

# Comparative Analysis of Rural and Urban Start-Up Entrepreneurs in Nigeria

Gadi Dung Paul<sup>1</sup>, Gadi Dung Paul<sup>2</sup> and Esther Bagobiri<sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Plateau State Polytechnic Barkin Ladi

*Received: 16 December 2013 Accepted: 2 January 2014 Published: 15 January 2014*

---

## Abstract

The goal of this paper is to understand the different factors of the rate of entrepreneurial intentions in rural and urban settings. Using data from survey we test for factors that are expected to affect entrepreneurial between rural and urban areas. We assume one hypothesis; the main difference of rural and urban entrepreneurs is the different resources in two areas. The resources used in this study are individual resources and contextual resources individual resources are composed of self-efficacy and demographic characteristics, contextual resources consist of social support and economic resources. Using these independent factors, we conducted Ttests to compare different resources in rural and urban areas. The results of the analysis suggest that the difference in available individual, economic and social support resources does not explain the observed difference in entrepreneurship rate. The results also indicate that gender, ethnicity, income, and number of children in the family have different effects on entrepreneurial intentions in rural and urban settings. The results suggest that policy makers need to account for cultural or geographical differences when designing entrepreneurial educational and support programs in order to enhance the establishment of new business between rural and urban areas.

---

*Index terms*— start-up entrepreneurs, panel study of entrepreneurial dynamics (PSED).

## 1 Introduction

romoting entrepreneurial activities are important strategies for sustainable economic development. Entrepreneurship is argued to be a viable alternative to industrial recruitment and an economically sustainable development strategy (Petrin, 1994). Moreover, entrepreneurial activity has been found to have strong effects on economic growth and job creation (Gartner, Shaver and Reynolds2004; Marshall and Samal, 2006). For instance, Geaeser, Rosenthal and Strange ??2009) suggest that if Henry Ford and Alfred Sloan do not exist, the economic history of Detroit, MI would not have occurred. Therefore, it is important to understand how to support and motivate entrepreneurship.

To develop programs that can provide effective support and promote entrepreneurship, it is important to understand what drives entrepreneurial intents, actions and successes. However, there is no coherent theory of entrepreneurship. Rich entrepreneurial literature focuses on analysis of correlations between socio-economic individual and environmental factors as well as entrepreneurial intents, actions and successes. Also, the majority of data are collected using urban samples. Among the most well known data are the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED) and the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). The recommendations for entrepreneurial educational and support programs are being developed mostly based on the results of the analysis of urban samples. This neglect of rural entrepreneurs leads to the following two questions: one "is rural entrepreneurship different from urban entrepreneurship?" Second, "if so, then how are entrepreneurial programs that target rural areas different from the programs that target urban areas?" Few studies have looked at rural entrepreneurship.

43 Scorsone (2003) said rurality is the influential entrepreneurial resources which can provide both opportunities  
44 and constraints for rural entrepreneurs. They studied the rurality characteristics as an entrepreneurial milieu in  
45 Europe. Dabson (2001) noted the importance of rural entrepreneurship and suggested rural entrepreneurs on the  
46 map in the aspect of physical infrastructure and farm support. However, many studies on rural entrepreneurship  
47 lack access to data and empirical analyses.

48 Most data suggest that the rate of entrepreneurship in rural regions is consistently lower than the rate of  
49 entrepreneurship in urban regions (e.g. Marshall and Samal, 2006;Eurobarometer, 2007). However, it is not clear  
50 why this difference occurs between rural and urban areas. Literature has suggested two potential explanations  
51 one possible explanation is that urban areas offer more social and economic resources. Therefore they create a  
52 better environment for entrepreneurial intentions and actions (Raphael Dar-el and Daniel Felsenstein, 1990; Li  
53 Yu, Peter and Robert, 2009). The other possible explanation of economic inequality between rural and urban  
54 areas is cultural differences. Cultural effects are geographicalspecific identities and most likely can help explain  
55 the different rates of entrepreneurs between rural and urban areas (Edward J. Malecki, 1993).

56 A clear understanding of the driving forces behind the entrepreneurial intentions and actions in rural and  
57 urban settings has important implications for entrepreneurial education and support programs. If the resources  
58 are primarily responsible for the urban-rural gap in entrepreneurial activities, then the main recommendation  
59 for the support programs would be to focus on providing more resources to rural regions. Whereas, if the  
60 inherent cultural differences are primarily responsible for the urban-rural gap in entrepreneurial activities, then  
61 the programs that target rural entrepreneurs need to be designed differently from the programs that target urban  
62 entrepreneurs.

