (see e.g., Benz and Frey, 2008b), between regions of a single country (Abreu et al., 2019; Hand, 2020), between individuals (see e.g., Ahunov and Yusupov, 2017; Guerra and Patuelli, 2016) and within individuals (see e.g., Benz and Frey, 2004; Binder and Freytag, 2013; Stenard, 2019). Nevertheless, repeating findings suggest that entrepreneurial activity is not driven as much by financial motives, as by non-financial motives (Benz and Frey, 2004; Binder and Freytag, 2013; Burke et al., 2002; Georgellis and Wall, 2005; Stenard, 2019). Additionally, institutional factors favourable to entrepreneurial activities have a beneficial effect on the well-being of the self-employed (Fritsch et al., 2019).

Moreover, individuals may turn to entrepreneurship for a variety of reason that can be largely classified under *opportunity* or *necessity* (Reynolds et al., 2005; Reynolds, Camp, et al., 2002). The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) defines opportunity entrepreneurs as

[2] Hesiod uses the term εὐδαίμων (eudaimon) and *ὄλβιος* [ol-vios], (lucky). It needs pointing out that the ὄλβος [ol-vos] concept of good luck is commonly associated with happiness/prosperity resulting from wealth acquisition.

those involved in creating and growing new firms out of opportunity recognition, whereas necessity entrepreneurs as those who were involved in entrepreneurship because it "presented the best option available for employment but not necessarily the preferred option" (Reynolds, Camp, et al., 2002: 8). Regardless of the initial motivation to start-up a business from a necessity or opportunity perspective, entrepreneurship remains strongly associated with economic well-being and economic growth (Amorós and Bosma, 2013; Haltiwanger et al., 2013; Johansson Sevä et al., 2016; Reynolds, Camp, et al., 2002). Economic growth and economic well-being can explain the great interest in the topic of entrepreneurship. However, focusing on the growth and performance outcomes of entrepreneurship can divert attention from the fact that individuals "pursue entrepreneurship for deeply personal, idiosyncratic reasons" (Wiklund et al., 2019).

GEM explores the cultural and societal values associated with entrepreneurship by examining whether entrepreneurs are well-regarded members of their respective communities and if following the entrepreneurship route is considered a good career option. GEM evidence shows that in Europe entrepreneurs are positively perceived, and in the UK, cultural and social views of entrepreneurs, as well as government entrepreneurship support programs, are consistently above GEM average (Bosma et al., 2020; Bosma and Kelley, 2019; Kelley et al., 2015). Moreover, among the GEM participating countries of the 'Europe & North America' group, the UK scores high on public perceptions about the high status of successful entrepreneurs (i.e., 3 out of 22) and the media attention for entrepreneurship (i.e., 8 out of 22), but just below average on the perception of entrepreneurship as a good career choice (12 out of 22) (Singer et al., 2018). Also, among the GEM countries in the 'Europe & North America' group, the UK scores lower in the TEA by gender among the adult population (Bosma et al., 2020). Interestingly, the UK scores very high in the ease of establishing a business, but the actual number of businesses established are lower than what it would be expected by such a

score among GEM countries. This might indicate that either there are few opportunities or that people do not recognise them (Bosma et al., 2020; Bosma and Kelley, 2019).

The choice of employment plays a central role in people's careers and lives (Budig, 2006; Fölster, 2000; Jayawarna et al., 2013). Employment decisions can have persistent effects on employment career paths (Speer, 2017; Stinebrickner et al., 2019). In his seminal work on vocational development, Super (1953) argues that the process of a career development is a series of employment choices and accumulation of work experience that cannot be easily undone. The employment choices of individuals are adaptive to the job roles available in their environment that can best serve their current and future needs, values, interests, and attitudes (Savickas, 1997; Super, 1980). Choosing into an employment that one feels enthusiastic about and keen on doing, can lead to a meaningful and satisfying career (Shin and Johnson, 1978). Frank Knight (1921: 366) had similarly observed that:

> *"Men may possibly be timid and critical on first embarking in new ventures, but once committed, it seems unquestionable that the general rule is to hold on to the last ditch, and the greater part of the bidders for productive services are owners of businesses already established. The prestige of entrepreneurship and the satisfaction of being one's own boss must also be considered".*

Furthermore, the management scholar Peter F. Drucker argues that what distinguishes work from play is a debate that remains unsettled (Drucker, 1982). He observes that the two activities can often be identical, yet the personal outcomes are very different when examined from a psychological and social perspective. He explains that this is because *play* is something personal where "the purpose of play lies in the player", while *work* is an impersonal activity where "the purpose of work lies with the user of the end product" (Drucker, 1982: 169). Of course, Drucker was concerned with the management of wage-employees working for organisations rather than those self-employed when he wrote about work and play.

Nevertheless, it is not difficult to understand why individuals who work for themselves, such as the self-employed, are able to extract substantially higher levels of satisfaction from their work than their counterparts in wage-employment.

It would be hard to argue that the choice of satisfying employment does not play a role in achieving a satisfying life, particularly for those who aspire to become successful in their profession of choice. The celebrated economist Amartya Sen has also emphasised the role of functioning in well-being, arguing that well-being is closely linked with ones' achievements and personal success in what they are doing (Sen, 1985). However, some professions, such as a lawyer or a physician involve a series of career choices during the early adulthood (Burton et al., 2016). As a result, "very few people become doctors as a second career. Entrepreneurship, however, seems characterized by much more heterogeneity" (Burton et al., 2016: 238). Therefore, studies investigating the employment choices of individuals should consider entrepreneurship as a choice of employment that attracts people for a variety of reasons and with diverse life goals.

1.3 Entrepreneurship and well-being

Well-being is a complex concept that involves several aspects of life, such as satisfaction with health, and satisfaction with work. Subjective well-being has been conceptualised as a measurement of well-being, even if the two concepts do not fully equate (Diener et al., 1998; Kesebir and Diener, 2008). The subjective conceptualisation of well-being can be traced back to the ancient Greek pre-Socratic philosopher Democritus (~ 460BC–370 BC), who believed that perception through the senses is subjective, and thus different for each individual (Annas, 2002; Vlastos, 1945). Democritus advocated for balance and moderation in life, as well as intelligent self-control, so that one could be a master of one's own fate. If anything, a concept similar to the self-employment notion of 'being your own boss' (Benz and Frey, 2004; Richard J Boden, 1999; Knight, 1921).

Tatarkiewicz (1976: 242) echoes Democritus views, suggesting that "Man has the possibility of changing his circumstances through deliberate action, and of improving them so that they make human life increasingly happier". Tatarkiewicz (1976) brings together the complex concepts of objective and subjective well-being, of happiness, and life satisfaction, in contrast to the splintering of the concepts which every so often takes place among different fields of study. Often ideas associated with the conceptualisation of 'happiness' or 'well-being' in the classic period[3], have sometimes been imperfectly translated in English, German, or French, which has resulted in misinterpretations and misconceptions (see e.g., Vlastos, 1945). Well-being research has emphasised more on the short term effective well-being rather that more lasting life values, such as having a purpose and a sense of self-realisation (Ryff, 1989). Regardless of the complexity of the conceptualisations and measurements of well-being, nowadays most studies examine at least one of three established aspects of subjective well-being: *Life evaluation*, *Affect*, and *Eudaimonia* (Diener, 1984; Huppert et al., 2009; Kahneman, 1999; OECD, 2013; Steptoe et al., 2015).

Life evaluation reflects the individual assessment of a one's own life or aspects of it. Life evaluation is a reflective assessment of an individual's overall life, and other domain satisfactions (e.g. satisfaction with work, health, family, etc.), based on their own standards rather than some externally presumed baseline (Diener et al., 1999; OECD, 2013; van Praag et al., 2003). *Eudaimonia*[4] reflects the functioning elements of life and the realisation of one's own potential or capabilities. The eudaimonic aspect of well-being is historically attributed to

[3] For example, Democritus uses *εὐεστώ* [eu̯-esto], which stands for prosperity of oneself and of the community, often used as equivalent to 'well-being'. Democritus also uses *εὐθυμίη* [eʊtʰ-thɯmiɛː], which stands for cheerfulness, as well as the better-known concept εὐδαιμονίαν [eu̯-dai̯monía]. Additionally, Hesiod uses the term of eudaimonia, but also uses the term *ὄλβιος* [ol-vios], which stands for happiness associated with good luck and wealth. The historian Plutarch also uses eudaimonia to describe the goals of the civil polity reforms of Lycurgus of Sparta, but also uses *εὐσχήμονος βίος* [eʊ-skʰɛːmonos] [vios], which stands for a well-ordered, honourable life (Classical polytonic International Phonetic Alphabet – IPA characters for Greek pronunciation in square brackets).

[4] The ancient Greek concept of *eudaimonia* translates to 'have a good spirit' and encompasses the idea of leading a good/virtuous life.

the Aristotelian discourse about leading a commendable life that allows an individual to flourish and enjoy life as a whole (Aristotle, 2014; Kesebir and Diener, 2008). *Affect* reflects the individual emotional state at a point in time. Affect is typically captured via two distinct ephemeral hedonic dimensions of positive affect (i.e. pleasant emotions and moods) and negative affect (i.e. unpleasant emotions and moods) (Diener et al., 1999; Kesebir and Diener, 2008).

Life evaluation and eudaimonia reflect elements of subjective well-being that have a longer lifespan than the more ephemeral affect element. Nevertheless, these three aspects of subjecting well-being have been shown to have a modest association (Diener, 1984; Kesebir and Diener, 2008; Lyubomirsky et al., 2005; Senik, 2011). Affect is strongly associated with the hedonic adaptation theory and the hedonic treadmill model (Brickman and Campbell, 1971). Hence, it is expected to be associated with elements of subjective well-being that diminish swiftly after the occurrence of a life event. In contrast, life evaluation and eudaimonia are associated with an overall assessment of one's own life as a whole, as well as life events that have longer lasting effects (Clark et al., 2008; Headey, 2008). Ryff (1989: 1077) argues that these contrasts, "harken back to the deliberations of the Greeks regarding the difference between feeling good at the moment and the more demanding task of realizing one's true potential". Self-realisation has been identified as an important motivational factor that attracts people to entrepreneurship (Carter et al., 2003; Taylor, 1996; Wach et al., 2016).

