MORE (OR LESS) THAN THE SUMS OF THEIR PARTS? STATUS, TEAMS, AND ENTREPRENEURIAL OUTCOMES

Amy Elizabeth Davis

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Approved by:

Howard E. Aldrich

Ted Mouw

Lisa Pearce

Michael Shanahan

Lynn, Smith-Lovin

ABSTRACT

More (or less) than the Sums of their Parts? Status, Teams, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

(Under the direction of Howard E. Aldrich)

Individuals from diverse status backgrounds pursue entrepreneurship, and approximately half of those who seek to start businesses--nascent entrepreneurs--form startup teams of two or more persons. Using data from the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED), I examined how individual status characteristics influence group processes and entrepreneurial outcomes. I also studied how team status characteristics and group processes influence entrepreneurial outcomes. I found that status characteristics influenced the assistance team members provide to their startups. My results showed gender to be a significant status characteristic in that gender composition influenced assistance provisions, and secondly that men and women differed in perceptions of how status affected assistance provisions in their teams. I also found that the levels and types of assistance that team members provided to their startup teams reduced their odds of abandoning startup activities and increased their odds of establishing operational businesses or remaining active in entrepreneurship. However, I found little evidence that individual status, team diversity, or team relationships directly influenced startup outcomes for nascent entrepreneurs. I did find that average status of startup teams and close relationships among team members sometimes improved respondents' entrepreneurial outcomes *when* team members provided assistance at high levels. Additionally, I found that the influence of individual status characteristics on

entrepreneurial outcomes were contingent on team membership and the levels of assistance team members provided. Therefore, although my results do not pinpoint the sorts of startup teams potential nascent entrepreneurs should form for optimal results given their status characteristics, they do demonstrate that status expectations influence group processes and that, much more so than resources originating from entrepreneurs' status characteristics, group processes influence the conditions of startups over time.

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ABBREVIATIONS

GEE	General Estimation Equations
IPUMS	Integrated Public Use Microdata Series
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
PSED/PSED-I	Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics
SEI	Socioeconomic Index
SOC	Standard Occupational Classification

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship provides the potential for upward mobility, and many well-known examples illustrate how individuals can become wealthy through business ownership. Social researchers seeking a deeper understanding of the role of entrepreneurship and its consequences for individuals' economic well-being as well as the levels of inequality within or among societies consider how social theories explain the conditions under which people either achieve fortune or financial ruin within entrepreneurship. Two theoretical perspectives which inform my examination of variations in entrepreneurial outcomes are status and group processes.

One factor that will influence the outcomes of individual entrepreneurs is that of status. Status influences the perceptions of individuals regarding expected behaviors from themselves and from others. That is, people will determine which behaviors are appropriate and probable based on observable characteristics, whether they are physical in nature (such as age, gender, skin color) or social (education, human capital, experience). With regard to entrepreneurship, status characteristics influence whether individuals consider themselves and others as likely entrepreneurs or successful entrepreneurs. Individuals consider how characteristics such as education, parental status, gender, and experience influence whether a person has sufficient resources such as time, money, and expertise to devote to starting a business.

Status beliefs have the potential of influencing most aspects of the nascent entrepreneurship process. Status evaluations or status beliefs affect a variety of decisions on the part of potential business owners, such as whether a person will pursue entrepreneurship at all, the types of businesses they are likely to attempt, their methods of acquiring necessary materials, the startup goals, and the confidence they have in their entrepreneurial acumen. Status beliefs also influence the decisions of those who come in contact with business owners, including whether individuals want to form entrepreneurial startup teams with particular others, whether individuals or representatives of organizations (such as banks) wish to invest in others' startup pursuits, offer them leases, or whether they want to engage in exchanges with particular others (as suppliers or vendors, for example). Rather than studying every way in which status influences nascent entrepreneurship, I select two areas to study in this dissertation; startup team interactions and the condition of individuals' startups one year after they were identified as nascent entrepreneurs.

Recently, researchers have focused increased attention on the small groups of individuals who form approximately half of all startups (Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter 2003). Previously, many research studies focused on one owner per business or startup and thus left many owners "hidden" from observation. Such studies not only failed to consider how the characteristics of hidden owners influence startups and businesses, but also how the joint characteristics of the team members overall as well as the relations and interactions among them influence entrepreneurial outcomes. Researchers studying entrepreneurial teams draw from literature on small group processes as well as top management teams to better understand how different types of startup teams may influence entrepreneurial processes and outcomes.

For those entrepreneurs on startup teams, group processes and status can influence the nascent entrepreneurship process in a variety of ways. For example, the status characteristics of individual team members will influence evaluations that members form of one another and in turn may influence who receives deference, who is credited or blamed for positive and negative developments in the startup, and how resources or labor are allocated. In other words, status characteristics will influence the internal processes of teams.

Team processes are not simply governed by status beliefs, however. In addition to factors ranging from environmental conditions such as competition or economic climate to individuals' temperaments, team processes are also influenced by the nature of relationships among team members that precede startup activities. Startup teams are unique compared to top management teams or teams formed in many classrooms or laboratory settings because they almost always self-formed, with the members selecting one another as partners in joint ventures. Whether these individuals are strangers, colleagues, friends, family members, or spouses will influence how they interact and the extent to which status beliefs influence team processes.

Besides considering how status beliefs and relationships influence how team members interact with one another to form new businesses, I also consider how the collection of team members' status characteristics influence the condition of their startup endeavors twelve months after their entry into the study. In startups with multiple owners, studying how the status characteristics of one individual shape entrepreneurial outcomes provides an incomplete understanding of status characteristics' true influence in entrepreneurship. Therefore, I consider how team members' average status, maximum status, and status diversity influence the fates of startup endeavors.

