

Well-Being of Immigrant Entrepreneurs in Their Entrepreneurial Life

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Miller and Collier (2010) in their considerations on entrepreneurial success state that focusing just on wealth creation is very narrow. The purpose of the paper is to present the results of the analysis of the quality of immigrant entrepreneurs' life. Authors have examined the differences in well-being, satisfaction and work-life balance among immigrant entrepreneurs and non-immigrant entrepreneurs. In the study, the data from Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) from 2013 was used. The research results show that the levels of well-being, satisfaction and work-life balance of immigrant entrepreneurs are higher than in the case of non-immigrant entrepreneurs. Also these three variables are higher among opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs than among necessity immigrant entrepreneurs.

Keywords: entrepreneurship, quality of life, well-being, work-life balance.

Dobrostan imigrantów przedsiębiorców w ich przedsiębiorczym życiu

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Miller i Collier (2010) w swoich rozważaniach nad sukcesem przedsiębiorców stwierdzają, że skupienie się w badaniach tylko na aspekcie bogactwa jest zbyt wąskie. Celem artykułu jest przedstawienie wyników analizy dotyczącej jakości życia przedsiębiorców-imigrantów. Autorzy zbadali różnice w dobrostanie, zadowoleniu z życia i oraz postrzeganiu równowagi między życiem zawodowym a prywatnym wśród przedsiębiorców-imigrantów i przedsiębiorców nie będących imigrantami. W badaniu wykorzystano dane pochodzące z Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) z 2013 r. Wyniki badań pokazują, że dobrostan, satysfakcja i równowaga między życiem zawodowym a prywatnym przedsiębiorców-imigrantów są wyższe niż przedsiębiorców nie-imigrantów. Te trzy zmienne są również wyższe wśród przedsiębiorców będących imigrantami, którzy zakładając firmę kierowali się wykorzystaniem zauważonej szansy rynkowej a nie przymusem zostania przedsiębiorcą.

Słowa kluczowe: przedsiębiorczość, jakość życia, dobrostan, równowaga praca – życie.

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1. Introduction

Miller and Collier (2010) in their considerations on entrepreneurial success state that focusing just on wealth creation is very narrow. They raise the question of ethical well-being of entrepreneurs and, emphasizing virtue as an important element of successful entrepreneurship, propose a new definition of entrepreneurship that more concerns creating value than creating wealth. We follow this kind of approach and consider the impact of entrepreneurial activity on lives of people – entrepreneurs and their closest environment. The subject of well-being of entrepreneurs has recently been developed in academic studies, however the topic is still little explored. Even though there are some studies focusing on immigrants' well-being, they focus mainly on the consequences of social integration among immigrants in the host country (Amit & Litwin, 2010; Anson, Pilpel, & Rolnik, 1996), emotional health (Hao & Johnson, 2000) and its economic aspects (McMichael & Manderson, 2004; Massey & Redstone, 2006; Sniderman, Hagendoorn, & Prior, 2004). There are some studies concentrating on the economic well-being of citizenry (Hollfield, 2004; Zárata, Garcia, Garza, & Hitlan, 2004), yet little is known about the psychological subjective well-being of immigrant entrepreneurs. The subject is even more intriguing as many authors indicate that migrants differ from the population in terms of having a set of unique features (Light & Bonacich, 1991) so perhaps we cannot simply replicate research results to immigrant entrepreneurs. Following Bartram (2010), we did not want to compare well-being of immigrants to that of inhabitants who live in their home countries because there is always a question as to whether happier people leave their countries to be even happier or whether they become happy because they have changed their place of living, which is what makes them an interesting subject for research. The paper addresses this issue. We think that this topic is notably important these days, when the immigrant issue is a global and relevant matter. Also many researchers indicate that this direction of research is very needed and important (Aliaga-Isla & Rialp, 2013; Dana, 2007; Glinka, 2018).

In the first part of this paper, we present the theoretical basis of well-being, work satisfaction, work-life balance and their meaning for entrepreneurs and immigrants. Further, we demonstrate our analysis based on the data on welfare of entrepreneurs that is derived from studies conducted for the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Last part of our study contains discussion of results and our conclusions. The research was carried out within research project 2014/13/B/HS4/01618 funded by the National Science Centre, Poland.

2. Quality of Life of Entrepreneurs

Surprisingly, little is known about the consequences of entrepreneurship for entrepreneurs. Most of the research in the entrepreneurship domain tends to focus on the antecedents of start-up activity or the process itself.

Carter (2010) states that financial consequences of entrepreneurship are underexplored, as are non-financial consequences. Moreover, she points out that there is also insufficient empirical evidence on non-financial consequences. Particularly interesting is the phenomenon of “compensating differential”, which is the reward that entrepreneurs receive in the form of independence, flexibility and job satisfaction for a lower median of earnings.