Life satisfaction is the most commonly used measure of life evaluation. Several studies over the years have attempted to decompose life satisfaction in its various satisfaction components, such as job, health, income, and leisure, and examine the existence of interrelationships (Della Giusta et al., 2011; Steiner and Truxillo, 1987; Tait et al., 1989; van Praag et al., 2003). Some authors who have examined the association of job and life satisfaction, find that while the relationship appears cyclical, job satisfaction explains more of

life satisfaction than the vice versa (Easterlin, 2006; Hagmaier et al., 2018; Ilies et al., 2019; Near, 1984; Schmitt and Bedeian, 1982). Peterson et al., (2005: 26) argues that "in the modern world, the pursuit of a meaningful life is widely endorsed as a way to achieve satisfaction: 'Be all that you can be,' and 'Make a difference'".

The link between well-being and satisfaction with work and life, has been as old as the historic examination of life happiness; something that is evident in Aristotle's (384–322 BC) discourse on 'eudaimonia' (Ackrill, 1974; Aristotle, 2014; Ryff and Singer, 2008), and even centuries earlier in the societal values instituted in the political reforms of Lycurgus of Sparta (c. 820 BC) (Plutarch, 2013). Recent evidence shows in countries with a strong presence of entrepreneurship-friendly institutions the self-employed experience higher levels of well-being compared to wage-employees (Fritsch et al., 2019). The well-being that derives from eudaimonic aspects of work has been linked to personal growth, autonomy, meaningfulness, purpose and competence (Carter et al., 2003; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Ryff and Keyes, 1995; Ryff and Singer, 2008). Such factors have been also associated with the higher reported job and life satisfaction of the self-employed (Abreu et al., 2019; Benz and Frey, 2004; Falco et al., 2015; Hundley, 2001; Ryff, 2019; Shir et al., 2019; Smeaton, 2003).

Moreover, the concept of eudaimonia has been strongly associated with leading a meaningful and purposeful life, with a sense of control over life events and self-realisation (Ryan and Deci, 2001; Ryff, 2019; Steptoe et al., 2015). GEM research finds that individuals involved in entrepreneurial activities report higher levels of subjective well-being than those who are not involved is such activities (Amorós and Bosma, 2013). Regardless of the characteristically low survival rates of entrepreneurial activities (Saridakis et al., 2008), the self-employed will often similarly claim that they feel more job-secure compared to wage-employees because they believe that their fate is in their own hands rather than in the hands of senior executives (Hundley, 2001; Kahneman, 2011; Nikolova, 2019). Studies also show the

self-employed pursue challenging and rewarding work that satisfies their ambitions, which can be harder to accomplish in wage-employment (Benz and Frey, 2008a, 2008b; Warr and Inceoglu, 2018). Eudaimonia can essentially describe, as well as, explain the entrepreneurial well-being and the overall life satisfaction of entrepreneurs, since these individuals have chosen to undertake an activity, art or techne, which they feel passionately about and eager to pursue (Peterson et al., 2005; Ryan and Deci, 2001; Shin and Johnson, 1978).

1.4 Entrepreneurial experience

Easterlin (1973, 1974, 2004, 2013) reaches the conclusion that factors such as employment-status, health condition, family situation and age, among other life circumstances, can have opposing effects on individual life evaluation. Moreover, he explains that people judge their happiness by comparing their situation with their peers and with their past experience (Easterlin, 1974). The self-employed typically report higher satisfaction with work than wage-employees (Georgellis et al., 2007; Román et al., 2013), and higher life-satisfaction (Abreu et al., 2019; Johansson Sevä et al., 2016). However, entrepreneurial activities demand large amounts personal effort and energy (Ajayi-Obe and Parker, 2005; Hyytinen and Ruuskanen, 2007; Parker et al., 2005). Not considering the depletion of the energy put into building and growing a personal business enterprise can risk overstating the aggregate positive effects on individual well-being from entrepreneurial activities. However, the positive or negative effects of an entrepreneurial venture may become apparent to the entrepreneur at different stages of the business development. In this respect, McMullen and Dimov (2013) support that because of the important differences in the development stages of a business venture, it is preferable to examine entrepreneurship as a process which transpires over time rather than studying entrepreneurship as a single act.

Bosma et al.,(2020: 35) argue about entrepreneurs' effort to improving their lives that "a long-term perspective is suggestive of a strategic approach to life, enabling the building of

significant value over a career". The level of heterogeneity encountered among entrepreneurs can be the outcome of entrepreneurs who have different experiences (Burton et al., 2016; Hessels et al., 2018; Mattes, 2016). Indeed, several studies identify the presence of counter effects in the experiences of self-employed individuals which materialise over time (Georgellis and Yusuf, 2016; Johansson Sevä et al., 2016; van der Zwan et al., 2018). The depreciation of personal energy from the process of creating one's own business can result in the loss, or cancelling out, of initial enthusiasm associated with the creation of a new business enterprise (Carree and Verheul, 2012; van der Zwan et al., 2018).

Furthermore, while the additional autonomy and flexibility typically enjoyed by the self-employed have been positively associated with measurements of subjective well-being (e.g. job satisfaction), the association also exhibits notable variations within the self-employed (Annink and den Dulk, 2012). For example, higher autonomy or flexibility cannot fully compensate for the long hours of work and the heavy workload because of the limited 24 hours daily cycle. Hence, increased time pressure and accumulated stress can have a counter negative effect on the well-being of the self-employed (Annink and den Dulk, 2012; Stephan, 2018; Stephan and Roesler, 2010).

Using an experimental design on a sample of 300 business students graduates, Douglas and Shepherd (2002) find among the determinants of the utility the participants expected to gain from entrepreneurship, work effort was the only statistically non-significant, whereas independence, income and risk were highly significant ($P<.01$). However, work effort captures only one aspect of entrepreneurial action, which is often not an important consideration for the aspiring entrepreneurs (Bitler et al., 2005; Douglas and Shepherd, 2002). Furthermore, economically driven entrepreneurs dedicate significantly less time in their businesses compared to social entrepreneurs, indicating that entrepreneurial motivations can also facilitate the positive or negative effect of longer working hours (Jayawarna et al., 2013). Also,

entrepreneurs might invest different amounts of time in their business according to their share of ownership (Bitler et al., 2005).

The self-employed typically report longer hours of work compared to their counterparts in wage-employment (Annink and den Dulk, 2012; Hyytinen and Ruuskanen, 2007; Jayawarna et al., 2013; Parker et al., 2005). It may be the case that the self-employed find it hard to separate the hours they dedicate to work and non-work life (Leung, 2006; Stephan, 2018). Several studies attempt to explain the heterogeneity in the entrepreneurial experiences by distinguishing between work and non-work factors, such as, gender, health, leisure, marital status and area of residence (Abreu et al., 2019; Azar et al., 2018; Nguyen and Sawang, 2016; van der Zwan et al., 2018). For example, van der Zwan et al. (2018) find that even while the self-employed gain in job satisfaction after the transition from wage-employment, they suffer a penalty in their leisure satisfaction. Also, family responsibilities can have both positive and negative effects on satisfaction with work and life, which can impact the work-life balance and well-being of small business owners (Nguyen and Sawang, 2016).

1.5 Entrepreneurship and gender

The employment of women is regarded by economists and business scholars as a key factor in advancing national growth. For instance, evidence suggests that existing employment structures disadvantage women, resulting in a waste of human resources that could otherwise increase the potential of women and foster economic growth (Anker, 1997; Bender and Roche, 2016; Bloom et al., 2009; Myles, 2009). However, despite policy efforts in the UK and the European Union to promote entrepreneurship among women and to empower women who aspire to start their own businesses, the share of women business owner-managers remains much lower compared to men (Bosma et al., 2020; ONS, 2020; Wales and Agyiri, 2016). A 2009 OECD report highlights the large variation of labour supply of women compared to men (i.e., adult men are typically in full-time employment with a labour supply elasticity

approximately 0), suggesting that the differences are associated with social norms (Myles, 2009). Large variation in the employment preferences of women indicate that their choices are affected by a multitude of pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors that are genetically (e.g., give birth) and socially (e.g., childcare) related to their gender (Richard J. Boden, 1999; Hamilton, 2006; Henley, 2007; Lyness et al., 2012; Marlow, 2006; Zhou, 2017).

Gender has been shown to affect work orientations and the nature of the association with indicators of well-being, such as, job satisfaction (Zou, 2015). Studies also suggest that job-stress related factors have different effects on men and women, both in significance and in magnitude (MacDonald et al., 2005). Even after controlling for indicators of human capital, such as, educational level and employment experience, the respondent's gender remains the strongest discriminant variable (Delmar and Davidsson, 2000). However, women have been historically underrepresented in business and entrepreneurship studies' samples, and as a result certain aspects of entrepreneurship have been explored under the prism of mainly masculine work and social norms (Ahl and Marlow, 2012; Delmar and Davidsson, 2000; Mirchandani, 1999). Some qualitative studies on women in business did exist (see e.g., Goffee and Scase, 1985), but women's presence in quantitative studies had been rather limited until relatively recently. Some of the reasons for the absence of women from quantitative studies include their sample size being too small for reliable analyses (Ajayi-Obe and Parker, 2005), and that women were often assumed to behave similarly to men, hence no need to include them (Goffee and Scase, 1985).

