



# International ethnic entrepreneurship: Antecedents, outcomes and environmental context

Tulay Ilhan-Nas<sup>\*</sup>, Kader Sahin<sup>1</sup>, Zuhail Cilingir<sup>2</sup>

Karadeniz Technical University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Trabzon 61080, Turkey

## ARTICLE INFO

### Keywords:

Immigrant  
International ethnic entrepreneurship  
Minority

## ABSTRACT

The paper presents an overview of articles on international ethnic entrepreneurship between 1936 and 2009 from 32 journals published in SSCI using content analysis. The insights gained from the studies are used to make recommendations for future studies on international ethnic entrepreneurship. The most important findings of this study are the crucial effects of transnationalism, mixed-embeddedness and the interaction among social, human and financial capital on ethnic entrepreneurship.

Crown Copyright © 2011 Published by Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

## 1. Introduction

Ethnic entrepreneurship is a field with growing interest for both academicians and executives (Köllinger & Minniti, 2006, p. 60). Because ethnic entrepreneurship has a critical role in developing and building the economy at the social level (Teixeira, 2001, p. 2056), it is no surprise that it has become increasingly popular for researchers to study international ethnic entrepreneurship. Moreover, ethnic enterprises, which represent an important part of modern “multicolor” countries, tend to be enterprises local to these countries (Masurel, Nijkamp, Tasthan, & Vindigni, 2002, p. 240). Waldinger, Howard, and Ward (1990, p. 33) defined ethnic entrepreneurship as “a set of connections and regular patterns of interaction among people sharing a common national background or migration experiences”. This definition emphasizes the ethnic component rather than entrepreneurship (Greene, 1997, p. 58). According to Valdez (2008, p. 956), ethnic entrepreneurship is business ownership among immigrants, ethnic-group members, or both. The traditional sociological approach to ethnic entrepreneurship focuses on the specific characteristics of a given ethnic group.

Currently, there are two theoretically controversial issues concerning international immigrants and ethnic entrepreneurship in the literature: its causes and its consequences (Min & Bozorgmehr, 2000). More recent empirical research suggests that self-employment (Basu, 1998; Constant & Zimmermann, 2006; Fairchild, in press; Kloosterman, 2003; Masurel, Nijkamp, & Vindigni, 2004; Shinnar & Young, 2008), social networks (Basu, 1998; Light, Sabagh, & Bozorgmehr, 1993; Phan & Luk, 2007; Salaff, 2005), policy (Collins, 2003), gender (Janjuha-Jivraj, 2004), human capital characteristics (Ram, Smallbone, Deakins, & Jones, 2003; Valdez, 2008), demographic factors (Evans, 1989; Mora & Davila, 2005; Stone & Stubbs, 2007), and history (Fairchild, in press; Kyle, 1999; Makabe, 1999; Portes, Guarnizo, & Landolt, 1999; Stone & Stubbs, 2007) are the important pull and push factors. On the other hand, ethnic entrepreneurship leads to important

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Tel.: +90 462 377 34 49; fax: +90 462 325 72 81.

E-mail addresses: [tulayco@ktu.edu.tr](mailto:tulayco@ktu.edu.tr), [tulayilhan@yahoo.com](mailto:tulayilhan@yahoo.com) (T. Ilhan-Nas), [kadertan@gmail.com](mailto:kadertan@gmail.com) (K. Sahin), [zcilingir@ktu.edu.tr](mailto:zcilingir@ktu.edu.tr) (Z. Cilingir).

<sup>1</sup> Tel.: +90 462 377 34 49; fax: +90 462 325 72 81.

<sup>2</sup> Tel.: +90 462 377 38 15; fax: +90 462 325 72 81.

outcomes in both the home country and the host country. These outcomes are usually job opportunities and economic profits for ethnic entrepreneurs who establish small enterprises (Masurel et al., 2002; Teixeira, 1998, 2001; Wong & Ng, 2002; Zhou, 2004). At the same time, ethnic entrepreneurship leads to an outcome at the country level in terms of transnationalism, the labor market and ethnic enclaves (Keupp & Gassman, 2009; Portes, Haller, & Guarnizo, 2001; Wilson & Martin, 1982; Zhou & Logan, 1989).

Using content analysis, the present study reviews the literature on international ethnic entrepreneurship in terms of research theme, research method, applied analysis, outcomes, and the environmental context. We look back at the past four decades of research on ethnic entrepreneurship to provide a framework for this phenomenon and to find fruitful areas for future studies. This study reviews articles about international ethnic entrepreneurship between the years 1936 and 2008. The aim of this paper is to contribute to the literature on ethnic entrepreneurship by providing an overview of the relationship between the triggers or outcomes and international ethnic entrepreneurship and identifying the theoretical framework, research methods, theoretical approach, and the home and host countries of these studies. The research questions guiding this study are as follows:

- (1) What are the triggers in the studies on international ethnic entrepreneurship? More specifically, what literature do they draw on, and which theories have they used? What are the pull and push factors?
- (2) What are the methodological approaches used in these studies? More specifically, are the research methods of these studies empirical or conceptual or are they literature reviews? Which analytical methods do these studies use?
- (3) Which countries have dominated the empirical studies on international ethnic enterprises? Which countries are the home and host countries?
- (4) What are the findings and contributions of these studies at the individual, organizational and country levels?

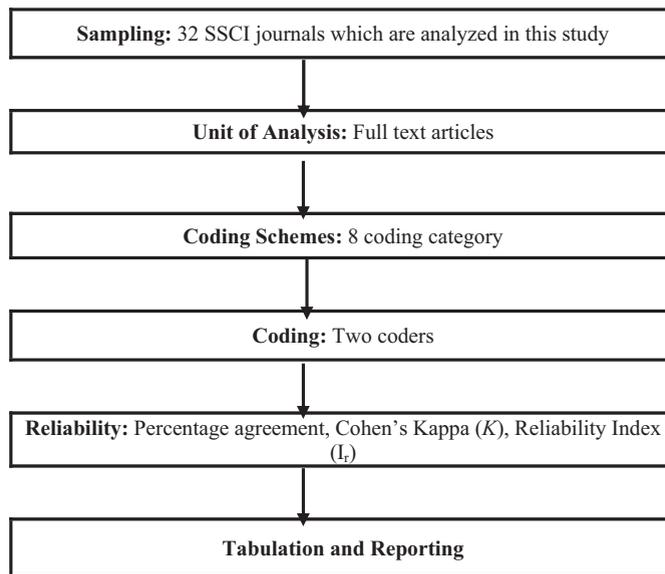
The first part of this study reviews the articles on international ethnic entrepreneurship in terms of antecedents, research methods, and outcomes using content analyses. Then, based on the findings of the literature review, the model that explains the interaction between international entrepreneurship and both antecedents and outcomes in light of the literature is presented. The final section considers future studies.