Some scholars argue that well-being is critical for cognitive and emotional elements of overall human functioning (Aldwin & Revenson, 1987). Shepherd and Haynie (2009) argue that well-being “is a valuable dependent variable in its own right” because the entrepreneur’s well-being could positively impact firm performance, a view echoed by Baron (2007, 2008). In order to cover the individual perspective on quality of life, researchers proposed two concepts of well-being. The first one, Cummins’s Theory of Subjective Wellbeing Homeostasis, assumes that subjective well-being is actively controlled and maintained by a set of psychological conditions dependent on personality and it works analogically to the homeostatic maintenance of, for instance, blood pressure (Cummins & Nistico, 2002). Personal well-being is a non-specific, abstract, general and subjective state (Cummins, 2003, 2013). Diener (1984) defined it as satisfaction with life as a whole and the presence of positive and absence of negative affect. The main feature of well-being is stability. While unusually good or bad events will change it in the short term, over a period of time this non-specific satisfaction with life will return to its previous level (Hanestad & Albrektsen, 1992; Headey & Wearing, 1989; Suh & Diener, 1996). The second concept, psychological well-being, is defined as arising from the fulfillment of three basic psychological needs – autonomy, competence, and relatedness – which enable psychological growth or ‘self-actualization’ (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The theoretical structure of the construct of psychological well-being is complex and multidimensional. Psychological well-being represents “a generalized feeling of happiness” (Schmutte & Ryff, 1997, p. 551) emphasizing life satisfaction and happiness. The construct also underlines aspects of positive functioning of the individual (Ryff, 1995), which reflects a multi-dimensional model of psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989, 1995). This model covers dimensions such as personal growth (a sense of sustained growth and development as a person), purpose in life (the belief that life is meaningful), self-acceptance (the breadth of wellness that includes positive evaluation of oneself and one’s past life), positive relations with others (the establishment and the sustaining of quality relations with others), environmental mastery (the capacity to effectively manage one’s life and the surrounding world), and autonomy (a sense of self-determination) (Carmeli et al., 2007).

Many of the research investigations into well-being, satisfaction or health of entrepreneurs are based on the job demand-control model (JDCM) (Karasek, 1979). Job demands refer to experienced work intensity such as time pressure and conflicting demands. Job control refers to the decision-

making power that managers/employees/entrepreneurs have in their job over when and how they perform their tasks, while being able to use and develop their skills. Most of the scholars associate job control positively and job demands negatively with well-being and good health. Moreover, it is the combination of job control and job demands that is the strongest determinant of health and well-being (Table 1).

	Low job control	High job control
Low job demands	Passive job Health risks Stress reactions to monotony and meaningless work	Low strain job Low health risk
High job demands	Great strain Psychological strain Ill health Allostatic load	Active job Development of active coping patterns Increased feelings of mastery Good health Greater well-being More active political and leisure time Engagement Allostasis

Tab. 1. Job demand-control model. Source: Prepared by the authors.

A situation of high job demands and low job control leads to the overload with no control of the employee over the task structure and schedule. Employees experience allostatic load caused by long-term stress, which in turn harms their health and reduces their well-being. In contrast, the job of entrepreneurs is a classic example of active job. They are overloaded with various tasks but at the same time they have full control over when and how they cope with them. In this kind of situation, tasks are subjectively more challenging and more interesting. That leads to the state of allostasis – “a healthy dynamic balance of bodily responses, rather than chronic stress responses and allostatic load” (Stephan & Roesler, 2010).

Block and Koellinger (2009) provide a different explanation for greater satisfaction of entrepreneurs, using procedural utility. They claim that entrepreneurs value not only outcomes but also the conditions and processes leading to these outcomes. Procedural utility refers to non-instrumental pleasures and displeasures of the process, in contrast to a more standard view of economic utility, which is concerned only with instrumental outcomes such as monetary gains or market transactions. In the case of entrepreneurship, factors contributing towards this procedural utility beyond monetary income include autonomy, flexibility, and the actual work itself.

In terms of the impact of entrepreneurial activity on well-being, empirical evidence is rather scarce and fragmented. For instance, Sankelo and

Åkerblad (2009) state that most of the researched nurse entrepreneurs reported being content with their well-being at work and that most of the respondents rated their physical, mental, financial and social situation and working capacity as good. However, they treat well-being mostly as a work-related phenomenon and closely associate it with the coping capability and a lack of stress. Moreover, they do not present the exact measure that was used to investigate well-being. Well-being was also part of the research conducted by Stephan and Roesler (2010). They found, among other results presented in the section devoted to health of entrepreneurs, that well-being of business owners is greater than that of employees. It is important to notice that while the authors use objective measures of entrepreneurs' and non-entrepreneur's health, well-being is measured using a subjective, self-reported measure that consists only of one item.

Most of the studies on satisfaction of entrepreneurs focus on job satisfaction and there is evidence that despite lower incomes, the self-employed consistently report more satisfaction with their jobs (Binder & Coad, 2013). However, some authors point out that great job satisfaction might cause entrepreneurs to neglect other domains of life. An important question is therefore: what is the overall life satisfaction of entrepreneurs and can they balance their jobs and family life? We argue that performing an active job (as understood in the job demand-control model) is beneficial for entrepreneurs' health and well-being, yet it might not contribute to good work-life balance. As many researchers point out, an entrepreneur's job bears high demands. It is also known that the number of weekly working hours is higher for entrepreneurs compared with employees (Paoli & Merllie, 2001). We argue that high control over the way of performing tasks lets entrepreneurs spend more time at work without the feeling of fatigue and might even lead to the feeling of flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996; Quinn, 2002). That, in turn, might lead to reduced work-life balance.

Binder and Coad (2013) found that individuals who move from regular employment into self-employment experience an increase in life satisfaction (up to 2 years later), while individuals moving from unemployment to self-employment are not more satisfied than their counterparts moving from unemployment to regular employment. They argue that these groups correspond to 'opportunity' and 'necessity' entrepreneurship. Also Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) in their study found that self-employed people enjoy greater autonomy and schedule flexibility at work (more control), and report higher levels of job involvement and job satisfaction than those employed in organizations. However, they also experience higher levels of work-family conflict and lower family life satisfaction than organizational employees. On the other hand, some other authors claim that ownership of an enterprise and being one's own boss provide individuals with freedom and flexibility to structure the workday according to their preferences, and thereby with added control over the work situation (Loscocco, 1997). Such

latitude can reduce the level of experienced work-family conflict (Greenhaus et al., 1989), enabling self-employed persons to manage the conflicts between work and home more effectively and increasing psychological well-being (Greenhaus et al., 1989; Loscocco, 1997; Loscocco & Leicht, 1993).

3. Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

The issue of immigrant entrepreneurship is multidimensional and complex. Immigrants base their business at the crossroads of two cultures, the country of origin and the host country. Conducting business in a foreign country is a very difficult task and requires many diverse competencies. However, researchers noticed that the rates of business ownership are higher among the foreign born than among natives. This effect is present in developed countries (Borjas, 1986; Lofstrom, 2002, Fairlie et al., 2010). What is more, we can observe that entrepreneurship among natives decreased while immigrant entrepreneurship is increasing (Fairlie & Lofstrom, 2014). Self-employment has plenty of power in the economic integration of immigrants (Zimmerman, 2007). Social capital is one of the most important elements of success (Katila & Wahlbeck, 2011) because it builds an effective support system for immigrants. Usually it is formed on the basis of family members and other immigrants (Portes, 1998). Immigrant entrepreneurs are often members of supportive peer and community subgroups. These networks help them in the process of the creation and development of their companies by providing social resources (Bates, 1994). It also gives them the feeling of financial security. They know that even if they fail, they count on help from their community.

Researchers (Lofstrom, 2002; Borjas, 1986) note that immigrants who run their own business earn more than immigrants who work for someone else and their earnings match the earnings of local entrepreneurs over time. Also the probability of being self-employment and having higher earnings increases with the time spent in host country (Lofstrom, 2002). Additionally, in Lofstrom's study (2013) looking at well-being among low-skilled immigrant workers, the researcher discovered that self-employment is important for low-skilled immigrants in improving their economic status. Also being in a group of immigrants, as very common for immigrant entrepreneurs, gives them mental and financial support (Schmitz & Nadvi, 1999) so they do not have as much stress as non-immigrant entrepreneurs who could feel more lonely on the market. This tends to enhance family and community ties and individual well-being. The feeling that you have support from your community could lead to greater market agility and the lack of fear of failure (Yunxia, 2007).

A traditional approach presents an immigrant company as a small shop run by a married couple. Still, many companies of immigrants are run jointly by family members, and employees are often family members (Light

& Bonacich, 1988). The observations show that immigrants usually start companies such as: ethnic restaurants, grocery stores, local shops (Waldinger, Aldrich, & Ward, 1990). Some of them operate only within the market belonging to an ethnic niche (Auster & Aldrich, 1984) and it is one of many available paths chosen by immigrants (Castles & Miller, 2011). However, this does not explain the complexity and diversity of entrepreneurial activities of immigrants nowadays (Volery, 2007). Meanwhile, we can observe a growing group of immigrant entrepreneurs who participate in more advanced forms of business (Kloosterman & Rath, 2001)

Immigrants in a new country are in a difficult situation and they experience many problems in the labor market. They could have difficulties in finding a job due to: qualifications that are not transferable to the main labor market, not recognized certificates, vocational training or educational degrees received in the home country (Vinogradov, 2008; Wheatly & Proce, 2001). If there are so many barriers to access to a job in the host country, then running a company seems to be the choice that gives better earnings, more confidence and more satisfaction with their lives. It is also assumed that if being an entrepreneur is a way to become integrated in the society so there should be a positive relationship between self-employment and well-being (Dana, 1997). For immigrants, having their own business is an opportunity for economic advancement (Hiebert 2003). What is more, Waldinger et al. (1990) claim that immigrants are better prepared to function in risk situations. Being an entrepreneur could not be so stressful for immigrants as it could be for natives. Considering the job demand-control model and the pattern whereby autonomy is positively related and demands are negatively related to well-being (Karasek, 1979), it could be expected that the establishment of companies by immigrants in the context of autonomy and demands is probably not so stressful for them as moving to a different country. Taking the above into consideration, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1: The level of well-being of immigrant entrepreneurs is higher than in the case of non-immigrant entrepreneurs.

Generally, self-employment is related to a higher degree of job satisfaction comparing to regular employment (Benz & Frey 2004; Blanchflower, 2004; Lange, 2012). Self-employment is recognized as the best solution to overcome inequalities in wages and to provide earnings comparable to or even higher than those of natives (Volery, 2007). It gives immigrants a chance to have more meaningful jobs, stronger autonomy and commitment than other employment choices. Even if they do not run their dream company, they should be satisfied that they have a chance to earn more money and have any job. What is interesting, immigrants experience greater life satisfaction compared to natives (Johansson Sevä et al., 2016). Immigrants who run their own companies often earn a higher income than

employees (Portes & Rumbaut, 2006). Constant and Shachmurove (2006) pointed that the self-employed earn more than their employed counterparts, and immigrants have the highest earnings of all groups. Also immigrants can achieve earnings like natives and treat self-employment as a ladder to upward mobility (Teixeira, 1998). This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Satisfaction of immigrant entrepreneurs is greater than that of non-immigrant entrepreneurs.

Business ventures run by immigrants often compete with companies run by natives by long working hours and by working on holidays. Immigrants are engaged a lot in business. Often the firms of immigrant entrepreneurs used to be set up in areas characterized by low barriers to entry, where earnings depended on long working hours and co-ethnic customers (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; England, 1989). Many immigrants experience problems with bank loans (Smallbone, Ram, & Deakins, 2007) so they have to raise all financial capital by themselves. It all means that they need to work harder than non-immigrant entrepreneurs to open their businesses. This suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Work-life balance of immigrant entrepreneurs is worse than that of non-immigrant entrepreneurs.