63 The focus of the analysis in this paper is on determinants of entrepreneurial intentions (i.e. on characteristics of  
64 nascent entrepreneurs) for the following two reasons. First, it has been found that the only consistent predictor  
65 of entrepreneurial actions is entrepreneurial intentions (Krueger, 1999). Second, by comparing characteristics  
66 of nascent and active entrepreneurs, it is possible to identify the group of nascent entrepreneurs that never  
67 progressed from intentions to actions, and investigate the particular barriers they face in order to design a more  
68 effective support programs that will work against these barriers.

## 69 2 II.

### 70 3 Literature Review

71 The creation of new businesses is encouraged because of a thought that entrepreneurs and small businesses  
72 reinvigorate markets (Gartner et al., 2004). Many studies have identified factors that are thought to be essential  
73 and effective in motivating the establishment of new firms.

## 74 4 III.

### 75 5 Entrepreneurship Supports for Economic Growth

76 Entrepreneurs are thought to be proactive because they utilize resources effectively in the market, and as a result  
77 spur economic development. Many studies have explored the positive effects of entrepreneurship on economic  
78 development. ??esthead and Wright, (2005) showed positive relationship between entrepreneurs and economic  
79 growth and studied the impact of different kinds of entrepreneurship on economic growth. As a result, among the  
80 four types of new business creation behaviours, high growth entrepreneurship showed a significant impact on the  
81 economic growth. Schmitz (1989) fostered Romer's macroeconomic model (1986) which focuses on the number  
82 of firms and outputs. The results suggested that both endogenous entrepreneurship and external effects from the  
83 entrepreneurs are key factors of economic growth. Wennekers et al. (2005) examined that there are u-shaped  
84 relationships between the rate of nascent entrepreneurs and economic development. Moreover, Wennekers et al.  
85 (2005) found that an increase in the rate of entrepreneurship (number of business owners per labor force) leads  
86 to lower levels of unemployment in 23 OECD countries in the period 1984 through 1994.

## 87 6 IV. Determinants of Entrepreneurship in Urban Samples

88 An important factor of entrepreneurial behaviour is the individual characteristics, specifically human capital,  
89 especially work experience and educational background (Gartner et al, 2004) and push and pull effects providing  
90 motivations for people who are considering start a new business.

### 91 7 a) Push and pull effects

92 One of the most critical factors in entrepreneurship is motivation. Push and pull effects on entrepreneurship  
93 spur the creation of nascent entrepreneurs. Starting a new business does not happen by chance (Wennekers  
94 et al. 2005). When people choose to begin their own businesses, they compare the expected profits from the  
95 new enterprise with their stream of current incomes. Even if an individual is gainfully employed, he/she might  
96 be interested in the potential for higher earnings. These are pull effects. When someone feels that the current  
97 situation is unfruitful or an individual cannot fund gainful employment, this is a push effects.

---

98 The push and pull effects are strong motivators for starting firms as well as continuing enterprises (Shapero  
99 and Sokol, 1982). If the current economic conditions are good, the pull effects are typically larger than the push  
100 effects (Carrasco, 1999). The push and pull effects differ with location: urban entrepreneurs are more likely  
101 to start a business due to disagreements with colleagues and management compared to rural entrepreneurs (K.  
102 Nielsen and L.C. Freire-Gibb, 2010). In addition, urban entrepreneurs are more likely to start new businesses  
103 because of their networking opportunities.

104 We can assume that disagreements with colleagues and management are push factors because these factors  
105 curb to continue current employment, and spur people to create new businesses. Wennekers et al. (2005) studied  
106 the relationship between job satisfaction and the decision to become an entrepreneur. Predictably, their results  
107 showed that people who are more unsatisfied in their previous workplace are more likely to establish a new  
108 business. And the main examples of push factors are workplace distress, anxiety of losing a job, unemployment  
109 rate and market condition (Wennekers et al., 2005;Gartner et al, 2004). The main examples of pull factors are  
110 expectation of life satisfaction and population growth (Gartner et al 2004).

## 111 8 b) Personal background characteristics

112 It is important to review other factors that determine entrepreneurship as well. Although entrepreneurship has  
113 been found to provide many positive benefits, very little is known about the entrepreneurial process. How and  
114 why do new research programs such as the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED) and the Global  
115 Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), have provided some important information about individuals who are involved  
116 in starting new entrepreneurial ventures and the key features of the business creation process. An important  
117 note to consider is that no comprehensive theory of entrepreneurship exists; rather, scholars have focused their  
118 efforts on understanding different components of the phenomenon.