## 2. Methodology

Content analysis was chosen as the method of analysis because it is commonly regarded as a useful measurement technique in the social sciences (Okazaki, 2004, p. 86). The technique is indispensable among social scientists who evaluate historical documents, newspaper stories, political speeches, open-ended interviews, diplomatic messages, psychological diaries, or official publications (Weber, 1990, p. 5). Content analysis is a method of codifying the text (or content) of a text into various groups (or categories) depending on selected criteria (Milne & Adler, 1999, p. 237). Content analysis is defined as an observational research method used to systematically evaluate the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communication. These communications can also be analyzed at many levels (image, word, roles, etc.), thereby creating a broad range of research opportunities (Lombard, Synder-Duch & Bracken, 2002, p. 588). The content analysis refers to material rather than offering a summary of current literature. This situation provides a unique and useful guide for researchers using content analysis (Weber, 1990, p. 13). This analysis is sensitive in that it allows the researcher to process texts that are significant, meaningful, informative and representational. However, other analyses, such as controlled laboratory experiments, surveys, structured interviews, and statistical analyses, are context-insensitive methods that generate data without reference to their original contexts. What gives rise to the data, the nature of various elements in the data, or what the data mean to their sources is not important in such methods; content analysis recognizes that the data are read by others who make sense of them by referencing them to their personal context. As a result, the use of content analysis that can handle large volumes of data provides an opportunity to create data that is relevant to all users (Krippendorff, 2004, pp. 40–41). Fig. 1 shows the steps of the content analysis used in this study.

First, we researched keywords such as ethnic, immigrant, minority entrepreneurship, ethnic entrepreneurship, and international ethnic entrepreneurship on Google Scholar, the most comprehensive search engine in the world, in order to display the developments in international ethnic entrepreneurship. In the literature, researchers use the concepts of immigrant entrepreneurship (e.g., Evans, 1989; Kim, 2006; Kloosterman & Van Der Leun, 1999; Portes, 2003; Rath & Kloosterman, 2000; Razin & Langlois, 1996; Waldinger, 1989) and minority entrepreneurship (e.g., Barrett, Jones, & McEvoy, 1996; Collins, 2003; Logan, Alba & Stults, 2003; Masurel et al., 2002; Teixeira, 1998, 2001) rather than ethnic entrepreneurship. As a result of searching, the author accessed nearly 300 articles, research papers, presentations and research documents prepared by many institutions. After these 300 papers were thoroughly investigated, we listed the journals published in SSCI and the keywords to be used for content analysis. Then; we searched for “immigrant”; “minority”; and “ethnic entrepreneurship” anywhere in the text of articles published in all these journals (please see Appendix A for the names of these journals, the publication years searched, and the number of articles used for content analysis).

Of the 322 articles found, 64 were used for content analysis. Two hundred and fifty-seven articles were not analyzed because they were not specifically related to the international ethnic entrepreneurship. As seen in Fig. 1, after the sample was determined, the defined context and coding units were applied. The context unit is the body of material surrounding the



Source: Adapted from Nasir (2005: 444).

Fig. 1. The flowchart for process of content analysis. Source: Adapted from Nasir (2005:444).

coding units (Steinfeld, Adelaar, & Liu, 2005, p. 205). In this study, the unit of analysis was the full-text article in the sample. The coding unit was the content of the text that was relevant to the assumptions of this study (Okazaki & Rivas, 2002, p. 383). Six units that have been commonly used in content analysis literature are words, semantics, sentences, themes, paragraphs, and whole texts (Nasir, 2005, p. 445). However, Berg (1995, p. 231) claim that there are seven units, which include words or terms, themes, characters, paragraphs, items, concepts, and semantics. In this study, the coding units are themes. After the unit of analysis, the next step is applying the coding schemes (i.e., categorical analysis). The aim of this analysis is to determine the specific content characteristics and to apply explicit rules for identifying and recording these characteristics (Berg, 1995, p. 233). This is a “taxonomic” method due to the fact that numbers, categories and measures are used in this analysis. We thoroughly investigated all 322 articles and then defined categories and sub-categories. In the process of creating the sub-themes, we developed open-ended questions. The responses obtained using open-ended questions were transferred, after the coding process, onto a nominal scale. This helps to identify different elements or indicates that an individual belongs to a certain class by means of a univocal correspondence (i.e., all the members of a single class will be associated with the same number) (Leiva, Rios, & Martinez, 2006, p. 520). The coding schemas for content analysis were developed with detailed operational definitions in light of the open-ended questions using the deductive method. The coding schemas included eight coding categories containing triggers, theoretical frameworks, research methods, home countries, host countries, and outcomes. All of the coding was completed by two coders over two months.

The next step of content analysis is reliability. Inter-coder reliability is a sine qua non in content analysis. If it is not calculated, the results of the content analysis cannot be used due to their lack of reliability (Lombard et al., 2002, p. 588). In this context, the percentage of agreement method was first used to determine the coefficient of inter-coder reliability for items used in the framework. The results of the percentage of agreement of the triggers, analytical methods, and outcomes, were 0.94, 0.97, and 0.95, respectively. However, this method has a major weakness, the most important of which involves its failure to account for agreement that would occur simply by chance (Lombard et al., 2002, p. 590). The Cohen's Kappas were then calculated. The results of the Cohen's Kappa for triggers, analytical methods, and outcomes, were 0.92, 0.90, and 0.94, respectively. However, Cohen's Kappa was designed for clinical psychological judgments, where it is assumed that the judges, a priori, will assign very few cases to “strange” categories. Therefore, it is a useful coefficient when a set of response patterns are expected to be evaluated by comparison with an already-established standard (Leiva et al., 2006, p. 522). In terms of an index suited for general endorsement, Perreault and Leigh's (1989) index would seem to fit many research circumstances (e.g., two coders) (Grayson & Rust, 2001, p. 72). The results of the  $I_r$  estimate of reliability of triggers, analytical methods, and outcomes were 0.96, 0.98, and 0.97, respectively. To check the intra-judge reliability, the coders coded all papers again after a month. The results of the percentage of agreement for the triggers, analytical methods, and outcomes were 0.93, 0.97, and 0.95, respectively, for the one coder, and 0.95, 0.98, and 0.92, respectively, for the other coder. The items on which the authors did not agree were discussed under agreement was reached.

**Table 1**  
Frequency analysis of the articles analyzed in this study from the point of view of published years and journal lists.

Years	Entrepreneurship				Labor				Sociology		Others				Total	%	
	JBV	SBE	JSBM	ERD	ERS	JEMS	IMR	HS	ASR	SP	OS	US	IJJUR	CG			GC
...–95							2		1	2						5	8
96–00	1	4	3		2		3	1				1	1	1		17	26
01–05			3	7	4	5	2		1		1	1	3		1	28	44
06–...	1	3	2	1	1	4	1	1								14	22
Total	2	7	8	8	7	9	8	2	2	2	1	2	4	1	1	64	100
Total (%)		25 (39%)				26 (41%)				4 (6%)		9 (14%)					

ASR: American Sociological Review; CG: The Canadian Geographer; ERD: entrepreneurship and regional development; ERS: ethnic and racial studies; GC: growth and change; HS: housing studies; JBV: Journal of Business Venturing; JEMS: Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies; JSBM: Journal of Small Business Management; IJJUR: International Journal of Urban and Regional Research; IMR: International Migration Review; OS: organization studies; SBE: small business economics; SP: social perspectives; US: urban studies.

### 3. Results

Ethnic entrepreneurship covers entrepreneurship, labor, management and other disciplines. Therefore, Table 1 shows the distribution of time plots for articles according to these disciplines.