The factors motivating immigrants to set up their own business are diverse, but we can observe some trends. Motives of immigrant entrepreneurs can be analyzed from two perspectives: disadvantage theories (Volery, 2007) and opportunity structure and risk-taking theories (Waldinger et al., 1990). Entrepreneurship among immigrants is often a response to their inability to find a well-paying job or any job at all in the host country (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Volery, 2007). Starting a business seems to be the only solution to earn a living and can allow one to earn more and work in better conditions than when working for someone else or, what is worse, being unemployed (Portes & Rumbaut, 2006). According to disadvantage theories, immigrant entrepreneurs are forced to set up their own business because they are excluded from mainstream occupations in the primary labor market (Clark & Drinkwater, 2000; Greene & Chaganti, 2004). This type of entrepreneurship will be called necessity immigrant entrepreneurship. Necessity immigrant entrepreneurs usually are not highly-educated people or have limited professional experience and home-country education which is difficult to translate into conditions in the host country (Min & Bozorgmehr, 2003). Usually such entrepreneurs are forced to function on an ethnic market in the host country and hire co-ethnic employees. In an ethnic company, there is a specific relation between entrepreneurs and their employees, where solidarity is very important. But the employee cannot expect work-life

balance, high salary and compliance with regulations (Bonacih & Modell, 1980; Min & Bozorgmehr, 2003). It is shown that necessity self-employment is associated with lower levels of job satisfaction (Block & Koellinger, 2009) and overall life satisfaction (Binder & Coad, 2013). All these conditions lead us to the conclusion that being such an entrepreneur is very difficult and not necessarily satisfying. It is rather a continuous struggle for survival.

Waldinger et al. (1990), using opportunity structure theories, show that some immigrants benefit from the demand for services in their own ethnic community. For those, it is a big chance to profit because, for example, there are no language barriers, they know the culture of their community and appropriate links. For some immigrants, being an entrepreneur could be the opportunity to manage their lives. Due to the knowledge about the ethnic market, they can adjust to the needs of ethnic clients and earn money in this way (Basu, 1998; Deakins et al., 2007; Hammarstedt, 2001; Ram, 1994). Opportunity-driven entrepreneurship is linked to intrinsic motivation such as a need for autonomy and self-fulfillment. The financial side is not the most important motive (Benz & Frey, 2008). This intrinsic motivation of entrepreneurs is connected with greater job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Benz & Frey 2008).

In literature, we can distinguish several types of groups of such immigrants: immigrants who came for a job and later decided to become entrepreneurs, immigrants who came to open a business, immigrants who came for academic or professional training and later decided to become entrepreneurs (Li, 1993) and the second generation (Chrisostome, 2010) who are well-educated in the host country (Min & Bozorgmehr, 2003). For opportunity immigrants, it is characteristic that they know English and rather rely on the mainstream market and natives (Kwong, 1987; Min & Bozorgmehr, 2003), and are better integrated in the host country (Bates, 1997). All these characteristics allow us to assume that necessity immigrants are rather forced to establish a company so there is a reason to assume that they feel less comfortable with this solution (Dana, 1997). In contrast to them, immigrants who rather choose entrepreneurial path when they feel strong and confident of their entrepreneurial decision should have higher levels of well-being and satisfaction. Probably the level of well-being and satisfaction should be different among these two immigrant entrepreneur groups. Necessity immigrant entrepreneurs are not more satisfied with life than their counterparts who decide to become employees. It could be observed that among people who, by their free choice, move from regular employment to being entrepreneurs (like opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs), there is a significant increase in life satisfaction (Binder & Coad, 2013). There is research confirming that opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs are happier and less distressed than necessity immigrant entrepreneurs (Naude, Amoros, & Cristi, 2014). Taking the above into consideration we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4: The level of well-being of opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs is higher than that of necessity immigrant entrepreneurs.

Hypothesis 5: Satisfaction of opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs is greater than that of necessity immigrant entrepreneurs.

Also, most necessity immigrant entrepreneurs suffer from the lack of capital (Light, 1972; Yoon, 1997), have to work many hours during the week, usually during holidays and weekends to earn very limited profit (Bolich, 2011; England, 1989). Opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs have better background to start their business activities so the decision is more thoughtful and well-established. Usually they have access to financial support from institutions so they do not have work so long and hard as necessity immigrants entrepreneurs (Bates, 1997). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 6: Work-life balance of opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs is better than that of necessity immigrant entrepreneurs.

Immigration is a big experience that significantly changes people's lives. Most studies are focused on the impact of psychological consequences of adaptation on well-being (Grosfoguel, 1997; Icduygu, 1996; Phinney et al., 2001) and generally the emotional side of migration (Stupar et al., 2014). For example, research in this area shows that emotional suppression has an impact on well-being and we cannot explain it by ethnicity (Stupar et al., 2014). Psychological well-being among immigrants is related to the maintenance of a strong ethnic identity in the acculturation process (Liebkind, 1996; Nesdale, Rooney, & Smith, 1997). It could be a reason why Link and Phelan (2001) noticed that immigrants have lower levels of general well-being than non-immigrants (Link & Phelan, 2001). Difficulties in communication in the language of the host country could be one of the limitations to the acculturation process. Often immigrants are not proficient in the new language, which significantly hinders contacts with indigenous people (Engstrom, Piedra, & Min, 2009; Min et al., 2005; Moon & Pearl, 1991) and makes it difficult to build a network of contacts with natives. Building social support is vital for immigrants because it prevents the negative feelings associated with stigmatization, discrimination, loneliness, etc. (Hershberger & D'Augelli, 1995). Immigrants form groups or associations and build an effective contact network that helps them feel more supported and safe in a foreign country (Kessler, Price, & Wortman, 1985; Woo et al., 2014). If an entrepreneur runs a company for many years, it means that this person has achieved success because the company still exists. It could also mean that economic conditions should be better as the start of a company is the worst time for the entrepreneur. After many years, an entrepreneur should feel greater happiness and satisfaction (Amoros