Nevertheless, gender differences are particularly salient regarding the effect on family and children (Bender and Roche, 2016; Craig et al., 2012; Zhou, 2017), achievement (Block and Koellinger, 2009) and social status (Powell and Eddleston, 2008). Moreover, one should not ignore that the motivations of men and women to enter self-employed can differ (Craig et al., 2012; Johansson Sevä and Öun, 2015), as well as, the personal and social factors that affect

their choices to persist or to exit (Mattes, 2016). Being a woman has been positively associated with positive relations with others and personal growth, but also negatively associated with internal control and morale (Ryff, 1989). A recent longitudinal study for the UK concludes that gender attitudes manifest when employment and motherhood are considered jointly, and that women experience a conflict between their economic and caregiver roles (Zhou, 2017). It is not implausible to think that the theories which were formed when the samples of women entrepreneurs were somewhat limited, may not have been all-inclusive.

Several empirical analyses considering the effect of gender in entrepreneurship often do not extend further than the inclusion of a gender control variable. However, to capture the effect one has to either examine separately the models for women and men, or employ a myriad of interactions. Studies will often identify substantial heterogeneity among women (Zou, 2015), with significant gender differences in model predictors and puzzling results. For example, women in part-time employment differed significantly from men in all measurements of work orientation (Zou, 2015). Also, women have been shown to score higher in aspects of well-being associated with overall life, achievement and aspirations, even while they score similarly in elements of hedonic well-being such as happiness and enjoyment (Stone et al., 2010). Moreover, a multi-country study shows that women in Anglophone countries such as the UK, report on average higher strain from work-life imbalance compared to men, even while their reported job satisfaction is higher than men (Lyness et al., 2012).

A cohort study has previously shown that compared to men, inheritance was an insignificant predictor for women's job creation and business value, while "abilities" for women entrepreneurs were uncorrelated with education and training (Burke et al., 2002). Additionally, it has been suggested that men entrepreneurs have an advantage compared to women with regards to accessing business funding (Marlow and Patton, 2005; Verheul and Thurik, 2001), which benefits the growth of their business ventures (Coleman, 2007a).

Moreover, a recent longitudinal study has shown that while the transition to self-employment has similar positive effect on job satisfaction for women and men, it had a negative effect on leisure satisfaction only for men (van der Zwan et al., 2018). Hence, there is ample indications to suggests that a ceteris paribus assumption in the modelling of the employment outcomes of women and men, may need a more thorough examination.

1.6 Entrepreneurship and the rural-urban dichotomy

One important aspect of entrepreneurial activity is the rural or urban area location. Wirth (1938) argued that the *city* discourages self-employment and economic life because people do not have a safety net to fall back upon. However, in contrast to what Wirth agued, several metropolitan cities around the world have grown to become leading entrepreneurial hubs (e.g., New York, San Jose, London, Paris, Shenzhen etc.), accounting for a large share of the national income as measured in terms of gross domestic product (GDP) (Adler et al., 2019; Dobbs et al., 2011). In the UK, London accounts for the largest share of start-up businesses and job creation in the country (DEFRA, 2019; Dobbs et al., 2011; ONS, 2017).

Major urban centres around the world attract every year thousands of workers who are seeking to advance their careers and increase their personal income. For example, London offers a larger variety of jobs and the possibility for higher gross earnings compared to smaller cities or towns in rural areas (DEFRA, 2019). However, during the years leading to the 2008 financial crisis and during the years of the crisis, the UK saw a general movement of people from urban areas to rural areas (ONS, 2018; Wales and Agyiri, 2016). Moreover, the trend continued during the early recovery years of the 2008 crisis. This suggests that the 2008 financial crisis had profound impact on the migration patterns within the UK (Champion, 2014). If we accept that the typically observed trends of rural-to-urban areas migration is associated with employment opportunities and business activities (i.e., entrepreneurship), then

we need to consider how the UK migration trends observed during the past decade have altered the rural and urban self-employment tendencies.

Entrepreneurs are key agents to local growth, with entrepreneurship fostering knowledge spill-overs (Audretsch and Feldman, 2004). There is some evidence from Australia suggesting that rural areas in-migrants who initially created their business ventures to overcome adverse labour conditions, did not only benefit themselves but also for their local communities (Williams and Shepherd, 2016). Given this evidence, it is plausible that individuals who found a way to create a sustainable stream of income in rural areas, might not wish to return to urban areas later on. Moreover, if these individuals maintained the links and contact networks established in the urban centres prior to their movement to the rural areas, then this can support the development of their rural business ventures (Mayer et al., 2016). It is possible that as businesses become established over time, more resources and businesses will be attracted in the area that can improve the viability of the businesses in the local area network (Audretsch and Feldman, 2004).

There is some evidence from the UK which indicates the rural in-migrants who establish their businesses in their local rural areas create employment opportunities in their local communities (Stockdale, 2005). In Scotland, the rural area in-migrants who establish their businesses create on average 1.6 new jobs (Findlay et al., 2000). The migration process from urban to rural areas is a complex phenomenon than is above and beyond a simple residential relocation of households (Findlay et al., 2000). The demographics of rural areas in the UK show that the average age in rural areas is higher than in urban areas (DEFRA, 2019). Moreover, the migration patterns within the UK suggest that people tend to move to urban areas when younger and to rural areas when older (DEFRA, 2019). Additionally, business owner-managers also tend to be on average older than wage-employees (Blanchflower et al., 2001; Warr and Inceoglu, 2018). There seems to be an association between self-employment

and the level of quality of life in rural areas (Abreu et al., 2019). Therefore, it might not be surprising that rural in-migrants turn to self-employment to satisfy their needs rather than seek work in wage-employment.

Furthermore, it has been suggested that when business owner-managers (e.g., self-employed) move from the urban areas to rural areas, they tend to bring their business along with them (Stockdale, 2005), which can include intangible business assets such as their industrial experience, skills and expertise, as well as their business network contacts. Business expertise and managerial experience has been identified as having strong links with new business ventures (Capelleras et al., 2015). Research findings on rural/urban entrepreneurship indicate that rural entrepreneurs who maintain a robust business network with urban areas benefit from both their rural location and their urban connections (Mayer et al., 2016). A recent study in the UK also shows that the self-employed who live in rural fringes of urban areas and small towns which are in close proximity to urban centres, categorised as semi-urban areas in the study, appear to benefit the most in terms of well-being (i.e., financial, work, and quality of life) (Abreu et al., 2019). Nevertheless, it is important to distinguish the time people allocate to self-employment not only at the rural or urban location, but also between those who are long term residents and those who move to either area.

Chapter 2

2 Methodological approach

2.1 Conceptual framework

The quantum physicist Leonard Mlodinow expands on the effect of random events on people's lives, eloquently explaining how a single observation is a random point in a random process, which consists of a number of equally probable favourable and unfavourable outcomes (Mlodinow, 2008). The sum of all the possible favourable and unfavourable outcomes creates a sample space. When the terms are distributed according to their magnitude-distance from the sample mean, the sample space represents a symmetric bell-shaped curve (i.e., Gaussian distribution) (Stigler, 1986). It is an inescapable truth that the Gaussian distribution is the "most widespread manner in which data have been found to be distributed" (Mlodinow, 2008: 138).

The conceptual framework of this thesis has its foundations in the positivist tradition. The methodology of this thesis adopts a quantitative/deductive approach. The scientific method is used in this thesis as the means to achieve the goal of knowledge acquisition. Hence, the existing relevant knowledge is reviewed, and hypotheses are deduced and rigorously tested (Andersen and Hepburn, 2020). I then return to the theory with the newfound knowledge to critically examine and complement the existing body of literature (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The review of the literature is extensive, adopting a multidisciplinary approach to the formulation of the theoretical framework that encompasses research in entrepreneurship, self-employment, and business studies.

The process is principally deductive, with the conceptual framework being built around empirical observation of *what is*. However, being critical about the subject matter being people and not inanimate objects, the conceptualisation of this thesis is expanded to also include theoretical positions encountered in the social constructivist tradition. People do not just

respond to external stimuli in the way inanimate objects do. While there is a convergence in the way people behave around a mean behaviour, social norms and personal beliefs produce idiosyncratic differences in how individuals experience the world (Gill and Johnson, 1991). This can be essential in the study of entrepreneurship, where the identification of the *entrepreneur* and of the *entrepreneurial opportunity* have long been the subjects of debates (Baumol, 1968; Dimov, 2011; Gartner, 1989) and social perspectives (Singer et al., 2018). For instance, the social norms property in the risk-opportunity association becomes apparent when thinking of the Chinese character for 'crisis' [危机: wéijī], which is formed by the unity of a character for *danger* and a character for *opportunity* (Becker and Trowler, 2001).

Furthermore, entrepreneurial motivations can be either objective or subjective, as well as a combination of both. This thesis embraces a broader view of entrepreneurial activity which encompasses the view of the entrepreneur who discovers objective opportunities that were waiting to be found, as well as, the entrepreneur who identifies opportunities through the subjective evaluation of their personal situation and their environment (Gartner et al., 2003; Venkataraman et al., 2012). For instance, the discovery of an innovative product or service can possibly encourage an individual to pursue starting-up their own business, but the possibility of achieving greater work-life balance or healthier lifestyle, can also act as a motivation. Gartner (1989), quotes Yates's poem '*Among School Children'*, asking "How can we know the dancer from the dance?"(1989: 64). Moreover, the conceptual framework of this thesis is attuned to the emerging entrepreneurship perspective of an interaction and co-evolution of social systems and entrepreneurial action through time (Sarason et al., 2006), where on one hand entrepreneurship influences social systems and on the other hand "situational and social influences continuously affect the potential entrepreneur's knowledge of the developing opportunity" (Dimov, 2007: 714).