According to Table 1, the fields producing the most published works are entrepreneurship (25 articles) and labor (26 articles). On the other hand, the first published articles on ethnic entrepreneurship were within the labor and sociology fields. Although the topic of ethnic entrepreneurship has been investigated since 1987, it was not mentioned in any articles published in SSCI journals during the period between 1990 and 1994.

Table 2 shows the trigger categories and the theories used by these triggers. As shown in Table 2, an important trigger is the reasons of self-employment in ethnic groups. After the self-employment trigger, the others are policies of ethnic entrepreneurship and the role of social, economic and institutional contexts. In accordance with several theories used to explain these triggers, the most widely used theories were culture and social network theory. Cultural theory proposes that immigrant entrepreneurs tend to establish an enterprise when driven by pull and push factors (Basu, 1998; Fairchild, in press; Masurel, Nijkamp, & Vindigni, 2004; Teixeira, 2001). On the other hand, social network theory “focuses on entrepreneurship as embedded in a social context, channeled and facilitated or constrained and inhibited by people’s positions in social networks” (Brüderl & Preisendörfer, 1998, p. 214).

**Table 2**  
Theoretical frameworks are used in the articles which are analyzed in this study.

Trigger	Frequency	%	Theory (frequency)
T1. What are the policies affecting ethnic entrepreneurship?	9	14	Cultural Approach (1) Mixed Embeddedness Theory (1) Schumpeter’s Theory (1) Ethnic Enclave Theory (1) Mixed Embeddedness Theory (1)
T2. What are the motivations to enter business (self-employed) ownership?	25	39	Cultural Approach (6) Schumpeter’s Theory (1) Social Network Theory (5) Chaos and Complexity Theory (1) Organizational Theory (1) Resource-Based Approach (1) Disadvantage Theory (1)
T3. What is the core values held by ethnic entrepreneurship?	4	6	Social Network Theory (2) Cultural Approach (1)
T4. What is the role of gender in ethnic entrepreneurship?	3	5	Feminist Approach (2) Cultural Approach (1) Social Network Theory (1)
T5. What are the roles of social, economic and institutional context (mixed embeddedness) at the ethnic entrepreneurship?	8	13	Mixed Embeddedness Theory (3)  Social Network Theory (1) Ethnic Enclave Theory (1) Organizational Theory (1)
T6. How market, social and, human capitals affect ethnic entrepreneurship?	7	11	Cultural Approach (1)
T7. How are the new ethnic entrepreneurship spatially distribute in different area?	2	3	
T8. What does affect of transnationalism in ethnic entrepreneurship?	6	9	Social Network Theory (3) Mixed Embeddedness Theory (1)
Total	64	100	

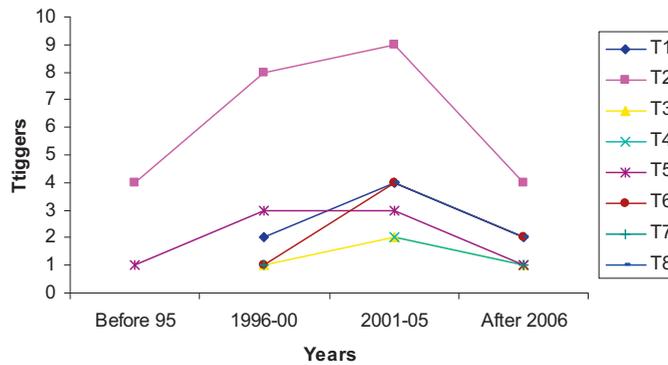


Fig. 2. Time plot of the triggers.

Fig. 2 shows the time series of triggers. The first published articles were about the causes of self-employment, as seen in T2 in Fig. 2, and the concept of mixed-embeddedness, which addresses social, economic and institutional contexts, as seen in T5. The others were researched during the period 1996–2000.

Table 3 shows the frequency of the home and host countries referenced in articles used in content analysis. According to Table 3, there is immigration from emerging economies to developed economies. China and Turkey are important developing countries that are a source of immigration to developed economies. According to Table 3, the countries receiving immigrants have more developed economies. This result supports the related literature. The most searched country in ethnic entrepreneurship articles is the US, a known “migration country” for many ethnic groups. After the US, other developed economies such as Netherlands, Canada, Germany and UK are common host countries. There is not enough research on South Europe, which takes fewer immigrants.

Table 4 shows research methods used by evaluated articles. According to Table 4, 83% of these studies are empirical papers, 11% of these studies are conceptual frameworks and 6% of these studies are literature reviews. Empirical papers were also evaluated in detail and categorized in terms of qualitative and quantitative factors. These results can be seen in Table 5.

According to Table 5, 12 of 53 articles containing empirical methods used both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative methods are more in-depth interviews and case studies, and quantitative methods are usually regression analyses.

Several important outcomes were identified by our study. Table 6 shows the categories and frequencies of outcomes. The outcomes of this study can be divided into three categories. These categories are individual, organizational and societal or

Table 3

Home and host country lists of all articles that are analyzed in this study.

Home country	Frequency <sup>a</sup>	%
Multi-home country	16	20
China	8	10
Turkey	7	9
Asia	6	7
Morocco	6	7
Korea	6	7
Vietnam	4	5
Hispanic	3	4
Blacks	3	4
Portuguese	2	2
Indian	2	2
Cuban	2	2
Japan	2	2
Others (Poland, Iran, Arabian, Europe, Ecuador, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Italy, Jewish, Sikh, Mexico, Suriname, Antillean)	15	19
Total <sup>a</sup>	82	100
Host country	Frequency	%
USA	24	37
Netherlands	9	14
Canada	8	13
Germany	6	9
UK	7	11
Australia	2	3
Others (Israel, West Africa, Brazil, Italy, Slovakia, Spain, France, Multi-host Country)	8	13
Total	64	100

<sup>a</sup> The total is 82 due to the fact that, in some studies, two or more host countries were investigated.

**Table 4**  
Research method of all articles that are analyzed in this study.

Research method	Number of articles	%
Empirical	53	83
Conceptual framework	7	11
Literature review	4	6
Total	64	100

**Table 5**  
Analytical methods used in the 53 empirical articles.

Methods	Frequency
Qualitative	
In-debt interviews	23
Case study	10
Observation	2
Secondary sources and press report	1
Document files	1
Initial survey	1
Notes from participant observation	1
Ethnographic	1
Biographical	1
Event history	1
Archival research a series of newspaper	1
Quantitative	
OLS regression	6
Multivariate analysis	5
T test	4
Multilevel logit	3
One-way ANOVA	3
Chi-square	3
Cluster analysis	2
Binominal logit	2
Probit	2
Questionnaire survey	1
Multidimensional classification technique	1
Vir rough set analysis	1
Logistic and stepwise regression	1
Multivariate regression	1
Simple correlation	1
Factor analysis	1
Longitudinal analysis	1
Bivariate	1

country levels. The individual-level category contains job opportunities and economic profits. The organization-level outcome is the importance of small business in relation to ethnic entrepreneurship. On the other hand, country-level outcomes contain labor markets, economic profits and ethnic enclaves. As seen in Table 6, ethnic entrepreneurship was usually researched by authors from different disciplines at individual, societal or country levels, but organization-level research is limited for ethnic entrepreneurship topics.