& Bosma, 2013; Carree & Verheul, 2012; Zbierowski, 2014). Immigrant entrepreneurs should feel better in the host country because they build a network of contacts and get to know the host country better. The capital accumulated over time should permit them to feel more confident, safer and more comfortable and even allow for some holidays (vacation is treated by entrepreneurs as a resource for well-being (Lecht & Torres, 2017) so general well-being should increase over the time).

It was observed that the level of well-being of early-stage entrepreneurs is lower than among entrepreneurs managing established companies (Amoros & Bosma, 2013). Self-employment could give a longed-for sense of control in life and this feeling should increase over time.

Therefore, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 7: Well-being of immigrant entrepreneurs increases over time.

Life satisfaction among immigrants is associated with the type and quality of work performed in the host country (Amit & Riss, 2014). It is worth mentioning that the research conducted by Chiswick, Lee and Miller (2005) suggests that work satisfaction lets us predict the level of subjective experience and willingness to stay in the host country and work satisfaction, where immigrants achieve work satisfaction when they reach the same standard of living as natives. Moreover, the time spent on settling in the host country and understanding the local market is conducive to the willingness to establish a business (Henderson, 2003; Waldinger, 1993). Health, life and job satisfaction grow among entrepreneurs over time (Binder & Coad, 2016). Continuing this line of thinking, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 8: Satisfaction of immigrant entrepreneurs increases over time.

The level of human capital possessed by immigrants and the ability to disseminate information among other immigrants belonging to the same ethnic group could be a key element that contributes to business success (Fairlie & Meyer, 1996). The facilities built over the years should allow immigrants to spend more time with the family and less on work compared to the beginning when they have to put in a lot of effort to survive.

Combining the above evidence, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 9: Work-life balance of immigrant entrepreneurs increases over time.

In the light of the above, our paper examines the well-being of entrepreneurs vis-à-vis the well-being among non-immigrant entrepreneurs. We analyze the level of well-being over time and depending on the type of motivation among immigrant entrepreneurs.

4. Research Design, Methods, Variables and Measures

The data used to test the formulated hypotheses was taken from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM). In 2013, GEM's special topic was quality of life of entrepreneurs, including well-being, satisfaction and work-life balance. The overall 2013 GEM sample consisted of 244,471 respondents. Due to missing data, some of the samples for particular analyses were limited in number. The respondents were qualified to one of the groups: first-generation immigrants (those who were born in a country other than the country of their residence), second-generation immigrants (those whose both parents were born in a country other than the country of their residence but respondents were born in the country of residence), half-immigrants (those who were born in the country of residence but one of their parents was born in a country other than the country of their residence) and non-immigrants. The overall number of total early-stage entrepreneurs (TEA) identified was 930, of which 642 were first-generation immigrants and 288 were second-generation immigrants. 10,804 respondents were identified as non-immigrants (respondent was not an immigrant), of which 7,452 also declared that none of their parents was an immigrant. 585 respondents were nascent immigrant entrepreneurs (up to 3 months of activity) (396 first-generation and 189 second-generation) and 362 respondents were baby immigrant entrepreneurs (up to 42 months of activity) (253 first-generation and 109 second-generation). 664 early-stage immigrant entrepreneurs started business to take advantage of the opportunity and 235 started business out of necessity.

Well-being was measured using a five-item five-point Likert scale (Pavot & Diener, 2008), a sample item is "In most ways my life is close to my ideal", satisfaction was measured on a two-item five-point Likert scale, a sample item: "I am satisfied with my current work", and work-life balance was measured on a three-item five-point Likert scale, a sample item: "I am satisfied with the way my time is divided between work and private life". Exemplary questions are: In most ways my life is close to my ideal; The conditions of my life are excellent (well-being), I am satisfied with my current work (satisfaction), I am satisfied with the way my time is divided between work and private life; I am satisfied with my ability to balance the needs of my work with those of my personal or family life (work-life balance). Due to the fact that in some countries questions on satisfaction and work-life balance were not asked, the sample sizes for particular analyses may vary. Depending on the type of division of respondents, either t-test for independent samples or one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted. Additionally, a correlation analysis was used.

5. Results

Presented below (Table 2, Table 3) are the results of one-way ANOVA analyses of the differences in well-being, work-life balance and satisfaction between immigrant and non-immigrant entrepreneurs.