Finally, I consider how the group processes mentioned previously influence the fates of entrepreneurial endeavors. By understanding the extent to which team interactions or alternatively combined status characteristics influence entrepreneurial outcomes, I am able to answer my title question of the dissertation: More (or less) than the sums of their parts? That is, I demonstrate that teams are not simply collections of the status characteristics and other resource materials of team members. Instead, their interactions lead to entrepreneurial outcomes that either exceed or lag behind those expected based on their collective available resources.

My research extends knowledge in the fields of entrepreneurship, status, and group processes by addressing four questions.

1. When do particular status characteristics (such as gender, business experience, and race) influence the fates of entrepreneurial pursuits and under what conditions are such characteristics irrelevant? By providing some insight into this question, my analysis provides theoretical and practical implications concerning the sorts of teams (including single-person "teams") are likely to produce the most or least favorable outcomes for entrepreneurs, depending on their status characteristics. Such findings would provide a more nuanced understanding than research findings suggesting that individuals with one status characteristic or another are almost always advantaged or disadvantaged in entrepreneurial outcomes. (See Figure 1).

2. How do individual team members' status characteristics influence group processes in self-selected teams seeking to start businesses? What status characteristics, if any, influence what team members contribute, are allowed to contribute, and/or are recognized for contributing? In other words, my research will address the extent to which entrepreneurial startup teams mirror or diverge from well-established patterns in the small groups and top management team literatures. (See Figure 2).
3. How does group composition (average and maximum status, status diversity, and relational characteristics) influence a) group processes and b) the fates of startups? Under this question are smaller questions, such as if status characteristics influence entrepreneurial outcomes, do all team members need to have high status characteristics or is the mere presence of selected high status characteristics in at least one member sufficient for improved entrepreneurial outcomes. Stated differently, are individuals of high status likely to suffer negative entrepreneurial consequences if they form startup teams with those of relatively lower status? (See Figure 3).
4. How do team interactions and processes influence the condition of startups? Are the effects of team processes more or less important than those of group composition? (See Figure 3).

The dissertation is organized into six chapters. In the next chapter, I provide the theoretical justification for my research, reviewing the literatures of status and group processes and applying them to nascent entrepreneurship. I also present the hypotheses I test in my analyses. The third chapter describes the data I use to test my hypotheses, The Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED or PSED-I). In addition to describing the collection methods for this data, I discuss in detail the operationalization of the concepts I test, the regression methods I use, challenges in the data and the remedies used to address them. I also present some descriptive statistics in this chapter. In the fourth chapter, I present all the analyses for hypotheses concerning group processes among team members, as measured by the contributions provided by team members. In chapter five, I present the analyses for hypotheses concerning entrepreneurial outcomes, or the conditions of startups twelve months after their initial interview for the PSED. In the final chapter, I review and summarize my findings, discuss the implications of my findings, and discuss the limitations and opportunities to extend this line of research.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL JUSTIFICATION

In this chapter, I develop the theoretical justification for my research on how individual status, team characteristics, and team interactions influence entrepreneurial outcomes. I first discuss the importance of status in social stratification, particularly for stratification in entrepreneurship, discussing the varying conceptual uses of status by different scholars. Included in my discussion of status is a review of status expectations theory, which makes predictions about status-based interactions within groups. I then present my first set of hypotheses, which deal with how individual status characteristics influence 1) entrepreneurial outcomes and 2) assistance contributions within startup teams. Moving from individual status to startup team characteristics, I discuss the potential assets and liabilities associated with collaborative entrepreneurship, which I argue are contingent on the extent to which team members are able to mobilize and manage their shared resources. I argue that the level of assistance contributions made by team members depends on the status and relational composition of teams, with high-status, homogeneous, and close-tie teams being more likely to provide contributions and, consequently, more likely to establish operational businesses. I also argue that diverse and weak tie teams can achieve favorable entrepreneurial outcomes if team members provide adequate contributions. Finally, I present hypotheses regarding the ways in which the effects of individuals' status characteristics can be mitigated by membership in startup teams.

Status

I want to determine how individual status influences the distribution of entrepreneurial outcomes and assistance contributions within startup teams, but first I establish conceptual clarity with regard to status. Status is an important theoretical concept, but theorists have used it differently. The word status has multiple meanings in sociology and in everyday usage. In both contexts, status either refers to prestige, situation, or a combination of each. In addition to differing on definitions of status, scholars differ on what constitutes a status group or characteristic. I discuss the different conceptions of status, how they are similar and different, and then how I use status in my dissertation.

Status as Prestige: Social Stratification

For some, status refers to prestige, esteem or honor (Weber 1946). In this sense, status can be positive or negative and is always relative, or as Weber wrote, based on "usurpation" (137). Those of high status monopolize "ideal and material goods or opportunities" (138). Weber viewed statuses as groups/communities in which people of a similar status shared similar lifestyles and interests, rather than variables or categories. For Weber, occupations, racial, and ethnic groups were status groups. Status can be based on education to the extent that customs and lifestyles of a particular status can be acquired through education (Levine 1980). Also included in Weber's definition of status would be social lineage, such as "First Families of Virginia" (137). Therefore, families as well as individuals can have statuses (Sampson and Rossi 1975).

Although Weber noted these multiple bases for status, he did not discuss status inconsistencies or contradictions, in which someone is a member of a high-status group (for example, based on occupation) and simultaneously a low-status group (based on ethnicity). Weber also did not consider gender a status group or community in his writings. Weber distinguished status from economic or market situation, which he termed class. He noted that although persons can have contradictory class and status at a particular period in time, such combinations are unstable, and often either the class or the status will change to conform to the other (136). Therefore, status and class are distinct but not independent. He wrote that a simplified notion of status and class is that class relates to production of goods and services whereas status relates to consumption of them (140).[1]

More recent uses of Weber's notion of status would include that of reputation (Benjamin and Podolny 1999, Stewart 2005) including a reputation for proficiency in a particular skill, such as computer programming or winemaking (see also Bielby and Bielby 1999, Anderson et al. 1966). In the Weberian sense, status is a synonym for prestige, not directly determined by financial resources, and a basis for membership in social groups.