**Table 6**  
The outcomes of the articles analyzed in this study.

The categories of the outcomes	Frequency
Individual level outcomes	
The effects of social networks, entrepreneurship, kinship, friendship and community ties	31
Language differences and demographic variables	7
The effects of gender on ethnic entrepreneur's attitude	5
Organizational level outcomes	
The effect of ethnic entrepreneurship on small business	2
Chaos and complexity affect ethnic entrepreneurship	1
Country level and others outcomes	
Social, human and financial capital	5
Positive and negative politics about ethnic entrepreneurship	3
Multiculturalism and its effects on ethnic entrepreneurship	3
Ecologic factors	1
Ethnic enclave and labor markets	5

#### 4. Conclusion and discussion

The focus of the present study is reviewing the articles published in the literature on international ethnic entrepreneurship to identify antecedents and outcomes at the individual, organizational and country levels (Fig. 3). In the literature, it was sought to determine how and in what ways the pull and push factors affect(s) the characteristics of the international ethnic entrepreneurship and how those characteristics affect the outcomes. In Fig. 3, the relationship between the antecedents and the characteristics of international ethnic entrepreneurship and between these characteristics and outcomes are presented in a framework that takes the home and host countries and the environmental context into account. The different perspectives discussed in the literature are integrated in Fig. 3. This framework proposes an interactionist perspective in which antecedents, ethnic entrepreneurship, outcomes, and the environmental context are assumed to interact. Fig. 3 also depicts the direct (solid lines) and moderating (dashed lines) effects.

Regarding the relative importance of antecedent factors, being self-employed is the most important factor for entering business among ethnic entrepreneurs. Social networks, policy, gender and human capital characteristics, solidarity demographic factors and history can be classified as the other factors. This model also reveals that individual-level findings rather than those at the country and organizational levels are important outcomes. The pull and push factors affect outcomes at the individual, organization and country levels, but the environmental context (socioeconomic, institutional, cultural, etc.) moderates the relationship between these antecedents and outcomes. On the other hand, the home and host countries' environments have mediating effects on the relationship between antecedents and outcomes. Individual-level outcomes provide ethnic entrepreneurs with job opportunities and economic profits. Of the antecedents, self-employment, policy, solidarity and trust in ethnic groups, and history shape the outcomes at the country level through the environmental context. Organization-level outcomes are more related to the scale, scope and structural factors of ethnic enterprises. These enterprises are more likely to pursue a niche approach. Therefore, ethnic enterprises are small enterprises driven by self-employment, social networks, and policy factors. These factors lead to organization-level outcomes by moderating the effects of the characteristics of ethnic enterprises.

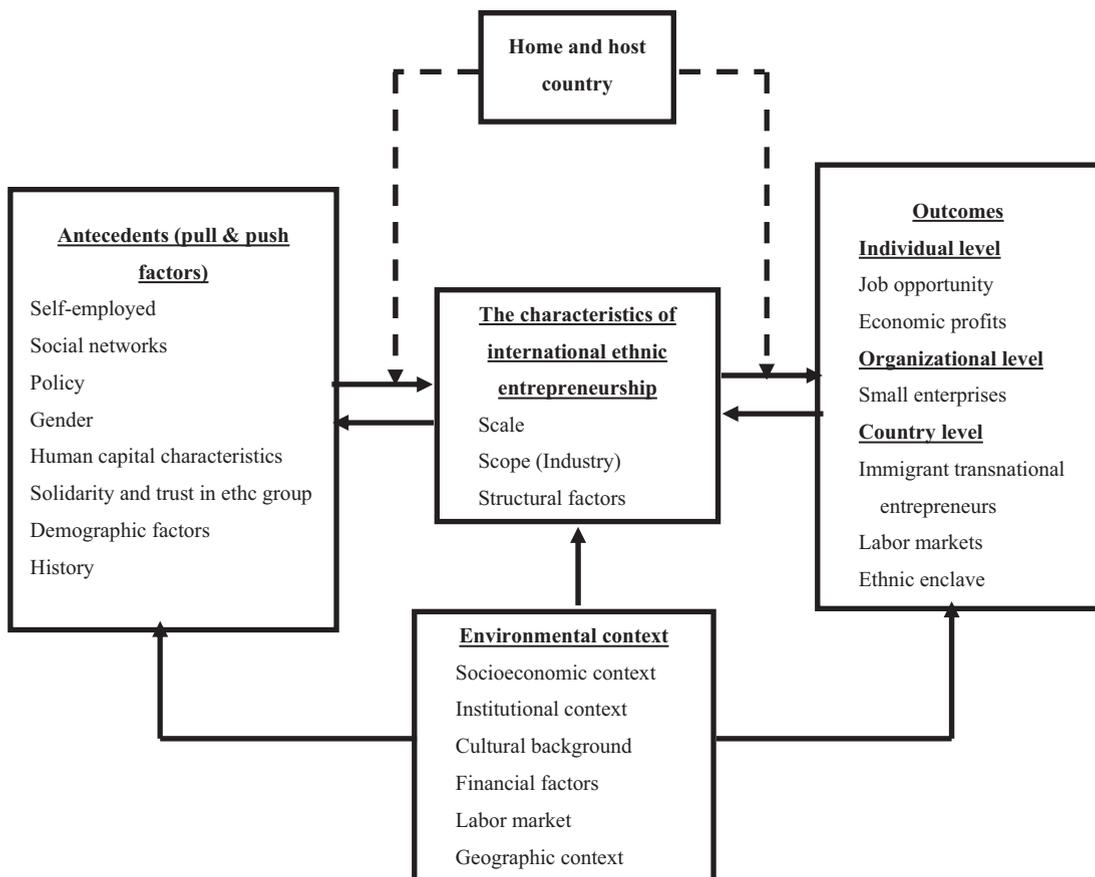


Fig. 3. A model that explains the interaction between international ethnic entrepreneurship and both antecedents and outcomes in light of related literature.

#### 4.1. Antecedents (pull and push factors)

In the Schumpeterian tradition, entrepreneurship is associated with the opportunity-seeking behavior of firms who are deliberately willing to take considerable risks through a permanent learning process of innovation and “creative destruction” (Masurel et al., 2004, p. 77). In this context, the motivations for ethnic entrepreneurs are often grouped into two categories referred to as the push and pull factors. Ethnic groups are pushed into self-employment given their low prospective returns in wage/salary work because of discrimination, language barriers, incompatible education or training, and blocked promotional paths. For minorities and immigrants, self-employment appears more attractive than the wage and salary sector because they feel that it promises higher earnings, an enhanced professional standing, a greater sense of independence, and a flexible schedule to accommodate family needs (pull factors) (Shinnar & Young, 2008, p. 244). According to Levie (2007, p. 145), four factors are proposed to affect the propensity to engage in new business activity. These factors are the relative advantage in the labor market, the ease of resource acquisition for new business activity, the perception of market opportunities, and attitude towards and experience of new business activity.

As risk takers, immigrants are more prone to self-employment than any other group (Constant & Zimmermann, 2006, p. 280). Fairchild (in press, p. 2) proposed three reasons for this situation. First, it has been argued that if immigrants are victims of discrimination in the labor market, they are more likely to choose self-employment (Fairchild, in press, p. 3; Köllinger & Minniti, 2006, p. 60). Therefore, ethnic entrepreneurship offers an ideal solution to unemployment, social exclusion and social mobility (Kloosterman, 2003, p. 167). International ethnic entrepreneurs are pushed into self-employment to avoid unemployment (Basu, 1998; Constant & Zimmermann, 2006; Kloosterman, 2003). A second reason is that immigrants often come from countries with a higher degree of self-employment, and this experience provides a form of sector-specific human capital that facilitates the transition into self-employment. A third notion is that the rapid growth of the immigrant population and the tendency to cluster into ethnic enclaves that contain large proportions of immigrants help to create markets of geographically clustered tastes and needs that co-ethnics can advantageously exploit (Fairchild, in press, p. 2).