		N	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. err. Lower bound	95% confidence interval for mean	
						Upper bound	
WB	first-generation immigrants	606	3.5641	.90588	.03680	3.4918	3.6364
	second-generation immigrants	255	3.2794	1.00278	.06280	3.1557	3.4031
	half-immigrants	2827	3.5176	.83905	.01578	3.4867	3.5486
	non-immigrants	7034	3.3611	.99141	.01182	3.3380	3.3843
	Total	10722	3.4119	.95229	.00920	3.3939	3.4300
SAT	first-generation immigrants	489	3.5808	1.07939	.04881	3.4849	3.6767
	second-generation immigrants	208	3.2957	1.14328	.07927	3.1394	3.4520
	half-immigrants	2470	3.6002	.95567	.01923	3.5625	3.6379
	non-immigrants	5882	3.5214	1.03417	.01348	3.4950	3.5479
	Total	9049	3.5409	1.01970	.01072	3.5199	3.5620
WLB	first-generation immigrants	383	3.7171	1.04030	.05316	3.6126	3.8217
	second-generation immigrants	173	3.5732	1.13229	.08609	3.4033	3.7431
	half-immigrants	2585	3.5758	1.04116	.02048	3.5357	3.6160
	non-immigrants	4956	3.7951	.92541	.01315	3.7694	3.8209
	Total	8097	3.7167	.97927	.01088	3.6954	3.7380

Tab. 2. Results of one-way ANOVA of WB, WLB and SAT of first/second generations of immigrants, half-immigrants and non-immigrants (all TEA). Source: Calculated by the authors.

There are some statistically significant differences between mean well-being, work-life balance and satisfaction of immigrant and non-immigrant entrepreneurs. In terms of well-being, the results show that the greatest WB is experienced by first-generation immigrants and half-immigrants (no statistically significant differences between those two groups). The level of overall well-being of second-generation immigrants and non-immigrants is much lower (also no statistically significant difference between those two groups). That partly supports hypothesis H1.

A similar pattern to well-being is observed in the case of overall satisfaction. Also the highest level is for first-generation immigrants and half-immigrants. However, in case of satisfaction, the average result for non-

immigrants is significantly higher than for second-generation immigrants. Those results partly support hypothesis H2.

The pattern of work-life balance is different from those of well-being and satisfaction. The best balance between work and life is achieved by first-generation immigrants and non-immigrants (no statistical differences between those groups). A much lower level of work-life balance is experienced by second-generation immigrants and half-immigrants. That supports hypothesis H3.

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
WB	Between groups	68.238	3	22.746	25.253	.000
	Within groups	9654.096	10718	.901		
	Total	9722.335	10721			
SAT	Between groups	24.204	3	8.068	7.777	.000
	Within groups	9383.876	9045	1.037		
	Total	9408.080	9048			
WLB	Between groups	85.351	3	28.450	29.987	.000
	Within groups	7678.391	8093	.949		
	Total	7763.742	8096			

Tab. 3. Results of one-way ANOVA of WB, WLB and SAT of first/second generations of immigrants, half-immigrants and non-immigrants (all TEA). Source: Calculated by the authors.

Table 4 presents the results of correlation analysis of well-being, satisfaction and work-life balance of nascent immigrant entrepreneurs.

		Q1C. How many months have you been involved in starting this business?
Overall well-being	Pearson's correlation	-.093*
	Sig.	.022
	N	603
Overall satisfaction	Pearson's correlation	-.039
	Sig.	.405
	N	463
Work-life balance	Pearson's correlation	-.001
	Sig.	.978
	N	396

Tab. 4. Results of correlation analysis of time of running business and WB, WLB and SAT. Source: Calculated by the authors.

The results of the correlation analysis suggest that there is no relation between time of running a business by immigrant entrepreneurs and quality of life. However, data on time of running business is only available for nascent entrepreneurs; therefore, the scope of analysis is limited and quality of life of immigrant entrepreneurs might increase at the “baby” stage of activity. Therefore, a t-test analysis for independent samples was conducted to analyze the differences in quality of life between nascent and baby immigrant entrepreneurs (Table 5, Table 6).

		N	Mean	Std. dev.	SE of mean
WB	nascent	518	3.4500	.94766	.04164
	baby	343	3.5248	.93811	.05065
SAT	nascent	385	3.3701	1.12732	.05745
	baby	312	3.6506	1.05997	.06001
WLB	nascent	313	3.6315	1.05156	.05944
	baby	243	3.7250	1.09507	.07025

Tab. 5. Results of t-test analyses for independent samples. Source: Calculated by the authors based on the 2013 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data.

	Levene's test		t-test of means' equality						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean's diff.	SE of diff.	95% conf. range	
								Lower	Higher
WB	.327	.568	-1.139	859	.255	-.07481	.06571	-.20378	.05415
SAT	2.311	.129	-3.355	695	.001	-.28051	.08362	-.44468	-.11634
WLB	.246	.620	-1.021	554	.308	-.09344	.09155	-.27327	.08639

Tab. 6. Results of t-test analyses for independent samples. Source: Calculated by the authors based on the 2013 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data.

The results of t-test analyses for independent samples show that statistically significant differences between quality of life of immigrant entrepreneurs at nascent and baby stages of activity can be only observed in the case of satisfaction. Therefore, hypothesis H8 is supported and hypotheses H7 and H9 have to be rejected.

For testing hypotheses 4–6 on differences in quality of life between opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs, t-test analyses for independent samples were conducted (Table 7, Table 8).

		N	Mean	Std. dev.	SE of mean
WB	opportunity	606	3.5752	.90422	.03673
	necessity	224	3.1688	.99717	.06663
SAT	opportunity	503	3.5746	1.07392	.04788
	necessity	166	3.1687	1.16717	.09059
WLB	opportunity	401	3.7082	1.06917	.05339
	necessity	130	3.4962	1.10680	.09707

Tab. 7. Results of t-test analyses for independent samples. Source: Calculated by the authors.