2.2 Data

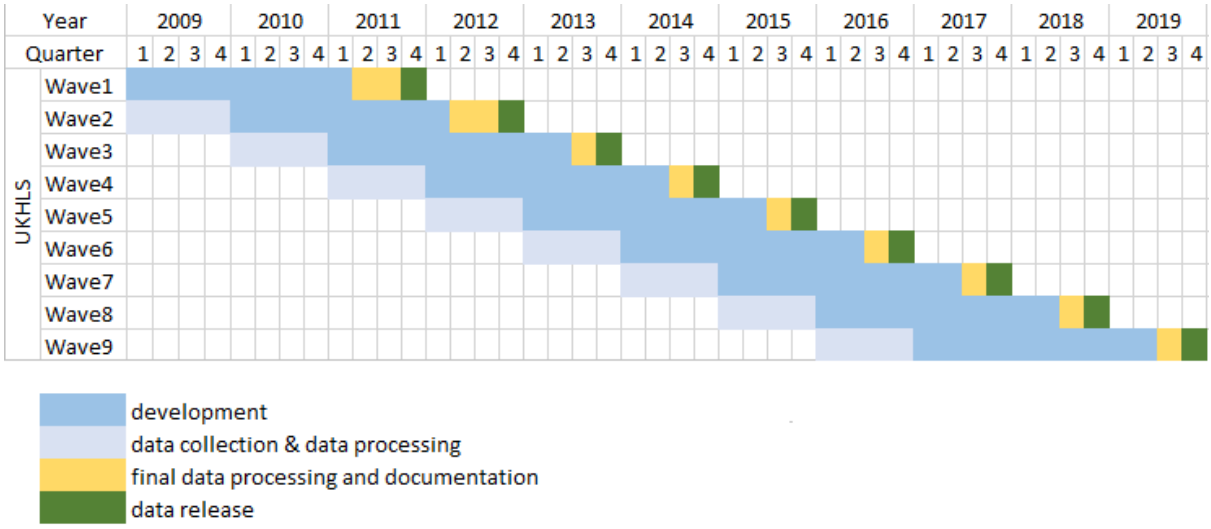
This thesis uses rich secondary data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), also known as the Understanding Society survey. The UKHLS is similar to the U.S. Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID) and the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP). The UKHLS is an initiative funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) and various UK government departments, with scientific leadership by the Institute for Social and Economic Research (ISRER), University of Essex, and survey delivery by several collaborating fieldwork agencies: National Centre for Social Research (NatCen), the Central Survey Unit of the Northern Ireland Statistics and Research Agency (NISRA), Kantar Public, and Millward Brown Ulster.

The UKHLS is a well-established and widely used nationally representative longitudinal survey, which collects high quality data from the members of approximately 40,000 households (at Wave 1). From Wave 2 onward the main survey has included the information collected from continuing participants of the terminated British Household Panel Survey (BHPS). Most of the data are collected via face-to-face interviews, supplemented with a small minority of telephone and web interviews. The mainstage survey collects data from every household member who is aged 16 and above. For a detailed description of the data see: University of Essex (2019).

The forementioned fieldwork agencies are involved in the management of the fieldwork, the editing, the coding, and data-entry. They also offer advice on the design of the research instruments. However, while the fieldwork agencies work closely together with ISER, the latter is the responsible institution for the survey design, and has a major role in quality control, as well as the specification of fieldwork practices, survey materials, coding requirements, editing, and the monitoring of the fieldwork. Understanding Society collects the data for each wave over a 24-month period, where every household is interviewed around the

same time every year. All survey instruments are carefully tested in a pilot survey during development so that any arising issues with elements of the survey, such as, question wording, interview flow and timing, can be addressed before the survey is utilised in the main sample. Figure 2.1 offers an overview of the timing and data collection.

Figure 2.1. UKHLS Timing and Data Collection



**Note: Based on information from 'The UK Household Longitudinal Study' Waves 1-9 User Guide,* (2019).

2.3 Self-employment experience measurement

In national statistics and tax authorities, such as the UK Office for National Statistics (ONS) and Her Majesty's Revenue and Customs (HMRC) respectively, the typical classification of employed individuals is either as wage-employees or as self-employed, depending on whether they work for themselves or for others. Large-scale longitudinal household surveys, such as the UKHLS, follow this dichotomisation in their collection of individuals' employment information, rather than entrepreneurial activity information (e.g., Global Entrepreneurship Monitor – GEM).

The existing UK legislation requires that those working for themselves are registered with the tax authority as sole-traders, full owner, or a partner in a business partnership (detailed information can be found at https://www.gov.uk/working-for-yourself). The self-employed pay annual income tax and social security contributions, whereas wage-employees pay their taxes

and social security contributions through the UK paycheque deduction system known as 'Pay-As-You-Earn' (PAYE). Individuals are allowed to engage in multiple employment types over the same tax period, for which they pay the required annual income tax for their self-employment earnings, and their PAYE tax for their wage-employment earnings. This is the typical labour market employment identification used by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) and the HM Revenue & Customs (HMRC). Using this context, the UKHLS asks participants whether they identify themselves as being wage-employees or self-employed. The HMRC has examined issues arising from the exploitation of necessity entrepreneurs and the contemporary increase of false self-employment, and attempts to correct the imbalances have been introduced in National Insurance Contributions (NIC) legislation and the Finance Bill 2014 (HMRC, 2013).

I use the year-on-year information on individuals' employment status, to create a continuous variable (*SELFEXP*), which captures their cumulative self-employment experience from 2009 to 2019. More specifically, I track the employment status of participants, either self-employed (coded 1) or wage-employees (coded 0) and restrict the sample to those whose year of starting a new job coincides with wave 1. This limits any bias that can result from employment experience outside of the panel. I calculate at each consecutive wave the share of employment time that respondents allocated to self-employment out of the total time in employment. For respondents that have not allocated any time to wage-employment, *SELFEXP* takes the value 1. For respondents who have not allocated any time to self-employment, *SELFEXP* takes the value 0. Intermediate values between 0 and 1 represent those with mixed work experience as both self-employed and wage-employees. Higher values of *SELFEXP* indicate a higher proportion of past work experience was spent in self-employment. For example, for a respondent who reported to be self-employed in 3 out of 9 annual interviews, *SELFEXP* is 3/9=0.33. *SELFEXP* for someone who reported to be self-employed in 5 out of 9 interviews is 5/9=0.55. Measuring self-employment experience this way does not rely on

retrospective information, thus lessening potential recall bias (Block and Koellinger, 2009; Cassar and Craig, 2009; Manzoni, 2012). This method also ensures that the recorded satisfaction information (i.e., job, income, leisure) corresponds to the self-employment experience the respondents had at the time their survey interview took place.

Figure 2.2 and 2.3 present two examples of self-employment experience as recorded using the SELFEXP continuous variable. Figure 2.2 presents an example with continuous uninterrupted employment spells in both wage-employment and self-employment, whereas Figure 3 presents an example which also includes a spell in unemployment. The variable codes represent the person's id in the survey (pidp), the survey wave, the unemployment dummy (unemp), the dummy for wage-employee or self-employed (semp), and the variable for the accumulated self-employment experience (selfexp).

Figure 2.2. Self-employment Experience Example 1

	pidp	wave	semp	selfexp
37	136337287	1	wage employee	0
38	136337287	2	self employed	.5
39	136337287	3	self employed	.6666667
40	136337287	4	self employed	.75
41	136337287	5	self employed	.8
42	136337287	6	wage employee	.6666667
43	136337287	7	wage employee	.5714286
44	136337287	8	self employed	.625
45	136337287	9	self employed	.6666667

Figure 2.3. Self-employment Experience Example 2

	pidp	wave	unemp	semp	selfexp
505	342438487	1	0	self employed	1
506	342438487	2	0	self employed	1
507	342438487	3	0	self employed	1
508	342438487	4	unemployed	.i	.75
509	342438487	5	0	wage employee	.6
510	342438487	6	0	wage employee	.5
511	342438487	7	0	wage employee	.4285714
512	342438487	8	0	wage employee	.375
513	342438487	9	0	wage employee	.3333333

As observed in the example case in Figure 2.2, when the survey participant switches to self-employment at Wave 2 the self-employment experience records the proportional increase. Then at Wave 6, when this participant switches back to wage-employment, the self-employment experience is reduced, and when the participant switches yet again to self-employment at Wave 8, self-employment experience rises once more. This information is absent from the typical cross-sectional data analyses. This information would also be lost in longitudinal data studies which examine self-employment transitions commonly employ some form of a first-difference estimator approach. While this approach is efficient for single transitions, it ignores the data from consecutive waves after the transition. However, self-employment can often be a transition stage in an individual's career and not an end point in itself (Koch et al., 2021) Additionally, as observed in the example in Figure 2.3, when the survey participant is unemployed at Wave 4, the self-employment experience is reduced. In the analysis where unemployment data are used, control for unemployment is also used to isolate the effect. The econometric modelling approach is different for each Chapter and therefore the models are explained in detail in each Chapter's Data and Methodology section.

Chapter 3

3 Self-employment experience effects on well-being: A longitudinal study

Permanent link: https://doi.org/10.1177/0143831X221086017

3.1 Introduction

3.2 Theory and hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *The effect of self-employment experience on well-being depends on the number of accumulated spells in self-employment.*

Hypothesis 2α: *Job satisfaction will be positively associated with self-employment experience.*

Hypo*thesis* 2β: *Leisure satisfaction will be negatively associated with self-employment experience.*

Hypothesis 2γ: *Income satisfaction will be positively associated with self-employment experience.*

3.3 Data and methodology

3.3.1 Data

We use data from nine waves of the UKHLS, 2009-2019. The UKHLS is publicly funded longitudinal survey of members of about 40,000 households (at Wave 1).