Status as Situation or Position: Role Differentiation

Parsons and Merton also used status as an important theoretical concept. Their definition of status referred to a person's position in a social structure, to which expected behaviors (called roles) are attached. They did not see status as referring only to honor, prestige, or esteem. Instead, status referred to a person's situation or position, without

[1] Party, Weber's third basis for social stratification that is not examined in this dissertation, relates to power, the ability to have one's desires come about (whereas status is about the social order and class about economic order). Parties have more explicit communal goals than do status groups or classes.

necessarily a hierarchical rank ordering from low to high. Parsons (1940:849) wrote that position in the stratification system was only one part of status. Their definitions of status are more expansive that Weber's, including relational statuses (parent, child, sibling, spouse), positions in political or organizational hierarchies, age, and gender (Parsons 1942). Families can have statuses, which were historically often determined by the occupation of the father/husband (Parsons 1942). More recently, researchers have examined the relative importance of the education and occupation of both men and women in households in determining family status (D'Amico 1983).[2] Merton and Parsons saw status as separate from class, although class was shaped by occupation, a status characteristic.

For Merton and Parsons, statuses are sociologically important because of the roles, or behavioral expectations, attached to them. An individual status characteristic can have several roles attached to it, called a role set (Merton 1957). Parsons and Merton noted that individuals have many different statuses simultaneously. For example, a person can be a medical student, a woman, a parent, a daughter, a spouse, Caucasian, from blue-collar background, and so on. As a result, in addition to having role conflict among different statuses such as a woman experiencing role conflict between her status as mother and her status as worker, role conflict can originate within one status from multiple roles such as a teacher with conflicting expectations from administrators, parents, and students (Coser 1975:240, see also Stryker and Macke 1978).

Role conflict is a source of individuality because individuals have many choices in how to respond to a situation, deciding which role or roles to follow or disregard

[2] Relatedly, Wright (1989) and Sorensen (1994) discussed how women's occupations contributed to their family's class, rather than status.

(Coser 1975). However, high-status persons are able to assert this individuality, or role articulation, more so than low-status persons (Coser 1975:244). Coser wrote that those with high-status positions:

> have leeway in their behavior; they are expected to use their judgment, to weigh alternatives and to be guided in their actions by moral principles, cognitive assessments, and commitment to goals. Those who occupy low positions in the hierarchy have much less leeway and fewer options among alternatives; for them, specific activities are more frequently prescribed in detail, and their relation to a goal not always clear (252).[3]

Some have emphasized the importance of considering individuals' multiple statuses. Lenski (1954, 1956) noted that individuals and families can have several statuses on what he referred to as parallel vertical hierarchies, and can vary in the level of consistency they have among their statuses, called status crystalization. He highlighted four status hierarchies: income, education, occupation, and race/ethnicity. Others have focused on how status consistency and inconsistency influence mental health, political values, and political participation (see Segal and Knoke 1968, Zelditch et al. 1980; and Zurcher and Wilson 1979, who also focused on status enhancement and status detraction).

Parsons and Merton did consider status as it relates to inequality, with some having higher or lower status. Parsons defined social stratification as the differential ranking of individuals as relatively inferior or superior (1940). He argued that social stratification was based on six factors: kinship membership, personal qualities, achievements, possessions, authority, and power. Collectively, these factors make up a person's status in the stratification system (849). Therefore, one could consider Weber's

[3] Then, she quickly switches to calling these status differences class differences. Authors often have difficulty distinguishing status from class. Although Weber treats them as separate and nonoverlapping, he concedes they are interrelated. Some consider status to be more general than class, with economic status being class or class being one form of status.

class, status, and party all to be included in Parsons' notion of status as it relates to social stratification. Merton noted hierarchical rank ordering of status in the Matthew Effect (1968) and the self-fulfilling prophecy. In the first instance, prior evaluations influence later evaluations, regardless of later behavior (see also Benjamin and Podolny 1999); in the second, prior evaluations can influence actual behavior and outcomes.

Status as Prestige and Situation: Status Characteristics Theory, Expectation States Theory, and Status Expectations Theory

In more recent uses of status, sociologists and social psychologists seemed to integrate Weber's notion of status referring to prestige and lifestyle and Merton's notion of status referring to role differentiation and behavioral expectations. That is, sociologists often view status as positions in the social structure with different behavioral expectations attached to them, which have different degrees of honor, prestige, or esteem (for examples of definitions, see Alexander 1972, Berger et al. 2002, Nock and Rossi 1978, Ridgeway 1993). This group of scholars classifies neutral characteristics with no positive or negative notion as "nominal" characteristics rather than "status" characteristics (Berger et al. 1980, Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972; de Gilder and Wilke 1990). Jasso (2001) referred to nominal characteristics as qualitative status characteristics rather than quantitative status characteristics. Status has been used to include most social distinctions: race, gender, age, parental or marital status, education, occupation, social networks, parents' educational and occupational background (Ridgeway 1993:179). For a review of status characteristics theory and expectation states theory, see Simpson and Walker (2002), Foddy and Smithson (1996), McGuire (2002), Webster and Whitmeyer (2001), and Sell et al. (2000, 2002).

Status characteristics theory emphasizes how individuals judge others (and themselves) according to status characteristics. Based on individuals' status characteristics, others will make predictions regarding their behavior, character, and abilities (Anderson et al. 1966, Ridgeway 1993). Berger et al. (2002) argued that for every status, the more valued category is seen as superior and instrumental whereas the less valued category is perceived as inferior and expressive, meaning less goal-directed. Status expectations theorists often focus on group interactions in which there is a collective goal and examine the influence of gender or race (or sometimes artificial status distinctions generated in laboratory settings) on humor, interruptions, topic changes, participation, and influence within groups (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972; Okamoto and Smith-Lovin 2001, Robinson and Smith-Lovin 2001, Skvoretz 1981, Van der Vegt, Bunderson, and Oosterhof 2006; Webster and Hysom 1998).