Mora and Davila (2005) suggest that demographic factors such as gender, education, immigrant status, and language distance affect the entrepreneurial tendencies of the foreign-born business owners. Evans (1989) argued that linguistically similar ethnic groups are economic niches that offer a competitive advantage to ethnic entrepreneurs. In particular, large ethnic markets and linguistically isolated labor pools are resources for ethnic entrepreneurs, which should stimulate business ownership. Evans (1989) claims that linguistic characteristics affect ethnic entrepreneurs’ probabilities of business ownership, even controlling for a wide range of individual characteristics including education, labor force experience, and occupational status. Differences in language skills, such as those between different countries, are seen as influencing the ability of ethnic entrepreneurs to network with, and market to, the indigenous population, with implications for the future development of businesses and their local impact (Stone & Stubbs, 2007).

Social networks such as family and friends appear to open entrepreneurial opportunities for ethnic business owners. Ethnic entrepreneurs that enter into certain types of businesses are influenced by start-up capital constraints and the presence of family and community members in the same line of business (Basu, 1998). Granovetter (1995) emphasized the value of network-based social capital as an underlying success factor for various groups of ethnic entrepreneurs. These networks supply local experience before investing financial capital in a business. Most previous research on ethnic entrepreneurship emphasizes the cohesiveness of ethnic networks (Phan & Luk, 2007, p. 297). However, this perspective tends to ignore internal conflicts and differences based on national origin, language, religion and status as an immigrant or refugee within broadly defined ethnic groups (Light et al., 1993; Salaff, 2005). Brüderl and Preisendörfer (1998) stated that social capital (network support) is used to compensate shortfalls of other types of capital (human capital and financial capital), although this compensation has not been confirmed empirically. Network support increases the probability of survival and growth of newly founded businesses.

On the other hand, some research considers how social, human or market capital affects ethnic entrepreneurs’ economic success (Ram et al., 2003; Valdez, 2008). Thus, human capital such as skills, education and experience; market capital, which includes tangible material goods related to class background; and social capital, a more “intangible” resource that fosters group-based solidarity, trust and reciprocal obligations, combine to facilitate ethnic entrepreneurship (Valdez, 2008). Valdez (2008) stated that social capital facilitates entrepreneurial participation, but human and market capital are essential for economic success. Taken as a whole, the ethnic entrepreneurship paradigm maintains that the interaction of these components explains ethnic-group differences in entrepreneurship. Furthermore, kinship ties foster social capital in the form of solidarity, trust and reciprocal obligations. Therefore, social capital relates to networks of kinship, friendship and community ties, which are instrumental in establishing and operating their businesses.

One of the antecedents is gender. Relatively little research within the family business field has focused on the role of woman. Therefore, it is difficult to assess whether the role of women is specific to this particular ethnic group or even these sub-groups. Janjuha-Jivraj (2004) examined the role of women in Asian businesses by adopting a very different perspective. As a result, it is possible to identify certain aspects of the Asian culture that may reinforce the importance of the mother’s role in family firms.

Historical conditions affect the evolution of ethnic entrepreneurship activity within a region (Fairchild, in press; Kyle, 1999; Makabe, 1999; Portes, Guarnizo, & Haller, 2002; Stone & Stubbs, 2007). Overall, there is considerable variability depending on the historical context under which particular ethnic entrepreneurship flows take place (Portes et al., 2002).

This opens the possibility that, under certain favorable circumstances, transnational activities can become far more prevalent than those observed so far.

Policy context shapes the rate of formation of and the growth and expansion of ethnic enterprises (Collins, 2003). At both a macro and a micro level, immigration and settlement policy and taxation policy indirectly impact the formation and survival of immigrant minority entrepreneurship. Collins (2003) argued that government policies should encourage unemployed immigrants to become entrepreneurs and obedience government strategies to improve communication with ethnic entrepreneurs. The policies must take multiple approaches rather than a one size-fits-all approach. In addition, ethnic entrepreneurs' language differences and different social and community networks suggest that strategies need to be designed specifically for ethnic entrepreneurs. This approach may be more effective than general policies regarding immigrant entrepreneurs.

#### 4.2. Environmental context

The environmental context affects antecedents, entrepreneurial processes and outcomes. Social, economic and institutional contexts, which are referred to as "mixed embeddedness" (Kloosterman, Ven Der Leun, & Rath, 1999; Kloosterman & Rath, 2001; Leung, 2001; Meira, 2008; Valdez, 2008), determine the failure or success of ethnic entrepreneurship. Leung (2001) used the concept of "mixed embeddedness" which emphasizes the crucial interplay of social and cultural aspects, on the one hand, and local and national economies, on the other. The "supply-side" approach posits that resource mobilization based on group membership increases the likelihood of ethnic enterprise. Recent research extends this approach to include the "demand side" of entrepreneurship; that is, the opportunity structure of the host society. Kloosterman and Rath (2001) paid particular attention to the mixed-embeddedness thesis and specially focused on the demand side of the opportunity structure. In addition, Kloosterman et al. (1999) show that the socioeconomic position of immigrant entrepreneurs can properly be understood by taking into account not only their embeddedness in social networks of immigrants but also their embeddedness in the socioeconomic and politico-institutional environment of the country of settlement.

Waldinger (1989) underlined the impact of ecological factors on business opportunities and conditions; in addition, he proposed that the development of ethnic business is linked to a broader complex of interacting factors. It is widely argued that human, social and market capital affect ethnic entrepreneurs' intention to enter new environments (Kloosterman et al., 1999; Ram et al., 2003; Valdez, 2008; Williams & Balaz, 2005). Valdez (2008) stated that social capital facilitates entrepreneurial participation; however, human and market capital are essential to economic success. Ram et al. (2003) provide evidence for the importance of financial capital in the establishment of firms among ethnic entrepreneurs.

#### 4.3. Outcomes

##### 4.3.1. Individual level

According to Zhou (2004), there are some consequences for ethnic entrepreneurs at the individual level. First, ethnic entrepreneurship creates job opportunities for the self-employed as well as for ethnic workers who would otherwise be excluded from mainstream labor markets. Ethnic entrepreneurship serves as a buffer in relieving sources of potential competition with native-born workers in the larger labor market. Ethnic entrepreneurship not only fosters an entrepreneurial spirit and sets up role models among co-ethnics but also trains prospective entrepreneurs. Gender issues are important motives for ethnic entrepreneurship in terms of the role of mother in the family and in the fashion industry (Ceccagno, 2007; Janjuha-Jivraj, 2004). At the same time, ethnic entrepreneurship affects the economic prospects of in-group members as well as out-group members (Zhou, 2004).