	Levene's test		t-test of means' equality						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean's diff.	SE of diff.	95% conf. range	
								Lower	Higher
WB	5.014	.025	5.588	828	.000	.40642	.07273	.26365	.54918
SAT	2.167	.141	4.131	667	.000	.40588	.09826	.21295	.59881
WLB	.004	.949	1.948	529	.052	.21208	.10885	-.00175	.42590

Tab. 8. Results of t-test analyses for independent samples. Source: Calculated by the authors.

In the cases of well-being and satisfaction of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs, the differences are statistically significant and rather high (.4 on 1–5 scale). In the case of work-life balance, the difference is smaller (.31) and slightly lacking statistical significance (.052). Therefore, hypotheses H4 and H5 are supported.

Additionally, to further investigate the differences in quality of life of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs, the sample was split into six categories: first-generation immigrant entrepreneurs/opportunity, first-generation immigrant entrepreneurs/necessity, second-generation immigrant entrepreneurs/opportunity, second-generation immigrant entrepreneurs/necessity, half-immigrant entrepreneurs/opportunity, half-immigrant entrepreneurs/necessity. To investigate the differences in quality of life of those groups, one-way ANOVA analyses were conducted.

		N	Mean	Std. dev.	Std. err.	95% confidence interval for mean	
						Lower bound	Upper bound
WB	first/opportunity	415	3.6614	.85296	.04187	3.5791	3.7438
	first/necessity	168	3.2702	.98617	.07608	3.1200	3.4204
	second/opportunity	191	3.3877	.98316	.07114	3.2474	3.5280
	second/necessity	56	2.8643	.97616	.13044	2.6029	3.1257
	half/opportunity	2090	3.5942	.79959	.01749	3.5599	3.6285
	half/necessity	644	3.2457	.90387	.03562	3.1757	3.3156
	Total	3564	3.5013	.86494	.01449	3.4729	3.5297
SAT	first/opportunity	346	3.6720	1.04468	.05616	3.5615	3.7824
	first/necessity	123	3.2276	1.12580	.10151	3.0267	3.4286
	second/opportunity	157	3.3599	1.10916	.08852	3.1850	3.5347
	second/necessity	43	3.0000	1.27709	.19475	2.6070	3.3930
	half/opportunity	1854	3.6535	.92124	.02140	3.6115	3.6954
	half/necessity	539	3.3915	1.04535	.04503	3.3030	3.4799
	Total	3062	3.5681	.99345	.01795	3.5329	3.6033
WLB	first/opportunity	273	3.7857	1.02091	.06179	3.6641	3.9074
	first/necessity	92	3.4511	1.09208	.11386	3.2249	3.6773
	second/opportunity	128	3.5430	1.15228	.10185	3.3414	3.7445
	second/necessity	38	3.6053	1.14911	.18641	3.2276	3.9830
	half/opportunity	1935	3.6137	1.02131	.02322	3.5682	3.6592
	half/necessity	573	3.4264	1.08955	.04552	3.3370	3.5158
	Total	3039	3.5858	1.04770	.01901	3.5486	3.6231

Tab. 9. Results of one-way ANOVA of WB, WLB and SAT of first/second generations of immigrants, half-immigrants opportunity/necessity, immigrant entrepreneurs. Source: Calculated by the authors.

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
WB	Between groups	104.945	5	20.989	29.165	.000
	Within groups	2560.590	3558	.720		
	Total	2665.535	3563			
SAT	Between groups	68.998	5	13.800	14.285	.000
	Within groups	2952.055	3056	.966		
	Total	3021.053	3061			
WLB	Between groups	28.892	5	5.778	5.301	.000
	Within groups	3305.860	3033	1.090		
	Total	3334.752	3038			

Tab. 10. Results of one-way ANOVA of WB, WLB and SAT of first/second generations of immigrants, half-immigrants opportunity/necessity, immigrant entrepreneurs. Source: Calculated by the authors.

There are some interesting differences between groups of immigrant entrepreneurs based on their division into first/second generation and half-immigrants and opportunity/necessity entrepreneurs. Most of the differences reflect those presented above. The level of well-being of opportunity entrepreneurs is higher than that of necessity entrepreneurs in all three groups (first generation, second generation, half-immigrants). The difference is the highest for second-generation immigrants (.52) and the lowest for half-immigrants (.35). The difference between the highest result (first generation/opportunity) and the lowest result (second generation/necessity) is very high (.8 on 1–5 scale).

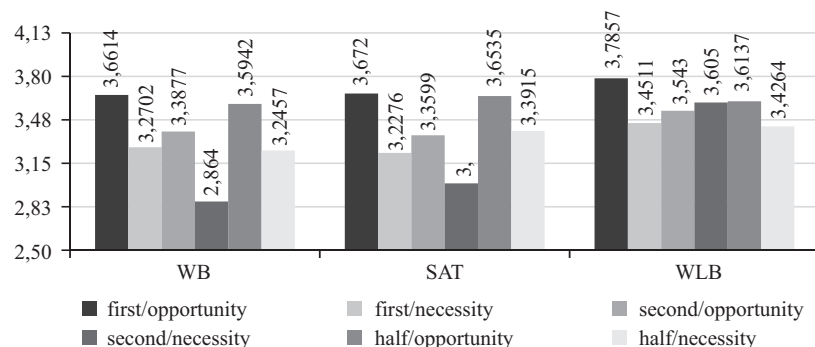


Fig. 1. Differences in quality of life among first/second generation and half-immigrants and opportunity/necessity immigrants. Source: Calculated by the authors based on the 2013 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor data.