Status characteristics theory is relevant in situations in which status characteristics are observable, differentially valued, and vary among members of a group engaged in a collective goal. Therefore, status characteristics theory has business and organizational applications. Thye (2000) argued that the same products or resources from high-status persons will be more valued than those of low-status persons, and vice versa (see also Benjamin and Podolny 1999, Stewart 2005). Benjamin and Podolny (1999) also focused on how organizations align/affiliate themselves with high status organizations to increase their own status. They argued that status is generated by a combination of product/service quality and ties to others, termed the "status of exchange partners", and that status provides numerous economic advantages (564).

Status Construction Theory seeks to explain how characteristics become positively or negatively evaluated, or in their words, how nominal characteristics become status characteristics (Ridgeway 1991; Ridgeway and Balkwell 1997, Ridgeway, Boyle, Kuipers, and Robinson 1998). When nominal characteristics (which must be observable) become associated with unequal resources, beliefs and expectations regarding individuals' abilities develop, often through social interaction (see Webster and Hyson 1998:352). These expectations can be generalized to all sharing a particular status characteristic, even if many of those individuals differ in their resource access from other members in the status category. Further, behavioral and performance expectations are often internalized by the status holder and influence their behavior (similar to self-fulfilling prophecy). Finally, people decouple the performance expectation from the differential access to resources and merely assume that the status characteristic itself is the cause of the behavioral expectation. As a result, power inequalities in interaction develop, called the *translation principle* (see Cohen and Zhou 1991). Examples of these interaction inequalities include interruptions and topic changes mentioned above. Behavioral expectations or stereotypes can be specific, relating to one area, or diffuse, relating to many situations (Berger et al. 1980, 1991, Bunderson 2003). Cohen and Zhou (1991) distinguished external status characteristics, which precede a particular group's interaction and may be applied in a variety of situations, and internal status characteristics, which develop through a particular group's interaction and may have relevance only to that group. Not all statuses have the same importance, and relevance varies by social context. Researchers have observed the process of status construction in experimental settings in which resources or rewards are distributed based on an arbitrary characteristic designated by those conducting the experiments.

Ven der Vegt et al. (2006) studied classroom groups in the Netherlands and found that status differences, what they termed “expertness diversity” influenced helping behaviors and commitment on the part of team members. In addition, they found that commitment and helping behaviors improved team effectiveness. Expertise was subjective, based on reports by team members as to their alters’ level of competency in “intellectual/academic ability, creative ability, social skills, leadership ability, practical understanding, and discipline” (882). Although their study involved student groups rather than entrepreneurial teams, their work is directly relevant to my dissertation and will be referred to throughout.

Given that individuals have multiple statuses, some of which may be high and others low, status construction theorists also sought to understand how individuals develop overall behavioral expectations of individuals. Evidence suggests that people “combine”, that is, take into account all apparent status characteristics, rather than “balance”, consider only one status characteristic, ignoring others when generating impressions of people (de Gilder and Wilke 1990, Zelditch et al. 1980). Researchers have called the preceding the *combining principle*. Also, information about each new status has diminishing marginal effects on behavioral expectations, sometimes called the *attenuation principle* (Cohen and Zhou, 1991; see also Ridgeway 1993:181). Given the diminishing marginal effect, perhaps the most observable characteristics have the greatest importance and those discovered or disclosed later have relatively less significance. Ridgeway (1993) added an important qualification about how this theory focuses on social behavior rather than on cognition and psychology: “the theory does not assume that people necessarily make such calculations but they act as if they made them” (181). Therefore, the dissertation does not examine cognition or beliefs but behaviors and outcomes that appear to be influenced by widespread notions of status.

Context and the Relevance of Particular Characteristics. Not all status characteristics have equal importance. Bunderson (2003) argued that status characteristics had different weights. Context influences the relevance of particular status characteristics. Status characteristics and expectations states theorists refer to contextual significance as the *activation principle* because existing beliefs developed previously become activated when status characteristics are deemed relevant to particular situations (Cohen and Zhou 1991). For an existing status belief to not apply, individuals must present information that a status characteristic is not relevant or the status belief does not hold for a given situation, called the *burden of proof process*. Statuses most relevant are those most directly related to an outcome, called the *path of relevance principle* (Berger et al. 1972, Bunderson 2003, Cohen and Zhou 1991). Bunderson (2003) found in his study of self-directed production teams in a large high technology organization that diffuse status characteristics had lesser effects on notions of expertise than did specific status characteristics, such as years of work experience with the particular organization. Erlanger (1980) noted that family background was important in predicting who became lawyers, a high-status occupation, but was not important in predicting status within the occupation of law (measured by law firm size, client type, and income). Hughes (1945), credited with the term “master status” in reference to race, argued that, although the race of a male, African American physician would probably have the greatest impact on the individual in most contexts throughout his life of all his status characteristics, race would be less relevant in a work setting. Researchers have also noted that racial differences on a variety of outcomes and factors differ far less substantially in the military than in the civilian population (Lundquist 2004). Kalmijn (1991, 1994) found that what she called cultural status, measured by occupational education, was more important than income (which some would call class) in determining marriage selection. Bose and Rossi (1983) found that gender is not a particularly relevant status to undergraduate students in surveys about occupational prestige. Therefore, statuses that are important in some contexts may be irrelevant in others.