On the other hand, Teixeira (1998, 2001) argued that ethnic entrepreneurs rely more often on group resources (such as kinship, friendship and community ties), which are drivers to establish and operate their businesses. As described earlier, these factors contribute to the formation, maintenance, and success of ethnic entrepreneurs (Teixeira, 1998, 2001; Masurel et al., 2002). Shinnar and Young (2008) claim that, in the Las Vegas metropolitan area, pull factors (including solidarity) have a stronger impact on ethnic entrepreneurship than push factors (including factors that block opportunities to pursue wage and salary employment in the primary job market, forcing immigrants into self-employment as a way out of poverty) drawing individuals into entrepreneurship. The older generation of ethnic entrepreneurs tends to be more oriented towards traditional sectors serving the needs of their own ethnic groups. The younger generation is more open and seeks new opportunities outside of the traditional markets. This offers interesting handles for policy support, as apparently information provision, training and education and a broader cultural orientation are a sine qua non for breakout strategies (Masurel et al., 2004).

##### 4.3.2. Organizational level

Barrett et al. (1996) discussed the general role of small enterprise in late capitalism and the specific role of racial minorities within it. On the other hand, the ethnic dimension of family business research is a relatively new area of research (Froschauer, 2001; Janjuha-Jivraj, 2004; Meira, 2008). International ethnic entrepreneurs have a major share of small businesses in advanced economies that take immigrants, such as Germany, England and the US. Kontos (2003) searched for the self-employment rate of immigrants and non-immigrants between 1985 and 2000 and found that immigrants have a higher self-employment rate than non-immigrants. Kloosterman and Rath (2001) propose that a first line of research

concerns the processes whereby advanced economies create new openings for small businesses. Wong and Ng (2002) draw attention to transnationalism not only at the level of large transnational corporations but also at the small and medium-size business level.

Peterson and Meckler (2001) used chaos and complexity theory to provide insight into the condition of ethnic entrepreneurship on the organizational and theoretical levels. Peterson and Meckler (2001) propose that entrepreneurs' behavior and personality, environmental context and group characteristics lead to outcomes such as an entrepreneur's failure or success. To date, chaos and complexity theory has only been used to explain ethnic entrepreneurship. The reason for this may be that the chaos theory has different arguments compared to other organization-level theory to explain changes in the environmental context.

#### 4.3.3. Country level

In recent years, a new concept, "transnationalism" has introduced an alternative analytical approach in international migration studies (Portes et al., 2002; Rusinovic, 2008). Portes et al. (1999) identified transnational entrepreneurs who are self-employed immigrants whose firms' success depends on their contacts and associates in another country, primarily their country of origin. Cases in point are ethnic entrepreneurs who make a strategic use of their contacts and associates in another country, primarily their country of origin, for their business. There is a rising class of these "transnational entrepreneurs", and they even present a large proportion, often the majority, of the self-employed persons in immigrant communities (Rusinovic, 2008, pp. 432–433). Immigrant transnational entrepreneurship lies at the intersection of immigrant enterprise, a phenomenon described at length in the sociological literature, and the broader field of transnationalism, which also includes political and socio-cultural activities. Transnational entrepreneurship has potential significance for the course of immigrant economic adaptation to the receiving societies and for the development of sending nations (Portes et al., 2001, pp. 7–8). International entrepreneurship is defined as the discovery, enactment, and exploitation of opportunities-across national borders- to create future goods and services. In this context, international entrepreneurship examines and compares – across national borders – how, by whom, and with what effects those opportunities are acted upon (Keupp & Gassman, 2009, p. 602).

The structuring of enclave economies links traditional concerns with background cultural, historical, and situational influences (Wilson & Martin, 1982). While Schwartz, Pantin, Sullivan, Prado, and Szapocznik (2006) investigate the ethnic enclave using acculturation from the point of view of cultural approaches, Johnston, Forrest, and Poulsen (2002) deal with it in light of political perspectives. The ability of certain ethnic groups to create a self-sustaining entrepreneurial class is the basis for the development and vitality of two key mechanisms – ethnic vertical integration and resource mobilization through ethnic ties – which, through a self-sustaining and cumulative process, produce multiplier effects on business creation (Raijman & Tienda, 2003).

The residential segregation of ethnic groups in urban areas remains an issue of importance for policy-making in multicultural societies, such as England, with levels of segregation frequently linked to questions of social exclusion and equal treatment (Johnston et al., 2002; Pécoud, 2002). Zhou and Logan (1989) stated that the ethnic enclave provides positive earnings and returns to educational and other human capital characteristics to immigrant minority workers. Immigrant workers in the enclave labor market achieve greater returns on human capital than those who participate in the outside economy.

The residence in ethnic enclaves affects labor market outcomes of refugees. A key proposition in the theory of ethnic enclave economies is that the enclave opens opportunities for its members that are not easily accessible to society as a whole. The enclave housing market, labor market, and capital market partially shelter ethnic group members from competition by other social groups, from discrimination and abuse on account of their ethnic origins, and from surveillance and regulation by government. In many respects, these boundaries around the enclave provide tangible benefits to group members and seem to offer a positive alternative to assimilation (Logan et al., 2003; Zhou & Logan, 1989).

The main contribution of this study is to propose an evaluative framework regarding ethnic entrepreneurship's determinants and outcomes in different contexts. On the other hand, ethnic entrepreneurship has different motives from those found in the Schumpeterian tradition. Ethnic entrepreneurs have been forced to demonstrate opportunity-seeking behavior because they have actually been subject to discrimination, language barriers and incompatible education or training. Therefore, the concept of ethnic entrepreneurship is evaluated within a specific context. On the other hand, ethnic entrepreneurs have displayed their importance in several developed and emerging economies, affecting a country's economic and political programs. Ethnic entrepreneurs have formed enclaves that serve as shelters for the entrepreneurial activities of ethnic group members, providing resources that enable them to confront economic discrimination and competition. The enclave economy has both advantages and disadvantages, as outlined in the advantage and disadvantage theory.

## 5. Future studies

The entrepreneurs' transnationalism has important implications for future research. Wong and Ng (2002) showed that the overall practice of transnationalism by entrepreneur immigrants is fairly extensive in terms of transmigration and has resulted in newly emerging forms of identity and new conceptualizations of citizenship, which appear to be more

cosmopolitan in nature. However, there are currently no quantitative estimates of the incidence of earlier transnational activities or of their range. The forms of transnationalism can be expected to vary significantly according to the nationality of the immigrant and the context of reception in ways that are currently not well understood. A growing ethnographic literature shows that the phenomenon is present not only in the United States but also in Western Europe and not only among Latin American immigrants but among immigrants from Asia, the Middle East, and Africa (Marques, Santos, & Aranjó, 2001; Ostergaard-Nielsen, 2001; Poros, 2001; Zhou & Kim, 2003). Longitudinal research is needed to determine the proportion of immigrants involved in these activities who eventually return home versus those who translate the economic resources acquired through these activities into a more rapid incorporation into the host society (Evans, 1989).

Kloosterman and Rath (2001) examined the “mixed-embeddedness” approach at the micro-level of neighborhoods, but they propose that the intricate interplay between individual actors, social networks and opportunities for businesses should be empirically explored (Masurel et al., 2002). Therefore, this situation shows that different levels and approaches affect the ethnic entrepreneurship phenomenon. On the other hand, the success factors of ethnic business show significant variation across different ethnic groups.