119 One important line of research has focused on the determinants of entrepreneurial intentions which have  
120 been found to be the single best predictor of entrepreneurial actions and eventual successes ??Katz and Carter  
121 1988). Studies have identified two groups of factors that significantly affect entrepreneurial intentions: individual  
122 (personal) and contextual (surroundings) characteristics. Among individual characteristics, researchers have  
123 primarily worked with the concept of entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to a personal belief that one  
124 can successfully deal with various challenges associated with starting and operating a new business (Bandura,  
125 1989). Chen Greene and Crick (1998) found that entrepreneurial selfefficacy increases with one’s intention to  
126 establish a business and that business founders had higher selfefficacy with respect to innovation and risk taking  
127 than non-founders.

128 Other individual characteristics are demographic factors. Some of the demographic factors: gender, age,  
129 education level, marital status and ethnicity are repeatedly reported to strongly correlate with selfemployment  
130 and modulate the effect on determinants of entrepreneurial intentions and actions (Wilson, Kickul and Marlino  
131 2007). For example, according to Carter and Brush (2004), women (4.2%) are less likely to be involved in the  
132 workforce than men (7.6%).

133 There is a negative association between income and the likelihood of becoming an entrepreneur (Reynolds S.  
134 Camp and Bygrane 2001). Evans and Leighton (1989) studied that low-wage people are likely to start a new  
135 business. ??reen and Owen (2004) reported that the decline in family size and in marriage duration provide  
136 an increased motivation for female labour force participation. However, the presence of children influences  
137 the employment rates of women and men in opposite directions (OECD, 2002) -parenthood negatively influences  
138 female employment while positively influencing male employment. Mothers are less likely to be full-time employees  
139 than women without children.

140 Marital status is significantly different between start-up entrepreneurs and other groups. The married rate  
141 is 58.6% in nascent entrepreneurs and 51.6% in comparison control group (not involved with a business start-  
142 up) (Brush and Manolova;. As for tenure (amount of time living in the present location) among the nascent  
143 entrepreneurs, 16.3% have resided in rural areas for 30 years more, however, in case of the comparison group  
144 26.8% have lived in rural areas for 30 years more. The most nascent entrepreneurs are established residents in  
145 the place where they began a new business (Reynolds, 2004).

## 146 9 V. Comparison of Economic and Social

### 147 Characteristics of Rural and Urban Regions

148 Contextual researchers have differentiated between objectively available economic resources and individual  
149 perception about the availability of necessary resources. Baum and Oliver (1992) quoted that in regions with  
150 high population density, there are more opportunities to gain effective knowledge and create extensive social  
151 networks, but there is also intense competition.

152 During demographic transition, if population growth initially accelerates, the economy experiences faster  
153 consumption growth, productivity growth, and entry during this initial period (Peretto, 1998). Carree, Thurick  
154 and Surley (2002) reported that the nascent entrepreneurship shows a U-shape relationship per capita income as  
155 compared to 23 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries during 1976-1996.  
156 Evans and Jovanovic (1989) and Blanchflower and Meyer (1994) suggest that increased unemployment leads to  
157 an increase in startup activity, since the opportunity cost of not starting a firm has decreased (Push effect).

## 10 VI. DETERMINANTS OF RURAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND COMPARISON THEM WITH DETERMINANTS OF URBAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

158 Economic resources, education, government support programs and local networks may exist in a community,  
159 but they might be ineffective tools for helping individuals starting new businesses. Therefore, the availability of  
160 resources is not necessarily the key factor to assist entrepreneurs, but the individual's perception of the usefulness  
161 and available resources influences individual entrepreneurial intent.

### 162 10 VI. Determinants of Rural Entrepreneurship and Compari- 163 son them with Determinants of Urban Entrepreneurship

164 Individuals can be easily influenced by contextual environments. Geographic location dictates input costs such  
165 as rent, labour, and capital, scale of market, and regulations and taxes. Thus, an individual decision to start a  
166 new business would vary depending on location.

167 Studies of urban entrepreneurs are more prevalent than those on rural entrepreneurs. In contrast to urban  
168 areas where there are arrays of different types of self-employed businesses, in rural areas, self employed farm  
169 businesses tend to dominate ??Gladwin et al., 1990).

170 Peretto, (1998) found distinguishing factors between founders and non-founders of enterprises and differences  
171 between rural and urban entrepreneurs using 1987 data from North Florida and New England. They adopted a  
172 probit model to understand the different decision making strategies between rural and urban areas. As a result of  
173 discriminating factors between founders and non-founders, psychological variables are not significantly different  
174 for entrepreneurs starting new businesses in rural as opposed to urban areas. However, prior experience in starting  
175 firms and the proportion of currently owned firms have a positive effect, while education and management period  
176 have a negative effect on the start of new businesses. The largest effect on the probability of having starting a  
177 new business is previously owned other businesses. Generally, the authors found that rural areas tend to be more  
178 personal, peaceful, clannish, and have a smaller number of consumers than urban areas therefore community and  
179 financial management information is useful to start new businesses.