Status Terminology. Sociologists have attached adjectives to status to distinguish different types of status. First, sociologists often contrast *ascribed* and *achieved* status characteristics (Linton 1936). Parsons wrote about societal differences in the role of ascriptive processes versus achievement processes in determining social stratification. Ascription refers to life chances that are based on inherited (biologically or socially) status characteristics: race, gender, family background, and age. Achievement refers to life chances determined by individuals' actions and therefore are based on one's own education, occupation, work experience, or merit. Ascribed status characteristics are sometimes called demographic traits and achieved status characteristics are sometimes called human capital. Also, ascribed characteristics can be a mechanism for change in achieved status: for example, family background can afford persons enhanced social networks that can subsequently result to enhanced educational and occupational opportunities (Granovetter 1974, Lai, Lin, and Leung 1998, Lin et al. 1981a,b, Pfeffer 1977). Another important status term is *master status*: a status characteristic that surpasses all others in influence (Hughes 1945, see also Adler and Adler 1989). Merton discussed *status sequences*, which capture how people move through statuses in their life course, similar what others have called status attainment (Blau and Duncan 1967). *Status inconsistencies* (Berger et al. 1992, Stryker and Macke 1978) refer to when individuals simultaneously have both high and low statuses. Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch (1972) distinguished different types of status characteristics: hierarchy status (Skvoretz 1981), personal reputation, and community (sex, occupation, race, age) characteristics.

Some have abandoned the term status altogether, such as Blau, who used the term social position (showing the Parsons/Merton influence who defined status as a position in the social structure). Social positions are characteristics by which individuals can be differentiated (1994:3). Blau distinguished heterogeneity (differences) from inequality (stratification) and noted that not all social positions are marked by inequality, similar to the nominal/status characteristics distinction. For Blau, key social position characteristics are education, age, race, and gender. He challenged scholars to remember that individuals have many different social positions, what McPherson referred to as a multi-dimensional blauspace (McPherson 2004, McPherson and Ranger-Moore 1991). McPherson (2004:267) noted that social institutions reinforce statuses: “The institutional structure of society enforces and reinforces the sorting processes that allocate persons to positions in the stratification system.” Therefore, sociologists have defined status in various ways and developed varied taxonomies to distinguish particular types of status characteristics.

Integrating the Various Definitions of Status

Many sociologists do not explicitly define status, but often implicitly combine the notions of status as prestige, situation, and behavioral expectations. The behavioral expectations aspect of status, also called status beliefs, similar but distinct from stereotypes (Gorman 2005) or cognitive heuristics (Aldrich 1999); they are widely-, although not universally-, held impressions about how a person should act, is likely to act, and what resources (physical, financial, material, or intellectual) they may have. Sometimes, people use status characteristics for statistical discrimination, in which decisions about individuals are based on positive or negative stereotypes about a category of individuals. Status emphasizes these expectations rather than the actual resources of the individuals. Therefore, rather than looking at actual resources, I examine status characteristics which tend to be associated with particular resources, and thus would influence evaluations of individuals, even when their resources differ from the expected state. A status does not necessarily conscribe a person's behaviors or resources; however, it often influences expectations about likely behaviors, abilities, and resources of both the individual and others. Status theories do not negate individuality or variation, but predict general trends.

What Constitutes High or Low Status Characteristics?

Status construction theorists would argue that states of any status are considered high status if they are associated with high levels of resources or rewards and low status if the opposite is the case. Even before status construction theorists, researchers and theorists had notions of which statuses are most favorable, and these remain relatively consistent. Hughes (1945) wrote that "this remains a white, Anglo-Saxon, male, Protestant culture in many respects. These are expected characteristics for many favored statuses and positions. When we speak or racial, religious, sex, and ethnic prejudices, we generally assume that people with the favored qualities are not the objects thereof" (356).

Achieved statuses are hierarchically ranked as well. Occupations differ in their levels of resources and rewards, and therefore prestige and status, with professions having high occupational prestige and unskilled manual labor having low prestige. For education, degrees have different levels of status (high school diploma versus masters' in business administration, for example) and particular institutions or departments have higher status than others (Levine 1980, Paxton and Bollen 2003).

Individuals do not make identical prestige assessments, and therefore individuals can differ in their evaluations of a particular characteristic. For example, Alexander (1972) found that low-status evaluators were less likely to rank low-status positions as such, giving them higher prestige marks than did medium or high-status evaluators. In other words, lower status people tend to rate individuals as having higher statuses than do evaluators from higher status locations.

Entrepreneurship and Social Stratification

Entrepreneurship intrigues sociologists interested in stratification because its highly unequal outcomes are characterized by high failure rate and uncertainty. To the extent that entrepreneurial outcomes are associated with status, entrepreneurship can magnify inequalities among status groups, such as those between whites and persons of color or men and women (Budig 2002, Robb 2002).

Not only do most entrepreneurs fail to become millionaires, most nascent entrepreneurs fail to launch operating businesses (Reynolds and White 1997). Further, failed entrepreneurs often recoup little of their business investments and return to the wage and salary job market with diminished rewards compared to their experiences prior to entrepreneurship (Williams 2004). Many businesses fail because they suffer from liability of newness, in which they struggle to develop sound organizational practices within and grapple with external forces such as competition, regulators, and environmental changes (Carroll and Hannen 2000, Stinchcombe 1965). The internal pressures of establishing organizational practices often dominate the challenges nascent entrepreneurs face in the early stages of business formation as opposed to competitive or regulatory pressures.

Nascent entrepreneurs also suffer from what some have called liability of smallness: nascent firms cannot take advantage of economies of scale and therefore are less efficient than larger companies; they also suffer from resource constraints (Aldrich and Auster 1986, Van Auken 2004, Winborg and Landström 2001). The converse of the liability of newness/smallness is that larger, established organizations enjoy relative advantage and stability compared to entrepreneurial organizations. Such organizations have more available resources and sometimes this abundance is passed onto employees. Several have noted that organization size is an important predictor of job rewards (Baron and Bielby 1980, Davis and Kalleberg 2006). Thus, nascent entrepreneurs, regardless of their status, face challenges often unseen by wage and salary workers due to liability of newness and smallness. In terms of social stratification, the economic consequences (risks and rewards) for entrepreneurship are typically higher than they are for wage and salary employment.