3.3.2 Self-employment experience

3.3.3 Control variables

3.3.4 Analytical technique

Our empirical analysis to examine how *SELFEXP* affects the satisfaction with job, leisure, and income, is based on random effects (RE) estimation of an ordered logit model of the following form:

$$y_{it}^{*} = \beta \mathrm{x}_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \quad \text{for } t = 1, 2, 3 \ldots \mathrm{T},$$

where β is an (L × 1) vector of coefficients to be estimated, and x_{it} is an (L × 1) vector of observable characteristics associated with the latent response for y_{it}, and $\varepsilon_{it} = u_i + e_{it}$ is a normally distributed error term. We supplement our empirical analysis by also estimating experimental fixed effects (FE) ordered logit model following Baetschmann's (2015) 'Blow-up and Cluster' (BUC) method (Dickerson et al., 2014). The BUC method uses cut-off dichotomisations of the dependent variable, as proposed by (Baetschmann et al., 2015).

3.4 Empirical results

3.4.1 Descriptive statistics

3.4.2 Empirical analysis

3.4.3 Further analysis and robustness checks

3.5 Discussion and concluding remarks

3.5.1 Main findings

3.5.2 Limitations and future research

Chapter 4

4 The effects of self-employment experience on job and life satisfaction

Permanent link: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbvi.2021.e00259

4.1 Introduction

4.2 Theory and hypotheses

4.2.1 The association self-employment experience and life satisfaction

Hypothesis 1: *Self-employment is initially positively associated with life satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 2: *Self-employment has a non-linear effect on life satisfaction.*

4.2.2 Is there a gender difference?

Hypothesis 3: *The positive effect of self-employment experience on life satisfaction will be longer lasting for men than for women.*

4.3 Data and methodology

4.3.1 Data

We use data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), also known as the Understanding Society survey. The UKHLS is a well-established and widely used nationally representative longitudinal survey of the members of approximately 40,000 households (at Wave-1). From Wave-2 onward the main study also includes information collected from continuing participants of the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS). The survey data of waves 1-9 were collected over the period 2009-2019 (for a detailed description of the data see: University of Essex, 2019).

4.3.2 Analytical technique

Based on the approach first proposed by Mundlak (1978), we employ a hybrid *'within-effect'* estimator for an ordered logit RE model (Bell and Jones, 2015; Schunck, 2013; Wooldridge, 2019). Using a hybrid *'within-effect'* estimator approach allows for the estimation of within effects in a random-effects model. The advantage of the hybrid model lies in its ability to decompose the between and the within variation in a random effects model and to estimate the fixed-effects, while preserving all the variables that do not vary within clusters (Andreß et al., 2013; Schunck, 2013; Wooldridge, 2010). Assuming a unit-specific mean of x and a time invariable unknown parameter u_i, then the approximation of the individual effect is expressed as $u_i = \beta\bar{\mathrm{x}}_i + \eta_i$. The within-effect estimator model can then be written as:

$$y_{it}^{*} = \beta 1 x_{it} + \beta 2\bar{\mathrm{x}}_i + \gamma z_i + \eta_i + e_{it} \quad \text{for } t = 1, 2, 3 \ldots \mathrm{T} \qquad (1)$$

where y_{it}^{*} is the 7-point Likert scale measurement response. $\beta 1$ reports the within estimator, that is, the fixed-effects estimate, and $\beta 2$ reports the difference of the *within* and *between* effects, while γ captures the effect of the time invariant explanatory variables. The unknown parameters η_i and e_{it}, represent the time invariant and idiosyncratic errors, respectively.

4.4 Empirical results

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics

4.4.2 Empirical analysis

4.5 Discussion and concluding remarks

Chapter 5

5 The effects of rural and urban areas on time allocated to self-employment: differences between men and women

Permanent link: https://doi.org/10.3390/su12177049

5.1 Introduction

5.2 Theory and hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: *Individuals who live in rural areas will have spent more time in self-employment than individuals who live in urban areas.*

Hypothesis 2α: *Older men who migrate from urban areas to rural areas are less likely to have spent more time in self-employment.*

Hypothesis 2β: *Older women who migrate from urban areas to rural areas are more likely to have spent more time in self-employment.*

5.3 Data and methodology

5.3.1 Data

We used data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), also known as the Understanding Society survey. The Understanding Society survey is a well-established and widely used longitudinal dataset, based at the University of Essex and funded by the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC). The Understanding Society survey collects data from every household member, aged 16 and above. The same household is surveyed in the same quarter each year, mainly from face-to-face interviews, with a small supplement of telephone interviews. Understanding Society covers approximately 40 thousand households (at wave 1).

5.3.2 Model specification

The data analysis used fixed effects (FE) modelling to examine the data, though a random effects (RE) model is also reported for comparative reasons. The FE estimator (also known as the within estimator) provides effect estimates of the time-varying factors. As such, the time-constant unobserved heterogeneity no longer presents a problem (Andreß et al., 2013; Mátyás and Sevestre, 2008; Wooldridge, 2010). Formally, the FE model is expressed as:

$$y_{it} - \overline{y_i} = \beta(x_{it} - \bar{x}) + e_{it} - \bar{e}_i \qquad (1)$$

The dependent variable for time in self-employment (SELFEXP) is constructed as the share of time spent in self-employment to total time in employment (either wage-employment or self-employment).

5.3.3 Control variables

5.4 Empirical results

5.4.1 Descriptive statistics

5.4.2 Empirical analysis

5.5 Discussion and concluding remarks

5.5.1 Summary

5.5.2 Limitations and Further Research

5.6 Conclusions

Chapter 6

6 Summary conclusion

Work occupies a large share of people's lives. The type of work is equally important as the amount of work that people put in their daily labour, and the rewards they gain from that input. A promising career path can positively affect the job-security and quality of work-life of wage-employees (Lai et al., 2015). Individuals who believe their skills are not fully utilised in their current position may feel dissatisfied with their job-role (Millán et al., 2013). However, the self-employed are less likely to be dissatisfied with their job-roles than wage-employees (Millán et al., 2013). Nevertheless, one needs to take under consideration that in economically developed countries with well-established entrepreneurship institutions and a mature job-market, such as the UK, the transition from one employment status to another is relatively frictionless (Stokes and Wilson, 2017; World Bank, 2020). Hence, the ease of doing business has a positive impact on entrepreneurial activity experimentation, as well as the "trial and error" attempts to exploit business opportunities (Bosma and Kelley, 2019; Stokes and Wilson, 2017).

Stokes and Blackburn (2002) suggests that entrepreneurs can be classified based on their future intentions and attitude towards 'doing business' as well as the financial performance of past business ventures. The authors note that even the entrepreneurs whose previous business ventures were unsuccessful acquire knowledge from their failed attempt that motivates them to try doing better next time (Stokes and Blackburn, 2002). This gives rise to four categories of entrepreneurs who leave a business: a) the *serial entrepreneurs*, who either maintain a portfolio ownership of several businesses for a certain period, or start-up, grow, then sell one business and move to another venture within a short time span; b) the *determined entrepreneurs*, who even though encounter major difficulties in previous business ventures are willing to try again, determined to perform better; c) the *discouraged entrepreneurs*, who withdraw from entrepreneurship, even if their previous business venture performed well,

usually due to excess strain from operating a business and lifestyle factors; and d) the failed entrepreneurs, who truly fail in their business venture in the sense that they performed poorly and have accumulated large debts, forcing them to return to wage-employment or even become unemployed (Stokes and Wilson, 2017). Hence, the satisfaction of individuals with work and life depends on taking a longer view of individual employment histories.

Several business enterprises have often been created on the idea of offering solutions to important industry-specific or world problems that can benefit society overall (e.g., TESLA[5] Inc). Moreover, social enterprises reinvest their surpluses to social projects and to benefit their local communities, emphasising more on social rather than commercial gains (Stokes and Wilson, 2017). It should not be surprising that recent studies show that the self-employed report higher overall well-being than wage-employees (Abreu et al., 2019). Peterson et al., (2005: 26) argue that:

> *"Uniting eudemonic emphases is the premise that people should develop what is best within themselves and then use these skills and talents in the service of greater goods – including in particular the welfare of other people or humankind."*

This PhD thesis offers an empirical examination of self-employment experience and its effects on several facets of well-being. It also examines spatial differences that affect self-employment experience, and how the location of a rural or an urban area residence affects the way in which individuals allocate their time between wage-employment and self-employment. To examine the self-employment experience of individuals I create a novel way to measure the time individuals allocate to self-employment. This approach to self-employment measurement deviates from the approach of the majority of the existing studies, to overcome drawbacks of studies which either use cross-sectional data to examine the effects at a single point in time

[5] TESLA Inc announced a pledge not file patent lawsuits against anyone who "in good faith" wants to use technologies developed by TESLA to advance electric vehicle development and the rapid transition to sustainable transport (TESLA, 2014).

(see e.g., comments by Dimov, 2011; Stephan, 2018), or use longitudinal data to examine the effects around the time of employment transition in isolation as an onetime event (see e.g., comments by Koch et al., 2021).

Studies of single transitions in or out of self-employment might have provided an adequate examination of the outcome of entering and exiting self-employment in the past when most employees would work for decades in a single organisation (Super, 1953). If the idea of a "lifetime job" was ever true, it is certainly not true any longer (Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007). However, the unidirectional transition perspective may not be an adequate approach in a time when the ease of becoming self-employed and working for yourself (i.e., https://www.gov.uk/working-for-yourself) gives the ability to individuals to test their business ideas with far less associated risk than even just a couple of decades ago (Bosma et al., 2020; Bosma and Kelley, 2019). The findings of this PhD thesis show that when considering the employment paths of individuals at a greater length than a few years from a single transition in or out of self-employment, a more dynamic association becomes apparent: a diverse non-linear association of accumulated self-employment experience with facets of well-being. Additionally, it is shown that the allocation of time to self-employment differs significantly based on the rural/urban residential location of individuals and their career-age group, as well as their gender.