180 Marshall and Samal (2006) compared human and financial capital of start-up entrepreneurs between rural  
181 and urban areas. They collected data from the 2004-2005 Indiana start-up entrepreneurs' workshop. They  
182 used a logistic regression -the dependent variable was the binary for whether to start-up a business or not, and  
183 the independent variables were the personal demographics, human capital, financial capital, and location. They  
184 implied that higher net worth (more than \$50,000) and residence in cities were positive effects on the start of a new  
185 business, while home ownership is a negative effect on the establishment of new firms. Analyzing the combined  
186 effects, they estimated the probabilities of a female homeowner, employed during the last six months, having  
187 retail chain, graduate degree, greater than net worth \$50,000; living in cities had 99.14% probability starting new  
188 businesses. And a female homeowner, employed during the last six months, not having retail chain, bachelor's  
189 degree, less than net worth \$50,000, living in country sides had 18.60% probability starting new businesses. They  
190 determined that the critical factors to participate in new enterprises are net worth and residential places.

191 Nielsen and Freire-Gibb (2010) studied the behaviour of female entrepreneurs in rural and urban areas. They  
192 found that urban women had more education, higher socio-economic status, and middle level of investment than  
193 rural women in Bangalore. They categorized the factors which were effective on the creation of new businesses  
194 into three aspects: personal characteristics, socio-economic characteristics and enterprise-related variables. For  
195 personal characteristics, education, marital status, birth order, and family support were positively related to  
196 the start of new businesses; however, age and family dependency ratios were negatively related to new firm  
197 development in both rural and urban areas. The socio-economic characteristics included socio-economic status,  
198 sociopolitical participation, and mass-media participation was positively related with entrepreneurial behaviour.  
199 In enterprise related variables, ownership of enterprise, extent of investment, and training received are significantly  
200 related to participation in enterprises in both rural and urban areas. However, institutional support only affected  
201 the urban areas, and financial assistance was not related to either rural or urban areas.

202 Nielsen and Freire-Gibb (2010) studied how rural and urban areas influence the identity and network of  
203 entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs in Denmark. They used logistic regression analysis and data from the  
204 Integrated Database for Labour Market Research (IDA), as well as a questionnaire survey on Danish wageearner  
205 and entrepreneurs in 2008. The independent variables were categorized by demographics, identity, start-up  
206 motivation, and network. The results were that there were no highly significant differences in geographic effects  
207 and in the case of identity such as intrinsic values score, extrinsic values score, convenience, finances, co-workers,  
208 career, entrepreneurial traits score, risk seeking score, tolerance of ambiguity, need for achievement, locus of  
209 control, desire for independence, optimism, and creativity between rural and urban areas, the entrepreneurial  
210 traits were not significantly different between rural and urban areas. However, urban entrepreneurs are more  
211 creative, less motivated by the financial side of work, more encouraged by the career side of work, and more likely  
212 to start a new business.

213 Start-up motivations such as a new product/service, becoming one's own employer, new work challenges,  
214 higher earnings, control work tasks and hours, and the ability to support family/friends were also not significantly  
215 different across the two areas. However, rural entrepreneurs were more likely to start a new business by converting  
216 a hobby into their career. Urban entrepreneurs were more likely to contact former schoolmates, use professionals,  
217 and contact other entrepreneurial friends, but less likely to contact former colleagues, who were influenced by  
218 family entrepreneurs rather than rural entrepreneurs.

---

## 11 VII.

### 12 Research Methodology

Data were collected from a sample of people to determine the relationship between decision to start a new business (the dependent variable) individual and contextual resources (the independent variable). The theoretical population of the study consists of the entire entrepreneurs in the country. However, the study was restricted to plateau state. A simple random sampling technique was used in this study. The primary data consists of a number of items in well-structured nondisguised questionnaire that was administered to and completed by the respondents. The decision to structure the questionnaire is predicated on the need to reduce variability in the meanings possessed by the questions as a way of ensuring comparability of responses. The return rate of completed questionnaire was 80% as we were able to get back 48 out of 60 questionnaires given to our respondents. Thus, only 48 questionnaires were used for final analysis in this study. Data collected from the questionnaire were analysed, summarised and interpreted according with the aid of descriptive statistical techniques such as total score and simple percentage. T-tests were used to compare means between two different groups with the help of statistical packages for social science (spss). The trends, and patterns and relationship among data were identified and interpreted.

## 13 VIII.

### 14 Testing of Hypothesis and Interpretation of Results

Hypothesis 1: The gap in rural and urban entrepreneurship is due to a difference in individual and contextual resources.