International ethnic entrepreneurship can be investigated using multiple theoretical approaches. Some researchers try to explain it through the cultural approach. This is not a culturally deterministic explanation, as culture is here conceived as the product of structurally evolving opportunities. Nor does it ignore problems of racism or economic restructuring or institutional contexts. Although local and family resources serve as the starting point for an enterprise, the course of its development is shaped by the entrepreneur’s reaction to the institutional environment and the nature of the resources available.

Most past research on immigrant entrepreneurship emphasizes the cohesiveness of ethnic networks. This perspective tends to ignore internal conflicts and differentiation that are based on national origin, language, religion and status as immigrant or refugee groups within broadly defined ethnic groups (Light et al., 1993; Salaff, 2005). In this way, the conflict within ethnic networks may be investigated in future studies.

## Appendix A

The name of the journal	The published years that the authors reached	The numbers of the articles analyzed/ numbers of the articles reached
Academy of Management Journal	1963–2009	–
Academy of Management Review	1976–2009	–
Administrative Science Quarterly	1956–2009	–
American Sociology Review	1936–2006	2/53
Annual Review of Sociology	1990–2005	–/2
Asia-Pacific Journal of Management	1983–2008	0/2
Entrepreneurship and Regional Development	1998–2009	8/17
Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice	1998–2009	0/15
Ethnic and Racial Studies	1998–2009	7/36
European Urban and Regional Studies	1999–2009	–/3
Growth and Change	1997–2008	1/1
Housing Studies	1986–2009	2/4
International Journal of Urban and Regional Research	1997–2009	4/6
International Journal of Management Reviews	1999–2009	1/1
International Business Review	1997–2009	–/15
International Migration Review	1966–2009	8/30
Journal of Business Venturing	1997–2009	2/5
Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies	1988–2008	9/23
Journal of International Business Studies	1990–2002	0/2
Journal of Product Innovation Management	1997–2009	–
Journal of Small Business	1971–2009	8/11
Journal of World Business	1997–2001	–/6
Management Science	1954–2007	–
Organization Science	1990–2007	–
Organization Studies	1980–2009	1/3
Resources Policy	1997–2009	–/2
Small Business Economics	1989–2009	7/10
Strategic Management Journal	1980–2008	–
Sociological Perspectives	1983–2005	2/24
The American Journal of Sociology	1985–2003	0/41
The Canadian Geographer	1997–2009	1/1
Urban Studies	1993–2007	2/9

## References

- Barrett, G. A., Jones, T. P., & McEvoy, D. (1996). Ethnic minority business: Theoretical discourse in Britain and North America. *Urban Studies*, 33(4–5), 783–809.
- Basu, A. (1998). An exploration of entrepreneurial activity among Asian small business in Britain. *Small Business and Economics*, 10, 313–326.
- Berg, B. L. (1995). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (third edition). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Brüderl, J., & Preisendorfer, P. (1998). Network support and the success of newly founded businesses. *Small Business Economics*, 10, 213–225.
- Collins, J. (2003). Cultural diversity and entrepreneurship: Policy responses to immigrant entrepreneurs in Australia. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 15, 137–149.
- Constant, A., & Zimmermann, K. F. (2006). The making entrepreneurs in Germany: Are native men and immigrant alike? *Small Business Economics*, 26, 279–300.
- Evans, M. D. R. (1989). Immigrant entrepreneurship: Effect of ethnic market size and isolated labor pool. *American Sociological Review*, 54(6), 950–962.
- Fairchild, G. B. (in press). Intergenerational ethnic enclave influences on the likelihood of being self-employed. *Journal of Business Venturing*.
- Granovetter, M. (1995). The economic sociology of firms and entrepreneurs. In A. Portes (Ed.), *The economic sociology of immigration: Essays on networks, ethnicity, and entrepreneurship*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Grayson, K., & Rust, R. (2001). Interrater reliability. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 10(1–2), 71–73.
- Greene, P. G. (1997). A resource-based approach to ethnic business sponsorship: A consideration of Ismaili-Pakistani immigrants. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 35(4), 58–71.
- Janjuha-Jivraj, S. (2004). The impact of the mother during family business succession: Examples from the Asian business community. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 30(4), 781–797.
- Johnston, R., Forrest, J., & Poulsen, M. (2002). Are there ethnic enclaves/ghettos in English cities? *Urban Studies*, 39(4), 591–618.
- Keupp, M. M., & Gassman, O. (2009). The past and future of international entrepreneurship: A review and suggestions for developing the field. *Journal of Management*, 35(3), 600–633.
- Kim, Y. D. (2006). Stepping-stone to intergenerational mobility? The springboard, safety net, or mobility trap functions of Korean immigrant entrepreneurship for the second generation. *International Migration Review*, 40(4), 927–962.
- Kloosterman, R. C. (2003). Creating opportunities. Policies aimed at increasing openings for immigrant entrepreneurs in the Netherlands. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 15, 167–181.
- Kloosterman, R. C., & Rath, J. (2001). Immigrant entrepreneurs in advanced economies: Mixed embeddedness further explored. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 27(2), 189–201.
- Kloosterman, R. C., & Van Der Leun, J. P. (1999). Just for starters: Commercial gentrification by immigrant entrepreneurs in Amsterdam and Rotterdam neighbourhoods. *Housing Studies*, 14(5), 659–677.
- Kloosterman, R. C., Van Der Leun, J., & Rath, J. (1999). Mixed embeddedness: Immigrant entrepreneurship and informal economic activities. *International Journal of Urban & Regional Research*, 23, 253–267.
- Köllinger, P., & Minniti, M. (2006). Not for lack of trying: American entrepreneurship in Black and White. *Small Business Economics*, 27, 59–79.
- Kontos, M. (2003). Self-employed policies and migrants' entrepreneurship in Germany. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 15, 119–135.
- Krippendorff, K. (2004). *Content analysis. An introduction to its methodology* (second edition). California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Kyle, D. (1999). The Otavalo Trade Diaspora: Social capital and transnational entrepreneurship. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 22(2), 422–446.
- Leiva, M. F., Rios, F. J. M., & Martinez, T. L. (2006). Assessment of interjudge reliability in the open-ended questions coding process. *Quality & Quantity*, 40, 519–537.
- Leung, M. W. H. (2001). Get it going: New ethnic Chinese business. The case of Taiwanese-owned computer firms in Hamburg. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 27(2), 277–294.
- Levie, J. (2007). Immigration, in-migration, ethnicity and entrepreneurship in the United Kingdom. *Small Business Economics*, 28, 143–169.
- Light, I., Sabagh, G., & Bozorgmehr, M. (1993). Internal ethnicity in the ethnic economy. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 16(4), 581–597.
- Logan, J. R., Alba, R. D., & Stults, B. J. (2003). Enclaves and entrepreneurs: Assessing the payoff for immigrants and minorities. *International Migration Review*, 37(2), 344–388.
- Lombard, M., Synder-Duch, J., & Bracken, C. C. (2002). Content analysis in mass communication assessment and reporting of intercoder reliability. *Human Communication Research*, 28(4), 587–604.
- Makabe, T. (1999). Ethnic hegemony: The Japanese Brazilians in Agriculture, 1908–1968. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 22(4), 702–723.
- Marques, M. M., Santos, R., & Aranjó, F. (2001). Ariadne's thread: Cape Verdean women in transnational webs. *Global Networks*, 1, 283–306.
- Masurel, E., Nijkamp, P., Tastan, M., & Vindigni, G. (2002). Motivations and performance conditions for ethnic entrepreneurship. *Growth & Change*, 33(2), 238–260.
- Masurel, E., Nijkamp, P., & Vindigni, G. (2004). Breeding places for ethnic entrepreneurs: A comparative marketing approach. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 16, 77–86.
- Meira, F. (2008). Transnational strategies of Polish migrant entrepreneurs in trade and small business in Berlin. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 34(5), 753–770.
- Milne, M. J., & Adler, R. W. (1999). Exploring the reliability of social and environmental disclosures content analysis. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 12(2), 237–256.
- Min, P. G., & Bozorgmehr, M. (2000). Immigrant entrepreneurship and business patterns: a comparison of Koreans and Iranians in Los Angeles. *The International Migration Review*, 34(3), 707–738.
- Mora, M. T., & Davila, A. (2005). Ethnic group size, linguistic isolation, and immigrant entrepreneurship in the USA. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 17, 389–404.
- Nasir, S. (2005). The development, change, and transformation of management information system (MIS): A content analysis of articles published in business and marketing. *Journals, International Journal of Information Management*, 25, 442–457.
- Okazaki, S. (2004). Do multinationals standardise or localise? The cross-cultural dimensionality of product-based web sites. *Internet Research: Electronic Networking Applications and Policy*, 14(1), 81–94.
- Okazaki, S., & Rivas, J. A. (2002). A content analysis of multinationals' web communication strategies: Cross-cultural research framework and pre-testing. *Internet Research: Electronic Networking Applications and Policy*, 12(5), 380–390.
- Ostergaard-Nielsen, E. (2001). Transnational political practices and the receiving state: Turks and Kurds in Germany and the Netherlands. *Global Networks*, 3, 261–281.
- Pécoud, A. (2002). 'Weltoffenheit schafft Jobs': Turkish entrepreneurship and multiculturalism in Berlin. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 26, 494–507.
- Perreault, W. D., & Leigh, L. E. (1989). Reliability of nominal data based on qualitative judgments. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 26, 135–148.
- Peterson, M. F., & Meckler, M. R. (2001). Cuban-American entrepreneurs: Chance, complexity and chaos. *Organization Studies*, 22(1), 31–59.
- Phan, M. B., & Luk, C. M. (2007). I don't say I have a business in Chinatown: Chinese sub-ethnic relations in Toronto's Chinatown West. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 31(2), 294–326.
- Poros, M. V. (2001). The role of migrant networks in linking local labour markets: The case of Asian Indian migration to New York and London. *Global Networks*, 1, 243–260.
- Portes, A. (2003). Conclusion: Theoretical convergencies and empirical evidence in the study of immigrant transnationalism. *International Migration Review*, 37(3), 874–892.
- Portes, A., Guarnizo, L. E., & Landolt, P. (1999). The study of transnationalism: pitfalls and promise of an emergent research field. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 22(2), 217–237.
- Portes, A., Haller, W., & Guarnizo, L. E. (2001). Transnational entrepreneurs: The emergence and determinants of an alternative form of immigrant economic adaptation. Retrieved June 16, 2009, from (<http://www.transcomm.ox.ac.uk/working%20papers/WPTC-01-05%20Portes.pdf>).