One of the typical reasons for which individuals quit their positions in wage-employment and start their own business enterprise is due to dissatisfaction with the perceived limitations imposed on them by organisational hierarchies. Weber (1947) argues that entrepreneurs are able to act independently and are free of the bureaucratic control of hierarchies. Essentially, individuals resign from their organisations because they feel there is *more* they can achieve with the greater autonomy and independence which is believed to come with self-employment. Entrepreneurs will often discuss business challenges in a positive way,

and comment on the meaningfulness of their work (Nikolaev et al., 2020; Nikolova and Cnossen, 2020; Ryff, 2019; Wolfe and Patel, 2018).

The findings of this thesis (Ch. 3) show that compared to individuals who accumulated all their employment experience in wage-employment, those who allocated additional the time to self-employment enjoy an overall increase in their job satisfaction. This is consistent with similar findings in the literature of self-employment (Georgellis and Yusuf, 2016; Parker et al., 2005; Schonfeld and Mazzola, 2015; van der Zwan et al., 2018). The positive effect of self-employment experience on job satisfaction effect is long lasting and appears to be comparable between women and men. We observe that women's job satisfaction increases with self-employment experience up to a threshold at around 57 percent of their total employment experience, whereas men's job satisfaction reaches a similar threshold at around 65 percent of their total employment experience.

Nevertheless, further analysis reveals that the effect of individuals who have allocated all their time to self-employment has a stronger positive impact on women than on men. The results of the further analysis show that women who spent all their time in self-employment experience greater positive effects not only on their job satisfaction, but on their satisfaction with income and with leisure. For men on the other hand, the allocation of all their time to self-employment appears to not only have a more moderate positive effect on their job satisfaction, but also an adverse effect on their income satisfaction. The results suggest that employment experience has a more harmonious association with facets of well-being for women than men, and that self-employment benefits women beyond satisfaction with work itself, but also with income and leisure. Men on the other hand experience conflicting satisfaction gains from self-employment experience.

The pursuit of hedonic pleasures differs from the pursuit of eudaimonic happiness, in the sense that the former concerns the temporal satisfaction of human senses with pleasing

experiences (e.g., sensory gratification), whereas the latter is concerned with a more meaningful life achievement (Ryff, 1989). The pursuit of happiness through a purposeful life is recognised as the means to achieve greater satisfaction (Peterson et al., 2005). Entrepreneurship seems to fulfil several elements which are systematically being highlighted in the well-being literature, such as autonomy, independence, achievement, personal growth and work meaningfulness (Ryff, 1989, 2019). As Tatarkiewicz (1976: 330) observes in his historic text on happiness, "a life which is happy is valued for the satisfaction it gives; yet not only for that satisfaction itself, but also for all that causes it". From a social role perspective, men who feel compelled to fulfil their role as the "breadwinner" might experience conflict between greater satisfaction from independence and autonomy as self-employed, and lower satisfaction from income uncertainty which can make it harder to consistently provide for their families (Justo et al., 2015; König and Cesinger, 2015). Contrary for women, self-employment can be a way to overcome the (outdated) social role expectations such as "home-makers" and "housewives", or career barriers in salaried jobs associated with gender (Byrne et al., 2019; Marlow and Swail, 2015; Treanor and Marlow, 2019).

Life satisfaction encompasses both work and non-work elements. The empirical approach in this thesis (Ch. 4) attempts to distinguish the elements of life that are more closely associated with work, creating a metric of life satisfaction from the combined individual measurements of satisfaction with job, income, leisure, and health. Hence, this restricted life satisfaction metric does not account for satisfaction that stems from non-work dimensions of life, such as housework, family relations or social life (Della Giusta et al., 2011). The results of this thesis show self-employment experience has overall a positive impact on individual restricted life satisfaction. A non-linear effect is also observed for the overall sample at the 10 percent confidence level. However, the coefficient magnitude of the quadratic term of self-employment is smaller than the linear term, indicating that regardless of the diminishing effect the gains in satisfaction are preserved. Moreover, the empirical analysis finds that when we

examine separately the samples of women and men, the effect detected in the overall sample derives from women.

The results in Chapter 4 indicate that women who allocate more time to self-employment enjoy a positive linear effect on their restricted life satisfaction. A statistically significant linear effect is also observed for women in overall life satisfaction, but with a smaller effect magnitude. It is also worth noting that testing for non-linear effects reveals a statistically weak association between the quadratic term of self-employment experience and women's restricted life satisfaction ($p<.155$). However, for men the association between self-employment experience and either life satisfaction metric was not statistically significant even at the 20 percent confidence level. Social participation has been shown to predict life satisfaction, and the workplace has been a conduit of social participation (Harlow and Cantor, 1996). The advent of the World Wide Web (www, or simply the "web") and the myriad of internet applications that followed, have been changing the nature work and of social participation (Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007). Online social networks and online work environments have changed the ways in which social interactions take place. Hence, that element of life satisfaction might have a weaker association with work that it had even a few decades ago.

Overall, the findings suggest that self-employment experience has a concordant association with life satisfaction for women, which is observed for both the restricted and the overall life satisfaction metrics. In contrast, self-employment experience does not appear to have an explanatory power over men's life satisfaction. This may be associated with equally accessible career opportunities for men in wage employment and self-employment. Women on the other hand can experience greater difficulties with their career development as wage-employees, particularly if they have to combine career development while conforming with women's traditional role of caring for home and children (Lewis, 2014). While the dominance

of traditional social role expectations has been challenged in many societies, it appears to have preserved some relative influence in the UK (Duberley and Carrigan, 2013; Zhou, 2017).

Individuals can be pushed into self-employment out of necessity during economic downturns when salaried jobs become scarce. Individuals can also be pushed into self-employed for other personal or family related reasons (e.g., motherhood or inheriting a business). Regardless of what triggers the employment switch, people will take deliberate actions to improve their lives and make the best out of their situation (Tatarkiewicz, 1976). Such examples are observed in the experiences of 'mumpreneurs', that is, women who are pushed into entrepreneurship when they become mothers (Duberley and Carrigan, 2013; Littler, 2017). Moreover, in a study on responses to negative shocks by Williams and Shepherd (2016) it is observed that individuals who created business enterprises as a means to overcome adversity, eventually succeeded in creating value for themselves, as well as their local communities. Typically, individuals who turned to entrepreneurship out of necessity are expected to eventually return to wage-employment when circumstances change. However, it is also likely that overt time some will discover that having their own business and "being their own boss" satisfies their personal needs and lifestyle.

Evidence from the UK self-employment trend shows that during the years following the 2008 financial crisis there was a spike in the flow of people into self-employment (Wales and Agyiri, 2016). When the economy once again returned on the growth path, the number of wage-employees increased, and the number of self-employed decreased (Yuen et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the number of self-employment remained higher than the pre-crisis levels at around 15 percent of total employment for the years prior to the Covid-19 pandemic[6] crisis (ONS, 2021). To put it in context, the share of self-employment out of total employment was

[6] Since early 2020 there has been a flow of jobs from self-employment to wage-employment, with the most recent ONS Labour Force Survey data showing that for the period November 2020 – January 2021 the share of self-employment was 13.5 percent out of total employment.

around 12 percent in 2000 and hovered around that percentage until 2008 when it jumped to 13 percent (Wales and Agyiri, 2016). By 2016 the share was trending around 15 percent, with the largest increase observed in London where self-employment reached 17.4 percent of the labour force at the last quarter of 2016 (Yuen et al., 2018).

The high number of self-employed in London is linked with the clustering of buyers and sellers in its large marketplace of goods and services, as well as its agglomeration of multicity urban areas around its core (Dobbs et al., 2011). London is also one of the leading cities in the world for venture capital investments (Adler et al., 2019). London attracts each year a large number of individuals from smaller cities and towns in rural areas who seek to find job opportunities (DEFRA, 2019). In Chapter 5 this thesis examined the allocation of time to self-employment between rural and urban areas. The approach distinguishes four groups: those who have been residents in urban or a rural area for at least one year, and recent in-migrants of an urban or a rural area. The distinction reveals important differences between those who move into an urban or a rural area and the longer-term residents of these areas. Urban residency has a positive effect on the allocation of time to self-employment. However, compared to rural residents, individuals who move from rural to urban areas allocate more time to wage-employment rather than self-employment. These results may imply that it takes some time to get accustomed to the new environment and gain a certain level of experience before turning to self-employment.

Furthermore, the results reveal important gender differences in the probability of allocating more time to self-employment when comparing different career age groups. The career paths that men follow appear to be consistent with the literature on entrepreneurship and self-employment, which suggests that younger people are more likely to experiment with an entrepreneurial idea (DEFRA, 2019; Dobbs et al., 2011), as well as older individuals who take advantage of their accumulated employment experience to identify an opportunity for a new

business (Henley, 2007; Saridakis et al., 2014; Warr and Inceoglu, 2018). The results show that younger men who reside or who move to an urban area allocate more time to self-employment, as do older residents of urban areas. However, women who reside in urban areas do not seem to turn to self-employment when young, but allocate more time to self-employment when in middle and senior career age. Moreover, senior career age women who move from an urban area to a rural area allocate more time to self-employment compared to residents of rural areas.

The results in Chapter 5 suggest that young women have different attitudes than young men with regards to self-employment. The preference of men for self-employment at an early career stage fits the description of the young and bold entrepreneur (Bosma et al., 2020), whereas women at this stage seem to be more risk averse. It is likely that young men have fewer responsibilities than young women, and hence are more willing to take risks (Bosma et al., 2020). The higher allocation of time to self-employments for women in the middle career age-group who reside in urban areas can also be associated with self-efficacy and learning, which suggests that at first women might feel less confident than men about their abilities, but after they gain some experience they build up their confidence (Bandura, 1992; Wilson et al., 2007).