The individual resources include demographic characteristics and entrepreneurial self-efficacy. To be specific, we investigate how gender, age, employment status, income, education, residence (tenure), household size, presence of children and marital status differ across rural and urban settings.

Contextual resources include social resources and economic resources. As a proxy for social resources, this study adopted the perceived level of community support. When businesses start, community support should be considered as well as one's own resources or economic resources. The community is a society which has common interests -new entrepreneurs get information as well as financing opportunities from the community.

The considerable economic resources are income per capita, and unemployment rate. Moreover, we include population density and population growth as economic resources.

If income per capita is high, then purchasing power is increased and the place is good for beginning a business. Because urban areas have higher living costs and prices compared to rural areas, and there are better chances of getting a higher salary than in rural areas income per capita in urban areas might be higher than in rural areas. If the unemployment rate is high, then the economy is not vivid and the purchasing power would decrease even though the unemployment rate could spur making their businesses. Because of diversity in job opportunities, unemployment rates of cities are less than rural areas.

IX.

### 15 Description of Variables

The dependent variable is the decision to start a new business-this is a binary variable: if the answer is "yes" then the code is "1", otherwise it is "0". Individual characteristics include gender, age, ethnicity, unemployment status education, tenure, number of household members and children, marital status, and entrepreneurial self-efficacy. Gender is a dummy variable: if the respondent is "male" then the code is "1", if not it is "0". In age, the reference group is 45-64 years old, and the other two age groups are people under 44 years old and people older than 65 years old. The unemployment status code is "1", and employment (full time, part time, or temporary) is "0". For income, the reference group is under ?100,000, so less than ?100,000 is coded as "1"; all income of ?100,000 and above is coded as "0". The middle education group is the reference group, so the low and high education groups are included in the analysis. If a person lived in their place of residence for more than 5 years, then the code is "1"; those who lived 5 years or less in their place of residence are coded "0". The household members and number of children are coded to numbers. If the respondents are married, then the code is "1". If they are not, it is "0". Factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to reduce the number of variables in the analytic model by creating single variables to represent highly correlated statements. The varimax rotation in factor analysis maximizes the sum of the variances of the squared loadings; if there are high correlations the number of factors is decreased. The cronbach alpha statistic of reliability was used to evaluate possible composite variables. Two variables, entrepreneurial selfefficacy and perceived community support were derived for highly correlated statements, as shown in Table 2.

In entrepreneurial self-efficacy, the original questions included four statements; "If I work hard, I can successfully start a new business," "Overall, my skills and abilities will help me start a business," "My past experience will be very valuable in starting a business," and "I am confident I can put in the effort needed to start a business." The possible responses are ranged from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree").

These four statements are highly correlated and can be reduced to one common factor. As a result of factor analysis using varimax rotation, the scale is reduced to one factor which represents the entrepreneurial self-

## 19 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

---

278 efficacy. The eigenvalue is 2.407, and the explanation power of variance is 60%. Since the Cronbach alpha  
279 showing reliability is 0.772, we can use this factor.

280 In perceived community support, the original questionnaire consisted of five statements: "Young people are  
281 encouraged to start their own businesses in my community," "State and local governments provide good support  
282 for people starting new businesses in my community," "Bankers and investors go out of their way to help new  
283 businesses get started in my community," "Other community groups provide good support for and can be people  
284 starting new businesses in my community," and "The local media does a good job of covering local business news  
285 in my community." These are highly correlated and these are reduced to one common factor. The eigenvalue is  
286 2.423 and the variance is 48%. The cronbach alpha is 0.726, so we can use this factor. other community groups  
287 provide good support for .729

288 X.

## 289 16 Summary of Research Findings

290 As the determinants of entrepreneurship, we referred to the previous studies and compared two aspects: individual  
291 resources and contextual resources. Using these independent factors, we conducted T-tests to compare different  
292 resources in rural and urban areas. Then we studied the motivation of rural and urban entrepreneurs and assumed  
293 rural entrepreneurs have higher push effects than urban areas, urban entrepreneurs have higher pull effects than  
294 rural areas.

## 295 17 XI. T-Test Results (Resource Differences)

296 T-tests are useful when comparing means between two different groups. Using calculated weights, we conducted  
297 the weighted T-test. The last column in table 1, we have results of the weighted T-test. As expected, the plan  
298 to start a business rate is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Urban entrepreneurs tend to higher income,  
299 education, income per capita, and population density than rural entrepreneurs. These results are consistent with  
300 our hypothesis; it is because cities tend to more markets, job opportunities, and schools, so the people who live  
301 in cities are more likely to start a new business receiving a higher income and education.