Slightly lower differences can be observed in the case of satisfaction, but they follow the same pattern as well-being. The situation is different for work-life balance. The greatest WLB is experienced by first-generation/opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs and the weakest by first-generation necessity entrepreneurs and half-immigrant/necessity entrepreneurs. What is important is that the motive of entrepreneurial activity has a statistically significant impact on work-life balance in two groups of immigrant entrepreneurs: first-generation entrepreneurs and half-immigrants. That impact was not observed when immigrant entrepreneurs were analyzed as one group. Those results support hypothesis H6.

6. Discussion and Conclusions

As regards empirical results, we noticed that there is a need to distinguish between groups of entrepreneurs, especially that there are differences in the quality of life. Situations, environment and thus behaviors of entrepreneurs are so different and they are reflected in their i.a. well-being and satisfaction. In this study, we partly support hypothesis 1 about the difference in well-being between immigrant entrepreneurs and non-immigrant entrepreneurs. What is interesting is a significant difference between first-generation immigrants and half-immigrants, and second-generation immigrants and non-immigrants.

Following the literature, it could mean that immigrants from the first generation and half-immigrants could be much happier because they changed their lives (Alegría, Mulvaney-Day, & Woo, 2007; Corral & Landrine, 2008). Immigrants have a specific set of features (Light & Bonacich, 1991) and might be even happier than their countrymen who stayed in their home country (Bartram, 2010). It is different in the case of the second generation, where we noticed a lower level of well-being. A similar effect was observed for satisfaction. From an economic standpoint, this index should be higher because those entrepreneurs have better preparation for life in the host country (Chavan & Agrawal, 2000) and often great financial and emotional support from their parents and community (Light, 1972; Sander & Nee, 1996). However, we have to take into consideration discrimination, which is still present for the second generation (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). Therefore, our analyses confirmed that being an entrepreneur maintains the effect of a higher level of well-being and satisfaction among immigrants.

Secondly, the highest level of work-life balance among first-generation immigrants and non-immigrants entrepreneurs and the lowest among second-generation immigrants and half-immigrants is a very interesting result for us. It seems to be contrary to the results of other research about long-hours work, etc. Searching for answers why we get such an outcome, we came to the conclusion that it can be related to the specific work environment of many immigrants, especially those who operate within the ethnic community.

Many of these companies are family businesses (Light & Bonacich, 1988; Yoon, 1991). Perhaps immigrants may view the time spent with family, even if it is working time, as a time shared with the home. These results are worth investigating deeply because it would seem that they should be opposite. The second generation of immigrants has a great background and protection due to hard work of the first generation since they can afford a good work-life balance.

Thirdly, we observed no difference in well-being and work-life balance between nascent and baby immigrant entrepreneurs. However, our analysis revealed that there is a difference in satisfaction between immigrant entrepreneurs at nascent and baby stages. This rise of satisfaction over the time could be explained by acquiring knowledge about the market and expanding the business network. Broader networks support business over time and might thus ensure higher efficiency which could lead to greater satisfaction in business operation. As we mentioned, for immigrant the key factor in gaining information is the social network. It is very important especially in the first months of the company's life when access to capital, infrastructure, resources, etc., is needed (Waldinger et al., 1990; Hammarstedt, 2001; Altinay & Altinay, 2006; Deakins et al., 2007). However, they still have to work a lot so it is difficult to say that their standard of living changes, and certainly that does not mean that they achieve good work-life balance. Being in early stage of the entrepreneurial process, they need to put much more effort in developing their business.

We have managed to confirm that opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs are generally happier than necessity entrepreneurs. We think that it could be explained by the job demand-control model (Karasek, 1979). Opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs chose their type of work and they could be more satisfied because they feel that they are in control their lives (Stephan & Roesler, 2010). On the other hand, we noticed only a slight increase in work-life balance when opportunity and necessity immigrant entrepreneurs are compared, which does not surprise us because to be competitive, all immigrant entrepreneurs have to work a lot, even more than non-immigrant entrepreneurs (Bolich, 2011; England, 1989).

The result related to the motive for entrepreneurial activity (opportunity/necessity) and its influence on work-life balance of entrepreneurs, which have impact only in the first generation and not in the second generation, could be explained by the fact that immigrants from the first generation usually work in family businesses. The time spent with the family in the company could be considered as a good way to maintain balance between work and family. A different situation is among the second generation, where companies are often run with partners from outside the family.

Our analysis confirms that immigrant entrepreneurs are a special case of entrepreneurship and require a special area of the research. Interestingly, even the level of quality of life is different. The results of our study could be

a good fundament for further studies. A good possible direction would be to conduct qualitative research which could help to extend knowledge about the quality of life of immigrant entrepreneurs and at the same time to explain the obtained results. It would be interesting to include in future research entrepreneurs' initial reasons for immigration and how this dimension interacts with subsequent findings regarding WLB, satisfaction, etc.

It must be mentioned that we are aware of the limitations of this study. In some cases, samples are rather small. For example, the data on work-life balance of necessity immigrant entrepreneurs is available only for 130 respondents. The consequence of this is that some relations are not statistically significant, even though they are substantial, e.g. the difference in work-life balance between opportunity and necessity immigrant entrepreneurs.

Another limitation comes from not taking into consideration country differences. Neither t-test for independent samples nor one-way ANOVA allows to control for the country of residence of respondents. Moreover, information on the country of origin was not available (in GEM, it was only available in 2012, when immigrant entrepreneurship was a special topic; however, data on quality of life was not available then). Ideally, those analyses would be performed controlling for both the country of origin and the country of residence; however, conducting them on the GEM database would be impossible due to small sample sizes.

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