Rural area residence has been shown to have a positive impact on well-being. For example, Hand (2020), finds that the rural residential location is positively associated with higher life satisfaction. Abreu et al., (2019) finds that individuals who switch to self-employed enjoy a job satisfaction premium when in hub-towns, compared to those who reside in major urban areas. When we contrast the findings of higher allocation of time to self-employment in urban areas with the lower job and life satisfaction observed in urban areas, it may imply that individuals persist in self-employment even when they are not highly satisfied with their business venture. Personal and social factors beyond work related factors can influence the decisions of individuals to persist in self-employment or to seek a salaried position in wage-

employment (Mattes, 2016). It may also be that running a business is more demanding than a salaried job (Annink and den Dulk, 2012; Stephan, 2018).

The examination of job-satisfaction offers a way to capture the pleasure which emanates from the evaluation of work experience (Saridakis, Lai, et al., 2020), whereas the examination of life satisfaction offers a way to capture the role that employment plays in people's career and life success (Hodson, 2002). Consistent evidence indicates higher satisfaction with elements of work, such as, job security and work itself (Gazioglu and Tansel, 2006; Millán et al., 2013), can improve productivity (Artz, 2008; Böckerman and Ilmakunnas, 2012; Harter et al., 2002), performance (Artz, 2008; Carree and Verheul, 2012; Harter et al., 2002), and quality of life (Binder and Coad, 2016; Drobnič et al., 2010; Warr and Inceoglu, 2018). As a result, policy makers are progressively concerned with the employment factors that positively affect the well-being and prosperity of people (Amorós and Bosma, 2013; Stiglitz et al., 2009; UNDP, 2015).

Few will contest the findings that entrepreneurs appear to be more satisfied with their jobs than wage-employees. It may be the case that individuals with an entrepreneurial attitude are more optimistic about life and will tend to report higher job satisfaction even when they happen to be in wage-employment (Schjoedt and Shaver, 2012). There are also contrasting results from several studies on self-employment motivation between women and men, which point out that there exist notable differences of family-related issues affecting women's preference for self-employment and elements of their well-being (Abreu et al., 2019; Guerra and Patuelli, 2016; Henley, 2007; Jennings et al., 2016; Saridakis et al., 2014). Despite the many provisions, the proportion of women participation in self-employment is still relatively small (about 15% of total self-employment in the UK), which raises questions about the effectiveness of self-employment policies, as well as our understanding of the nature of the

female entrepreneur. Asking if a *woman who is self-employed is happy*, might be different from asking if *self-employment makes women happy*.

The picture becomes even more blurry when marriage and children are included in the female entrepreneurship picture. Thus, women's attitudes may differ in the specifics not only from those of men, but also from those of other women with different marital or children status. As a result, the reasons for their reported job-satisfaction may be the outcome of higher complexity of social factors that females must cope with. Looking into how job satisfaction and other facets of well-being change when switching to self-employment, as well as self-employment experience increases over time can offer significant information on whether and how their satisfaction varies. Disentangling these effects is key in increasing our insight into female entrepreneurship. Weick (1995: 389) argues that "The key lies in the context – what came before, what comes after."

A common difficulty in women's participation in the workforce stems from antiquated traditions and outmoded social norms about the role of women in society. It is often expected that women will care for family and children, in unequal proportions to that expected by their male spouse (Richard J. Boden, 1999; Hamilton, 2006). Social role expectations also make it more compatible for men to satisfy their traditional gender identity of the "breadwinner" while advancing their employment career, whereas for women whose traditional gender identity is that of the central parent, the development of a successful employment career is less compatible (Deutsch and Saxon, 1998; Duberley and Carrigan, 2013; Zhou, 2017). The increased conflict between working life and social life can create diverse frictions for women and for men. Hence, the advantages and disadvantages of allocating increased time to self-employment can results in experiences which differ between the various facets of well-being.

Governments have identified issues related to gender and have made provisions for women in both wage employment and self-employment[7] to help them with managing their time between work and home activities in a more productive way (i.e., maternity leave, childcare at workplace etc.), which can allow them to have a better work-family balance and engage in employment with greater ease (Marlow, 2006; Henley, 2007; Lyness *et al.*, 2012). Additionally, cultural heritage divergence across different regions may shape the social expectations *for women* as well as women expectations *of themselves*. This can particularly inhibit those women who have entrepreneurial aspirations, since the nature of the entrepreneur might contrast certain aspects of the social role that women are often assigned with (e.g., housewife, childcare). Even the concept of "mumpreneurs" seems to foster traditional gender stereotypes rather than address them in a critical way.

Generic national policies to promote entrepreneurship can differ in their effectiveness across regions due to cultural heritage (i.e., social stereotypes), and are likely to affect women less than men if not carefully designed. Additionally, the important role of entrepreneurship in social organisation and economic activity, together with the complexity of the data in SMEs and entrepreneurship research, merit a more critical view rather than simply advocating the benefits of such policies (Blackburn and Kovalainen, 2009). Furthermore, self-employment includes the own-account workers and sole traders and may not correspond to the *Schumpeterian* idea of the capitalist entrepreneur who exploits a technological breakthrough and achieves great success (Bosma et al., 2020; Schumpeter, 1976). However, there are thousands of uncelebrated owner-managers around the world who have innovated in one way or another in their effort to establish their small business (Stokes and Wilson, 2017). Several of the small business owner-managers will gain experience over time and form long-term

[7] Self-employed women still need to meet more eligibility criteria than wage-employees to get maternity leave.

strategies to grow their businesses; they will be employing others and will build fruitful partnerships with other entrepreneurs.

This thesis advocates for entrepreneurship research to take a broader and longer view on entrepreneurial experiences. A view that echoes Gartner and Shane (1995: 298) who argue, 'We believe that the ability to predict trends, or to state with confidence the specific role of entrepreneurship in an economy, requires more types of longitudinal data over much longer periods of time'. Moreover, in today's fast-paced world with flexible labour laws and individual employment agreements, employees are required to manage their own careers to insure against future personnel downsizing (Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007). With a myriad of web applications, with continuously lower barriers of entry and an ever-growing marketplace for buying and selling existing businesses, starting up a business is not nearly as risky as it might have been in the past. Therefore, it is insufficient to investigate single employment transitions into or out of self-employment as if the transition is the end state in the careers of individuals. Self-employment needs to be investigated as part of a continuous employment career path, where individuals *adjust their work to the seasons to be happy and lucky*.

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Appendix A

Ch. 3: Self-employment experience effects on well-being: A longitudinal study

Table A1: Descriptive statistics and correlations

	Mean	SD	*SELFEXP*	Gender	Age	Part-time	UK-Born	Urban Res.
SELFEXP	0.088	0.258	1.000					
Gender	0.555	0.497	-0.113***	1.000				
Age	40.382	11.017	0.172***	-0.001	1.000			
Part-time	0.416	0.812	0.086***	0.281***	0.042**	1.000		
UK-born	0.864	0.343	-0.042**	0.147***	0.069***	0.029	1.000	
Urban residence	0.812	0.391	-0.062***	-0.073***	-0.120***	-0.089***	-0.130***	1.000
Elementary educ.	0.068	0.251	0.040**	-0.061***	0.238***	0.090***	0.072***	-0.044**
High school educ.	0.239	0.427	-0.011	-0.021	0.049***	0.040**	0.182***	-0.023
+16 educ.	0.124	0.330	-0.059***	-0.004	-0.118***	0.020	-0.036**	0.062***
University educ.	0.450	0.498	-0.004	-0.027	-0.163***	-0.126***	-0.194***	0.042**
Vocational educ.	0.119	0.324	0.051***	0.120***	0.121***	0.050***	0.040**	-0.063***
Unmarried	0.314	0.464	-0.073***	0.051***	-0.508***	-0.025	0.054***	0.079***
Married	0.581	0.493	0.084***	-0.149***	0.306***	0.033*	-0.102***	-0.074***
Divorced	0.102	0.302	-0.021	0.157***	0.266***	-0.017	0.079***	0.018
Widowed	0.003	0.057	-0.019	0.040**	0.081***	0.013	0.023	-0.090***
Children aged 0-4	0.192	0.394	-0.029	-0.086***	-0.216***	0.031*	-0.087***	0.011
Children aged 5-11	0.238	0.426	0.052***	-0.044**	0.027	0.087***	-0.064***	0.026
Children aged 12-15	0.132	0.338	0.014	0.004	0.123***	0.063***	0.013	-0.050***
Homeownership	0.733	0.443	0.041**	-0.002	0.123***	-0.037**	0.132***	-0.032*
House size	2.954	1.046	0.030*	-0.028	0.161***	0.089***	0.086***	-0.138***
Manufacturing	0.094	0.292	-0.036**	-0.131***	-0.030	-0.132***	0.023	0.043**
Electricity, gas…	0.011	0.103	-0.036**	-0.021	-0.018	-0.054***	0.041**	0.050***
Water supply…	0.009	0.095	-0.033*	-0.038**	0.017	-0.041**	0.038**	0.038**
Construction	0.036	0.186	0.313***	-0.127***	0.011	-0.077***	-0.077***	-0.001
Wholesale-retail…	0.124	0.329	-0.032*	-0.026	-0.095***	0.085***	0.044**	-0.013
Transport, storage	0.056	0.229	0.061***	-0.104***	0.091***	-0.093***	0.004	-0.033*
Hospitality services	0.024	0.154	-0.054***	0.081***	-0.154***	0.171***	0.038**	-0.006
Communications	0.037	0.190	0.077***	-0.122***	-0.039**	-0.080***	-0.063***	0.082***
Finance-insurance	0.048	0.213	-0.076***	-0.085***	-0.035*	-0.092***	-0.078***	0.092***
Real estate	0.011	0.103	-0.036**	-0.047**	0.010	0.017	-0.042**	-0.023
Scientific-technical	0.059	0.235	0.076***	-0.057***	-0.011	-0.015	-0.060***	-0.005
Admin. Services	0.055	0.229	-0.019	-0.091***	0.043**	0.052***	0.062***	-0.132***
Public admin.	0.068	0.252	-0.082***	0.036**	0.015	-0.071***	0.039**	0.027
Education	0.133	0.340	0.051***	0.145***	0.039**	0.077***	0.113***	-0.038**
Social work activities	0.198	0.398	-0.102***	0.276***	0.081***	0.072***	-0.073***	-0.030*
Arts-entertainment	0.016	0.124	-0.025	-0.014	-0.062***	0.045**	0.012	0.027
Wave	5.000	2.582	0.010	0.000	0.235***	-0.048***	0.000	-0.006