302 Low income, low education, tenure, and unemployment rate factors are more significant and influential in  
303 rural areas than in urban areas. These results support our hypotheses. Rural areas show long tenure, which  
304 means that rural areas are static and conservative. Rural areas do not have many universities, so the educational  
305 opportunities are fewer than in urban areas. This means that rural residents tend to earn a lower income than  
306 their urban counterparts.

307 Unemployment rates are also higher in rural areas than in urban areas because there are fewer job opportunities.  
308 These results show that the entrepreneurs who live in cities tend to be competitive and more employable. The  
309 entrepreneurs who live in rural areas have a propensity to continue living their secure lifestyles -they don't move  
310 frequently from their location. Nevertheless, household numbers in rural areas are lower than in cities. This  
311 result differs from the hypothesis, perhaps because in rural areas, there is lack of young people and the elderly  
312 live without their children, so the number of household members is lower than in urban areas.

313 In contrast to what was proposed in the hypothesis, expected self efficacy, the perceived community support,  
314 age, gender, number of children, and marital status are not significantly different between urban and rural areas.  
315 These results differ from the study by Marshall (2006) which showed that the female in urban areas is more  
316 likely to start a business than the female in rural areas. According to these results, there is not big difference in  
317 individual characteristics and social networks between urban and rural areas. It appears that environment does  
318 affect infrastructure such as available education and job market resources though.

319 Overall, urban areas have more vitality than rural areas since they have attractions for entrepreneurs looking  
320 to start a new business, such as individual and economic resources. This comparison is a superficial analysis of  
321 the two different locations.

## 322 18 XII.

## 323 19 Conclusions and Implications

324 We investigated the rate of rural and urban entrepreneurship and analyzed what made the difference between  
325 rural and urban settings. When we compared the rural and urban areas, the main gap seemed to be in resources.  
326 In rural areas, there are fewer economic resources and education or job opportunities; however, it has fruitful  
327 potential. Rural areas have lower production and labour costs, as well as good environmental resources. In  
328 urban areas, even though there is great demand, easy-to-find financial and labour resources, and good promotion  
329 programs, there are some problems—such as high competition and low environmental quality. As we expected,  
330 urban areas have fluid economic resources.

331 Economic resources are important when starting a new business. But, the individual resources are also crucial  
332 variables. Such individuals including men, younger, less tenure, married people who are more likely to start a  
333 new business. Moreover, innate characteristics are more important than community or contextual resources. Self-  
334 efficacy is the most representative variable among innate characteristics; if someone has high self-efficacy, he/she is  
335 more likely to create a new business. This is a good motivation and pull effect, even when the novice entrepreneurs

---

336 run into trouble, those with this self-efficacy factor suffer less harshly and are wiser than other people. This term  
337 is not unfamiliar in economics; however, it is closer to the practical model and world, demonstrating that these  
338 physical factors should be considered.

## 339 20 XIII.

### 340 21 Policy Implications

341 Entrepreneurs play a pivotal role in business activities and spur economic growth. Although entrepreneurs are  
342 highly proactive and self-motivated, if policy makers create favourable business environments, then the start-  
343 up businesses would be invigorated and have greater longevity. This study analyzed the behaviour of nascent  
344 entrepreneurs with individual, community and economic environment characteristics in rural and urban areas.

345 Most entrepreneurs programs focus on the small entrepreneurs to support their existence or to protect from  
346 the closing. This study analyzed the differences between rural and urban entrepreneurs in terms of two aspects:  
347 individual/contextual resources, and cultural effects. In accordance with these results, the policies or the related  
348 programs can be designed for rural and urban areas. First, after comparing individual and contextual resources  
349 in rural and urban areas, as we expected, resources are more abundant in urban areas than in rural areas. Rural  
350 areas are dominantly the male, female, old, married people, have long tenure, unemployment status and high  
351 population growth rate than urban areas. Urban areas have more young, the low and high income; have short  
352 tenure, household number, having children, self-efficacy, income per capita, vulnerability index and population  
353 density than rural areas.

354 To reduce the differences between rural and urban areas and to make better places for start-up businesses,  
355 rural policy makers should focus on promoting rural areas to be more active, vivid and diverse places. Because  
356 rural areas tend to show stationary environments, if the policies or programs are for designed, for more flexible,  
357 for movement and communication, then the community will be invigorated and the people living in rural areas  
358 get more information to achieve their goals. In the case of urban areas, where young and diverse people live, the  
359 motivation for building a new business is higher than in rural areas. However in cities, there are some sorts of  
360 negative byproducts accompanied with higher incomes: a high vulnerability index and a high population density.  
361 So the policies in urban areas should concentrate on the alleviation of negative effects with development rather  
362 than on the stimulation of enthusiasm of individuals.