Financial success in entrepreneurship is far less predictable than success in wage and salary employment. Kaufman (1991) noted that the environment in which organizations are embedded changes erratically. Organizations that remain flexible and poised to take on any change are inefficient with redundant capabilities and therefore likely to fail. Organizations that wait for an environmental change to occur before taking action face many barriers to effective change in both the decision-making and implementation phases. Further, by the time an organization implements a change to better fit the environment, the environment may have shifted again, thus making the organization not only poorly matched for the environment but also drained of resources mobilized for the now obsolete reforms. Kaufman (1991) concluded that neither strategy/skill nor flexibility determined organizational success, but that organizational outcomes were largely governed by chance. Thus, entrepreneurship is risky because it involves a high chance of failure and limited efficacy of action (Aldrich 1999). Nevertheless, entrepreneurship shapes the nature of social stratification in societies (Lippmann, Davis, and Aldrich 2005).

Despite the lack of predictability of entrepreneurial success, researchers have demonstrated that status characteristics affect entrepreneurial outcomes. Those with high status often have financial, social, and human capital advantages over those with low status often lead to more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes.

Status and Entrepreneurship

Status influences selection decisions in a variety of contexts. Decision makers use status to reduce uncertainty and assess one's competence or desirability. Therefore, status influences interactions among groups (Ridgeway 1993), hiring, pay, and promotion decisions for employees in organizations of varied sizes (Budig and England 2001, Kennelly 1999, Reskin and McBrier 2000, Reskin and Ross 1992, Wilson 1996), and selection of friends in informal groups (Mayhew et al. 1995).

Likewise, nascent entrepreneurs encounter many situations in which they are selected or not selected, and their statuses may influence the selections of decision makers. Nascent entrepreneurs may or may not join a team (Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter 2003). They may seek to secure funding through banks (Uzzi 1999) or venture capitalists (Baum and Silverman 2004). They seek customers, who may be individuals, government agencies (Smith, Roberson-Saunders, and Fanara 2004), or other companies (Bates 2002). Status characteristics shape perceptions regarding whether someone is likely to be a successful entrepreneur. Team members, lenders or investors, and clients or customers may use status characteristics (ascribed and achieved) as indicators of a person's competence and expertise, ability to complete tasks successfully in a timely manner, aggressiveness, social skills, network connections, and so on.[4] Further, regardless of beliefs of competence and behavioral expectations, people may simply prefer people with similar status characteristics to themselves because it reduces uncertainty and increases predictability, often referred to as homophily (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook 2000) or homosocial reproduction (Kanter 1977). Status characteristics can influence whether individuals forms teams with particular others, how they interact in such teams, whether they purchase goods or services from individuals, and whether they invest or lend money to individuals. Therefore, status likely affects startup interactions, startup discontinuance, persistence, and/or the launch of operational businesses.

High status characteristics tend to benefit nascent entrepreneurs, yet entrepreneurship as an occupation/employment status exhibits marked status diversity. Researchers have found that achieved status characteristics such as education and high

[4] Status-based differences in the accumulation of resources can be both a cause and an effect of status distinctions, contributing to a self-perpetuating cycle or self-fulfilling prophesy (Merton 1948, Lee 2002).

occupational status (profession) enhance the earnings and survivability of ventures (Bates 1995, Budig 2006). Similarly, researchers have examined the extent to which ascribed statuses like gender and race influence the fates of entrepreneurs (Robb 2002). Not only do individuals with high-status characteristics tend to find entrepreneurial advantages that are discussed in more detail below, but they also often have more attractive alternatives to entrepreneurship should they want to or need to abandon their startups or established businesses (Boden and Nucci 2000, Gimeno et al 1997). Nevertheless, individuals from virtually every status composition participate in entrepreneurship in the United States (Reynolds et al. 2002). Some individuals of low status may prefer to be self-employed rather than employees or anticipate substantial upward mobility from their entrepreneurial efforts, whereas others pursue entrepreneurship because they cannot find wage and salary work. Pursuing entrepreneurship as a last resort has been classified as necessity entrepreneurship, default entrepreneurship, and disadvantaged worker entrepreneurship (Budig 2006, Butler 1999, Buttner and Moore 1997, McManus 2000, Tienda and Raijman 2004). This last-resort entrepreneurship is particularly pronounced when government safety nets for the unemployed are sparse (McManus 2000, Reynolds et al. 2003). Entrepreneurship does not have licensing requirements or high educational or financial barriers to entry, yet it provides the potential for autonomy and high pay associated with highly selective professional occupations with markedly less status diversity such as elected office, law, and medicine (Erlanger 1980, Mizruchi 2000).

Many statuses have been examined to determine their relevance to both wage and salary employment and entrepreneurship. Researchers have found variation in the relevance of particular status characteristics. Notably, researchers often find substantial similarity between men and women entrepreneurs, suggesting that gender is not an important status characteristic in certain entrepreneurial contexts. I examine several dimensions or characteristics of status to determine their relevance for resource contributions within startup teams and three indicators of entrepreneurial success. I examine both achieved characteristics and ascribed characteristics and seek to determine which were more relevant in nascent entrepreneurial activities. I next discuss various status characteristics, explain why they are status characteristics, and formulate hypotheses regarding the status characteristics' effects on the entrepreneurial outcomes of business establishment, startup abandonment, and startup persistence and on contributions within startup teams. I sometimes refer to those with high-status characteristics as high-status persons and those with low-status characteristics as low-status persons for brevity's sake. However, in the analysis, I examine status characteristics individually.