- Portes, A., Haller, W. J., & Guarnizo, L. E. (2002). Transnational entrepreneurs: An alternative from of immigrant economic adaptation. *American Sociological Review*, 67(2), 278–298.
- Raijman, R., & Tienda, M. (2003). Ethnic foundations of economic transactions: Mexican and Korean Immigrant entrepreneurs in Chicago. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 26(5), 783–801.
- Ram, M., Smallbone, D., Deakins, D., & Jones, T. (2003). Banking on “break-out”: Finance and development of ethnic minority businesses. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 29(4), 663–681.
- Rath, J., & Kloosterman, R. (2000). Outsider's business: A critical review of research on immigrant entrepreneurship. *International Migration Review*, 34(3), 657–681.
- Razin, E., & Langlois, A. (1996). Metropolitan characteristics and entrepreneurship among immigrants and ethnic groups in Canada. *International Migration Review*, 30(3), 703–727.
- Rusinovic, K. (2008). Transnational embeddedness: Transnational activities and networks among first- and second-generation immigrant entrepreneurs in the Netherlands. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 34(3), 431–451.
- Salaff, J. W. (2005). Subethnicity in the Chinese diaspora. *International Migration*, 43(3), 3–7.
- Schwartz, S. J., Pantin, H., Sullivan, S., Prado, G., & Szapocznik, J. (2006). Nativity and years in the receiving culture as markers of acculturation in ethnic enclaves. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 37(3), 345–353.
- Shinnar, R. S., & Young, C. A. (2008). Hispanic immigrant entrepreneurs in the Las Vegas Metropolitan area: Motivations for entry into outcomes of self-employment. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 46(2), 242–262.
- Steinfeld, C., Adelaar, T., & Liu, F. (2005). Click and mortar strategies viewed from the web: A content analysis of features illustrating integration between retailers' online and offline presence. *Electronic Markets*, 15(3), 199–212.
- Stone, I., & Stubbs, C. (2007). Enterprising expatriates: Lifestyle migration and entrepreneurship in rural Southern Europe. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 19, 433–450.
- Teixeira, C. (1998). Cultural resources and ethnic entrepreneurship: A case study of the Portuguese real estate industry in Toronto. *The Canadian Geographer*, 42(3), 267–281.
- Teixeira, C. (2001). Community resources and opportunities in ethnic economies: A case study of Portuguese and Black entrepreneurs in Toronto. *Urban Studies*, 38(11), 2055–2078.
- Valdez, Z. (2008). The effect of social capital on White, Korean, Mexican and Black business owners' earnings in the US. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 34(6), 955–971.
- Waldinger, R. (1989). Structural opportunity or ethnic advantage? Immigrant business development in New York. *International Migration Review*, 23(1), 48–72.
- Waldinger, R., Howard, E. A., & Ward, R. (1990). *Ethnic entrepreneurs: Immigrant business in industrial societies*. Newbury Park, Calif. Sage Publications, Inc..
- Weber, R. P. (1990). (second edition). *Basic content analysis. Series: Quantitative applications in the social sciences* (Vol. 9, pp. ). California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Williams, A. M., & Balaz, V. (2005). Winning, then losing, the battle with globalization: Vietnamese petty traders in Slovakia. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 29(3), 533–549.
- Wilson, K. L., & Martin, W. A. (1982). Ethnic enclaves: A comparison of the Cuban and black economies in Miami. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 88(1), 135–160.
- Wong, L. L., & Ng S M., (2002). The emergence of small transnational enterprise in Vancouver: The case of Chinese immigrants. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 26(3), 508–530.
- Zhou, M. (2004). Revisiting ethnic entrepreneurship: Convergencies, controversies, and conceptual advancements. *International Migration Review*, 38(3), 1040–1074.
- Zhou, M., & Kim, R. (2003). In D. Halle (Ed.), *A tale of two metropolises: Immigrant Chinese communities in New York and Los Angeles* (pp. 124–149). Los Angeles and New York in the New Millennium, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Zhou, M., & Logan, J. R. (1989). Returns on human capital in ethnic enclaves: New York City's Chinatown. *American Sociological Review*, 54(5), 809–820.