363 Secondly, we found different cultural effects between rural and urban areas. In rural areas, the people who  
364 are male and older, have a lower income, and live for shorter periods in their current residence are more likely to  
365 participate in new businesses. These people tend to be weak and vulnerable, having less experience, capital or  
366 information. Thus, rural policymakers should provide a way to manage risks for new entrants.

367 In urban areas, the individuals who are young or have high self-efficacy are more likely to establish new firms.  
368 However, the perceived community support has a negative effect on a new business. This shows that those  
369 in cities believe that it is important to embrace risks, but dependence on other people or programs such as  
370 community support are obstacles when opening new enterprises. Even if self-efficacy is a good determinant which  
371 highly increases the probabilities of achieving a goal and continues motivation for new frontiers, it is intriguing  
372 that this factor is only significant in urban areas. Therefore, urban policy makers should focus on a design to  
373 boost self-efficacy for entrepreneurs; however, the specific programs are unclear. We are able to start at this  
374 point, casting a tolerant eye over previous experiences or mistakes in psychology, and we can move to more visual  
375 and practical programs. Besides, a number of households and having children have a different effect on start-up  
376 businesses in rural and urban areas.

377 In rural areas, having fewer household members and having children are good for creating new businesses,  
378 while in urban areas having more household members and fewer children is favourable for participants in new  
379 businesses. These results imply that in rural areas, smaller families and shorter tenure tend to start new things.  
380 Thus, rural policy makers should support the education of children, while providing the adults opportunity  
381 to enter consultant programs. On the other hand, in urban areas, new entrepreneurs receive help from their  
382 household members, but the effectiveness of children is minor. In cities, the expense for raising children is high,  
383 so having children makes parents abandon their new plans or risks Urban policy makers should thus provide  
financial incentives and risk management for parents starting new businesses.

1

t-test

[Note: 1. Age and tenure are not included in the analysis.]

Figure 1: Table 1 :

384

**2**

% of

Figure 2: Table 2 :