I have chosen to focus on the achieved characteristics of education, occupation, labor force attachment and the ascribed characteristics of gender, motherhood, race, and age because they are associated with significant differences in status beliefs relevant to work and entrepreneurship. I will first discuss how these status characteristics will influence the entrepreneurial outcomes of individuals, and then I will turn to how these status characteristics influence contributions and entrepreneurial outcomes in startup teams.

Achieved Statuses

Education. Many have considered education a status characteristic (Jackson 1962, Lenski 1954). Others argued that education is a status characteristic only in the sense that education is a way in which individuals learn the customs of their status level (Levine 1980, Weber 1946) or in that it provides enhanced opportunities not through skills or knowledge but through credentialing or artifact (Brown 2001, Pfeffer 1977). Because education is associated with higher skills and knowledge and thus shapes behavioral expectations, those with higher education have higher status even if their education did not provide them with higher skills and knowledge. That is, education not only provides skills and knowledge (as well as satisfy minimum entry requirements for many occupations), but influences how individuals judge others and themselves, forming notions regarding acceptable behaviors. People have different perceptions regarding individuals based on their level of education: a high school drop out versus a high school graduate, versus someone with a bachelor's degree, versus someone with a graduate degree. Likewise, people form expectations about individuals based on educational institutions attended.[5]

Researchers have found significant effects of education on entrepreneurial experiences. Bates (1995) found that education significantly predicted entry into self-employment in skilled services, and because many women pursue entrepreneurship in skilled services, education is important for women entrepreneurs (see also Dolinsky et al 1993, Fairlie 2004, Henley 2004). Boden and Nucci (2000) found that college graduates had greater survival rates than those with less than a bachelor's degree. Bosma et al (2004) found that education was positively related to profits in their study of Dutch entrepreneurs. Coleman (2004) found that education influenced racial disparities in access to financial capital. Rasheed (2004) found that education was positively associated with market penetration in the government sector.

[5] Again, status attached to particular institutions is not a focus on the dissertation.

For entrepreneurs, beyond the level of education and institutions attended, education in finance or business-related fields will influence status-based expectations. The higher the level of education and the greater the extent of business-related education, the higher the status for nascent entrepreneurs because individuals with high levels of education or especially business education will be expected to be resource-rich and capable of forming successful businesses compared to those with less education.

Occupation. Parsons argued that in the United States, occupation was the primary stratification mechanism, largely determining income and wealth (1940:856). Therefore, occupation is a consequential status characteristic. Researchers have shown that occupations shape behavioral expectations, and therefore the same action or circumstance is interpreted differently, depending on the focal person's occupation (Bray et al. 1978, Goodschilds and Smith 1963). Occupational status is determined by occupational prestige and occupational sex composition.

Those who have studied occupational status differ on the consistency and reliability of the most commonly used measures of occupational status: occupational prestige and occupational SEI (socioeconomic index). Treiman (1977) argued that occupational prestige developed from the division of labor, in which different occupations became associated with different levels of power and control of resources. Because, he argued, power and control of resources give people access to privileges (which, he reasoned, are universally valued); occupations with power and privileges become prestigious. He also argued that the occupational prestige structure should be the same across societies (see his discussion on pages 5 and 6). Typically, prestigious occupations are highly skilled jobs that are well-compensated, stable, clean, licensed, occur indoors, and require substantial education. Rather than finding occupational prestige straightforward and uniform, others find definitions and measures of occupational prestige problematic. For example, some question whether occupational prestige truly captures esteem or status as Treiman argues, or whether it reflects the extent to which occupations are desirable given the level of favorable working conditions they provide, what some refer to as extrinsic job rewards (Kalleberg 1977, Sorenson 2001). As an example, high-status occupations tend to have more flexibility and autonomy than low-status jobs;[6] these jobs may be measured as high status because people desire autonomy and flexibility rather than actually respect the content of the occupations.

Professions are one type of high-status occupation typified by abstract knowledge, altruism, autonomy, and exclusive jurisdiction (Abbott 1988, 1981, Friedson 1984, Parsons 1939, Simpson 1985). Law and medicine are classic examples of professional occupations. *Abstract knowledge* refers to professionals having not only technical or practical knowledge, but of theoretical knowledge that is not easily obtained. Such knowledge is often gained through universities, often requiring graduate degrees. *Altruism* refers to professionals ideally focusing on the welfare of their clients rather than on instrumental, individualistic motives. That is, clients are supposed to trust professionals (credet emptor) rather than be wary of them (caveat emptor). Professionals have *autonomy* because they have some influence over the conditions and content of their work. They often direct the work of subordinates as well. They self-govern, often through a code of conduct establishing ethical professional behavior. *Exclusive jurisdiction* refers

[6] Flexibility and autonomy may provide opportunities for people to pursue entrepreneurship along side wage and salary work and also provide attractive alternatives to entrepreneurship not available to those in low-status occupations (Budig 2006, Rosenfeld 1996, Davis and Kalleberg 2006).

to licensing, in which professionals must be licensed and are the only ones who legally can perform certain jobs. Semi-professions are occupations with some, but not all, of the four earmarks of professions and paraprofessions are occupations specifically related to the assistance of professionals. Abstract knowledge, altruism, autonomy, and exclusive jurisdiction all contribute to the status of an occupation, with professions having higher status than nonprofessions.

For entrepreneurship, the professional/nonprofessional distinction may influence impressions of individuals' capabilities of establishing operational businesses. In fact, Budig (2006) found that occupational status had a dramatic influence on earnings of self-employed persons, with professionals earning more than nonprofessionals. Dimov and Shepherd (2005) found that education in professions such as law reduced odds of bankruptcy.