Note: * p<.1; ** p<.05; *** p<.01

Table A1 continued…

	Elementary educ.	High school educ.	+16 educ.	University educ.	Vocational educ.	Unmarried
Elementary educ.	1.000					
High school educ.	-0.151***	1.000				
+16 educ.	-0.101***	-0.211***	1.000			
University educ.	-0.243***	-0.507***	-0.341***	1.000		
Vocational educ.	-0.099***	-0.206***	-0.139***	-0.333***	1.000	
Unmarried	-0.055***	0.012	0.101***	0.007	-0.086***	1
Married	0.035*	-0.051***	-0.113***	0.058***	0.067***	-0.797***
Divorced	0.022	0.066***	0.035*	-0.095***	0.007	-0.228***
Widowed	0.030*	-0.005	-0.022	-0.052***	0.085***	-0.039**
Children aged 0-4	-0.088***	-0.019	-0.035*	0.107***	-0.035*	-0.191***
Children aged 5-11	-0.052***	0.040**	-0.038**	0.011	0.010	-0.237***
Children aged 12-15	-0.004	0.084***	-0.053***	-0.070***	0.054***	-0.145***
Homeownership	-0.032*	-0.050***	-0.046**	0.051***	0.060***	-0.156***
House size	-0.037**	0.019	-0.036**	-0.017	0.066***	-0.278***
Manufacturing	0.070***	0.030*	0.028	-0.066***	-0.022	-0.054***
Electricity, gas…	-0.028	0.053***	-0.039**	0.020	-0.038**	-0.009
Water supply…	-0.026	0.172***	-0.036**	-0.087***	-0.035*	-0.043**
Construction	0.095***	0.003	0.028	-0.076***	0.010	-0.029
Wholesale-retail…	0.097***	0.135***	-0.006	-0.139***	-0.034*	0.111***
Transport, storage	-0.065***	0.035*	-0.031*	0.027	-0.006	0.033*
Hospitality services activities	-0.042**	0.102***	0.057***	-0.087***	-0.025	0.100***
Communications	-0.053***	-0.070***	-0.043**	0.121***	-0.009	0.057***
Finance-insurance	-0.060***	-0.031*	0.019	0.089***	-0.068***	-0.065***
Real estate	-0.028	-0.059***	0.114***	0.014	-0.038**	0.011
Scientific-technical	-0.067***	-0.048***	0.003	0.099***	-0.040**	-0.004
Admin. Services	0.152***	0.009	0.017	-0.087***	-0.014	0.024
Public admin.	-0.073***	0.016	0.076***	-0.007	-0.031*	0.030*
Education	-0.036**	-0.111***	-0.051***	0.167***	-0.031*	-0.011
Social work activities	-0.022	-0.073***	-0.060***	-0.030*	0.221***	-0.107***
Arts-entertainment	-0.034*	0.022	-0.048***	0.060***	-0.047**	0.085***
Wave	-0.006	-0.016	-0.020	0.029	0.001	-0.098***

Note: * p<.1; ** p<.05; *** p<.01

Table A1 continued…

	Married	Divorced	Widowed	Children aged 0-4	Children aged 5-11	Children aged 12-15	Homeownership	House size
Married	1.000							
Divorced	-0.396***	1.000						
Widowed	-0.068***	-0.019	1.000					
Children aged 0-4	0.280***	-0.158***	-0.028	1.000				
Children aged 5-11	0.306***	-0.130***	-0.032*	0.175***	1.000			
Children aged 12-15	0.146***	-0.012	-0.022	-0.091***	0.205***	1.000		
Homeownership	0.224***	-0.133***	0.035*	0.067***	0.082***	0.082***	1.000	
House size	0.313***	-0.084***	-0.003	0.111***	0.294***	0.282***	0.322***	1.000
Manufacturing	0.044**	0.011	0.001	0.074***	0.033*	-0.049***	-0.021	-0.028
Electricity, gas…	0.031*	-0.035*	-0.006	0.030	-0.021	-0.013	0.063***	0.014
Water supply…	0.061***	-0.032*	-0.006	0.067***	0.027	0.003	0.050***	0.011
Construction	0.054***	-0.042**	-0.011	0.013	0.082***	0.003	0.105***	0.056***
Wholesale-retail…	-0.047**	-0.097***	0.013	-0.061***	-0.133***	-0.043**	0.002	0.022
Transport, storage	-0.034*	0.008	-0.014	-0.097***	-0.055***	-0.027	-0.040**	-0.131***
Hospitality services activities	-0.073***	-0.032*	-0.009	-0.033*	0.022	0.027	-0.088***	-0.030
Communications	-0.025	-0.043**	-0.011	-0.043**	-0.053***	-0.051***	-0.022	-0.061***
Finance-insurance	0.062***	-0.009	0.041**	0.056***	0.081***	0.018	0.048***	0.044**
Real estate	-0.008	-0.004	-0.006	-0.003	0.008	0.025	-0.087***	-0.065***
Scientific-technical	0.025	-0.042**	0.034*	0.002	0.021	-0.035*	-0.051***	0.014
Admin. Services	-0.001	-0.034*	-0.014	0.031*	-0.001	0.003	-0.025	0.027
Public admin.	-0.092***	0.107***	-0.016	-0.003	-0.035*	-0.059***	0.014	-0.052***
Education	-0.012	0.041**	-0.022	-0.029	0.064***	0.078***	0.069***	0.051***
Social work activities	0.064***	0.056***	0.015	0.059***	0.020	0.079***	0.030*	0.047***
Arts-entertainment	-0.080***	0.001	-0.007	-0.021	-0.058***	-0.049***	-0.090***	-0.045**
Wave	0.083***	0.007	0.042**	-0.018	0.059***	0.012	0.069***	0.064***

Note: * p<.1; ** p<.05; *** p<.01

Table A1 continued…

	Water supply…	Construction	Wholesale -retail…	Transport, storage	Hospitality services activities	Communications	Finance-insurance	Real estate
Manufacturing	1.000							
Electricity, gas…	-0.034*	1.000						
Water supply…	-0.031*	-0.010	1.000					
Construction	-0.062***	-0.020	-0.019	1.000				
Wholesale-retail…	-0.121***	-0.039**	-0.036**	-0.073***	1.000			
Transport, storage	-0.078***	-0.025	-0.023	-0.047***	-0.091***	1.000		
Hospitality services activities	-0.051***	-0.016	-0.015	-0.030*	-0.059***	-0.038**	1.000	
Communications	-0.063***	-0.021	-0.019	-0.038**	-0.074***	-0.048***	-0.031*	1.000
Finance-insurance	-0.072***	-0.023	-0.021	-0.043**	-0.084***	-0.054***	-0.035*	-0.044**
Real estate	-0.034*	-0.011	-0.010	-0.020	-0.039**	-0.025	-0.016	-0.021
Scientific-technical	-0.080***	-0.026	-0.024	-0.048***	-0.094***	-0.061***	-0.039**	-0.049***
Admin. Services	-0.078***	-0.025	-0.023	-0.047***	-0.091***	-0.059***	-0.038**	-0.048***
Public admin.	-0.087***	-0.028	-0.026	-0.052***	-0.102***	-0.066***	-0.043**	-0.053***
Education	-0.126***	-0.041**	-0.038**	-0.076***	-0.147***	-0.095***	-0.062***	-0.077***
Social work activities	-0.160***	-0.052***	-0.048***	-0.096***	-0.186***	-0.121***	-0.078***	-0.098***
Arts-entertainment	-0.041**	-0.013	-0.012	-0.024	-0.047***	-0.031*	-0.020	-0.025
Wave	-0.002	-0.011	-0.016	0.014	-0.043**	0.020	-0.027	0.022

Note: * p<.1; ** p<.05; *** p<.01

Table A1 continued…

	Scientific-technical	Admin. Services	Public admin.	Education	Social work activities	Arts-entertainment	Wave
Scientific-technical	1.000						
Admin. Services	-0.060***	1.000					
Public admin.	-0.068***	-0.065***	1.000				
Education	-0.098***	-0.095***	-0.106***	1.000			
Social work activities	-0.124***	-0.120***	-0.134***	-0.194***	1.000		
Arts-entertainment	-0.032*	-0.031*	-0.034*	-0.050***	-0.063***	1.000	
Wave	0.028	-0.028	-0.003	0.017	0.014	-0.029	1.000

Note: * p<.1; ** p<.05; *** p<.01

Appendix B

Ch. 4: The effects of self-employment experience on job and life satisfaction

Table B1. Descriptive statistics

Table B2. Balanced Panel 'Hybrid' model: Overall Sample

Table B3. Balanced Panel 'Hybrid' model: Women

Table B4. Balanced Panel 'Hybrid' model: Men

Appendix C

Ch.5: The effects of rural and urban areas on time allocated to self-employment: differences between men and women.

Table C1. Descriptive statistics

Table C2. Age in Rural/Urban Areas: Skewness and Kurtosis

Age	Rural Area	Urban Areas
Mean	47.082	44.509
Skewness	−0.092	−0.027
Kurtosis	2.708	2.538
Skewness/Kurtosis tests for Normality (95 Cl)		
Pr(Skewness)	0.000	0.060
Pr(Kurtosis)	0.000	0.000
Adj chi2(2)	51.980	–
Prob > chi2	0.000	0.000
Observations	9328	29,057