- 385 [Oecd (2002)] *?OECD Employment Outlook*, Oecd . 2002. July 2002?. OECD.
- 386 [Blanchflower and Meyer ()] 'A Longitudinal Analysis of Young Entrepreneurs in Australia and the United  
387 States'. Danny Blanchflower , Bruce Meyer . *Small Business Economics* 1994. 6 (1) p. .
- 388 [Romer ()] 'Cake Eating, Chattering, and Jumps: Existence Results for Variational Problems'. Paul M Romer .  
389 *Econometrica* 1986. 54 p. .
- 390 [Chen et al. ()] 'Does Entrepreneurial Self-efficacy Distinguish Entrepreneurs from Manager?'. C C Chen , P G  
391 Greene , A Crick . *Journal of business venturing* 1998. 13 p. .
- 392 [Caree et al. ()] 'Economic Development and Business Ownership: an Analysis Using Data of 23 OECD Countries  
393 in the Period 1976-1996'. M Caree , A V Stel , R Thurik , S Wennekers . *Small Business Economics* 2002. 19  
394 p. .
- 395 [Scorsone ()] 'Encouraging Entrepreneurship in Rural Communities: the University of Kentucky Entrepreneur-  
396 ship Initiative program'. Eric Scorsone . *Journal of Extension* 2003. 41 (6) .
- 397 [Gartner et al. ()] 'Entrepreneurial Behavior: Firm Organizing Processes'. W B Gartner , N M Carter , P D  
398 Reynolds . *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research* 2010. 5 p. .
- 399 [Bar et al. ()] 'Entrepreneurship and Rural Industrialization: Comparing Urban and Rural Patterns of Locational  
400 Choice in Israel'. Raphael Bar , - El , Daniel Felsenstein . *World Development* 1990. 18 (2) p. .
- 401 [Petrin ()] *Entrepreneurship as an Economic Force in Rural Development*, T Petrin . 1994. Germany. REU  
402 International Rural Development Summer School (Keynote paper presented at the Seventh FAO)
- 403 [Malecki ()] 'Entrepreneurship in Regional and Local Development'. Edward J Malecki . *International Regional  
404 Science Review* 1993. 16 p. 119.
- 405 [Eurobarometer ()] *Entrepreneurship-Survey of the EU25. Secondary Analysis. Denmark Technical report*,  
406 Eurobarometer . 2007. European Commission.
- 407 [Evans and Jovanovic ()] 'Estimates of a Model of Entrepreneurial Choice under Liquidity Constraints'. David S  
408 Evans , Boyan Jovanovic . *Journal of Political Economy* 1989. 97 (3) p. .
- 409 [Carter ()] *Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics*, Brush Carter . 2004. SAGE publications.
- 410 [Gartner et al. ()] *Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics*, W B Gartner , K G Shaver , N M Carter , P D  
411 Reynolds . 2004. SAGE publications.
- 412 [Greene ()] *Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics the Process of Business Creation*, Owen Greene . 2004. Sage  
413 Publications. (Race & Ethnicity)
- 414 [Brush and Manolova ()] *Household Structure: Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics*, C G Brush , T S  
415 Manolova . 2004. SAGE publications.
- 416 [Nielsen and Freir (2010)] 'How Important is Geography for the Entrepreneurial Profile'. K L Nielsen , C Freir .  
417 *presented at the DRUID-DIME Academy Winter 2010 PhD Conference on Comwell Rebild Bakker*, (Aalborg,  
418 Denmark) 2010. January 21 -23.
- 419 [Bandura ()] 'Human Agency in Socialcognitive Theory'. A Bandura . *American Psychologist* 1989. 44 p. .
- 420 [Schmitz ()] 'Imitation, Entrepreneurship, and Long-Run Growth'. James A Schmitz Jr . *Journal of Political  
421 Economy* 1989. p. .
- 422 [Baum and Oliver ()] 'Institutional Embeddedness and the Dynamics of Organizational Populations'. J A C  
423 Baum , C Oliver . *American Sociological Review* 1992. 57 p. .
- 424 [Reynolds ()] *Labor Force Participation and Residential Tenure*, P D Reynolds . 2004. SAGE publications.  
425 (Handbook of Entrepreneurial Dynamics)
- 426 [Green ()] *Levels of Resources for Ethnic Entrepreneurs*, Chaganti Green . 2003. p. . (Structure and process)
- 427 [Wennekers et al. ()] 'Nascent Entrepreneurship and the Level of Economic Development'. Sander Wennekers ,  
428 Andre' Van Stel , Roy Thurik , Paul Reynolds . *Small Business Economics* 2005. 24 p. .
- 429 [Katz and Gartner ()] 'Properties of Emerging Organizations'. J A Katz , W B Gartner . *Academy of Management  
430 Review* 1988. 13 (3) p. .
- 431 [Reynolds et al. ()] P D Reynolds , S M Camp , W D Bygrave , E Autio , M Hay . *Global Entrepreneurship  
432 Monitor: 2001 Executive Report*, (Kansas city) 2001. Kaufman center.
- 433 [Shapero and Sokol ()] 'Rural Entrepreneurship in Europe: A Research framework and agenda'. A Shapero ,  
434 Sokol . *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour& Research* 1982. 2004. 2009. Prentice Hall. Sophia  
435 Stathopoulou. 10 (6) p. . (Foundations and Trends in Entrepreneurship)
- 436 [Westfall ()] *Sampling Methods: Excerpt from The Certified Software Quality Engineer Handbook*, Linda Westfall  
437 . [www.westfallteam.com](http://www.westfallteam.com) 2009.
- 438 [Cutter et al. ()] 'Social Vulnerability to Environmental Hazards'. S L Cutter , B J Boruff , W L Shirley . *Social  
439 science quarterly* 2003. 84.

## 21 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

---

- 440 [Evans and Leighton ()] ‘Some Empirical Aspects of Entrepreneurship’. D S Evans , Linda S Leighton . *The*  
441 *American Economic Review* 1989. 79 (3) p. .
- 442 [Dabson ()] *Supporting Rural Entrepreneurship in center for study of Rural America, Policy Options for a New*  
443 *Rural America*, Brian Dabson . 2001. Kansas City, MO: Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City. p. .
- 444 [Pietro ()] ‘Technological Change and Population Growth’. F P Pietro . *Journal of Economic Growth* 1998. 3 p.  
445 .
- 446 [Marshall and Samal (2006)] ‘The Effect of Human and Financial Capital on the Entrepreneurial Process: An  
447 Urban-Rural Comparison of Entrepreneurs in Indiana’. M I Marshall , A Samal . *presentation at the American*  
448 *Agricultural Economics Association Annual Meeting*, 2006. July. p. .
- 449 [Glaeser et al. ()] ‘Urban Economics and Entrepreneurship’. E L Glaeser , S S Rosenthal , W C Strange . *National*  
450 *Bureau of Economic Research* 2009. (Working Paper15536)
- 451 [Reynolds ()] ‘Who Starts Firms? Preliminary Explorations of Firms in Gestation’. P Reynolds . *Small Business*  
452 *Economics* 1997. 9 (5) p. .
- 453 [Yu et al. ()] ‘Why Do Rural Firms Living Longer?’. Li Yu , Peter F Orazem , Robert Jolly . *Agricultural &*  
454 *Applied Economic Association meeting*, 2009.
- 455 [Krueger ()] *Working paper, National Council of Independent Scholars*, N F Krueger . 1999. Bozeman, MT. (The  
456 Cognitive Infrastructure of Opportunity Emergence)