The typical measures used to measure occupational status are the General Social Survey (GSS) prestige scores and Socioeconomic (SEI) scores. The GSS asked respondents to evaluate 110 occupations on their social standing as a measure of prestige (Nakao and Treas 1994). The SEI is based on the percentage of workers making a certain amount of income or more for income and for education the percentage of workers in an occupation with at least one year of college (Nakao and Treas 1994). Hauser and Warren (1997:238) argued that prestige scores lack criterion validity and SEI scales should be disaggregated so that each (education and income) is measured separately, with a focus on occupational education. I use occupational SEI scores and also examine occupational sex composition to measures occupational status.

Researchers have found that occupations with high representations of women are seen as lower status than those with high representations of men. Female-typed occupations often have lower wages than male-typed occupations, and occupational sex segregation is responsible for much of the pay gap between men and women (Boraas and Rodgers 2003, see also Hartman 1976, Reskin 1988). Further, occupations with high concentrations of women may be seen as less conducive to business ownership than other occupations. These occupations are often typified by *care* work rather than by business or science, even if occupants hold different notions of their work (Rosenfeld 2001). That is, even “feminized” occupations in which science, business, or technology are central; such aspects are deemphasized and the expressive elements of the job are emphasized. Sociologists such as Hartmann and Reskin argued that work done by women, specifically care work, is devalued in patriarchal societies (see also Bose and Rossi 1983, England, Budig, and Folbre 2002). Occupational sex composition influences the status of an individual, specifically impressions regarding their potential entrepreneurial capacities. Occupations with high concentrations of men have higher status than those with high concentrations of women.[7]

Labor Force Attachment. Individuals vary in the level of continuity of their careers. Some careers involve individuals employed within one organization for the entirety of their careers. Others involve multiple job or occupational shifts, and still others include interruptions in labor force participation due to education, care of family members, economic shifts such as sectoral transformation, downsizing, or other factors.

[7] Improper classification of occupations may be a cause for concern when determining status or other consequences of occupational sex composition (Mouw 2001). However, the effects of such misclassifications should be minimized given that I also test for effects of occupational SEI. Even though the occupations of janitor and housekeeper have different sex compositions, their SEIs are similar.

Interruptions may also involve shifts from full-time to part-time employment. Further, individuals may alternate between self-employment and wage and salary work. Continuity of labor force participation influences status because human capital can be gained through such experience, and labor force interruptions can lead to depreciated human capital upon reentry into the labor force (Groot, Schippers, and Siegers 1990). Thus, expected behaviors will differ depending on labor force attachment. With regard to entrepreneurship, team members, lenders, investors, or other parties may use labor force experience and attachment to predict the capabilities of nascent entrepreneurs. Baum and Silverman (2004) argued that venture capitalists often put *too much* emphasis on the human capital of founding teams, which they defined as the "identity and background" of team members, which was measured by a variety of factors including team size and experience of team members. Venture capitalists responded to experience as a status rather than as a true predictor of success. Therefore, those with labor force interruptions will have lower status than those with more continuous labor force experience because they may often be judged as less capable of starting businesses than those with more orderly careers to most observers.

In entrepreneurial studies, labor force attachment is often measured by examining the extent of full-time, managerial, industry, or startup experience. Boden and Nucci (2000) found that years of paid work experience was associated with higher survival rates. Bosma et al (2004) found that industry and business-related experience was positively associated with survival, profits, and employment in their sample of Dutch entrepreneurs. Chandler (1996) found similar results in a sample of Utah business owners. Lerner and Almor (2002) found that industry experience and business skills significantly influenced the sales of female businesses in Israel (see also Lerner, Brush, and Hisrich 1997). Merrett and Gruidl (2000) found significant differences by gender with regard to work experience in their sample of entrepreneurs in Illinois and argued that work experience differences contributed to women's worse outcomes. Van Auken (1999) found that previous startup experience increased odds of believing business obstacles could be overcome. Industry and occupation experience positively influence business duration (van Praag 2003). Some researchers who have found a null or negative relationship between labor market attachment and entrepreneurial outcomes have reasoned that perhaps those with high labor force attachment have higher performance thresholds and more attractive alternatives to entrepreneurship and therefore more quickly abandon ventures not meeting their performance expectations (Boden and Nucci 2000, Gimeno et al. 1997).

Ascribed Statuses

Gender. In general, societal expectations for men and women differ, and therefore gender is a fundamental status characteristic. Marwell (1975:445) noted that gender ascription, assigning different roles to men and women, is present in almost all societies and extends beyond biological differences between the sexes. Cohen and Zhou (1991) found evidence that, net of other characteristics, gender is a significant status characteristic with men having higher status value then women (see also Ridgeway 1993:179).[8] The roles for men and women dictate that women are expected to be more adept at caring whereas men are expected to be more adept at analytical activities, math, and science. Such behavioral expectations shape the educational investments and

[8] The importance of gender as a status characteristic varies by context and subpopulation. For example, researchers have found that for undergraduate students, gender is not a particularly consequential status characteristic (Bose and Rossi 1983).

occupational choices of men and women, and contribute to persistent occupational sex segregation. Because occupations influence pay, occupational sex segregation can magnify differences in expected behaviors or status differences (Boraas and Rodgers 2003). In married households with children, women do a majority of the housekeeping and care work (Bittman and Wajcman 2000, Hochschilds 1989, Perkins and DeMeis 1996, Sanchez and Thomson 1997, Sayer 2005). In addition, among single adults, women are expected and perceived to spend more time on personal care, appearance, and cleaning. These differences result in actual or expected differences in time devoted to paid work, which can further influence behavioral expectations regarding the capabilities of men and women to start businesses.

Women historically have had diminished legal status relative to men. Women were not given the right to vote until 1920 in the United States (Marwell 1975). Legally, women were once the property of either their fathers or husbands, meaning women had no legal recourse against fathers and husbands and that when women were victimized, husbands and fathers were the legal victims. Women faced numerous legal restrictions in the labor force, with limitations placed on their work hours and the types of work they could do. Paying women less than men was once a matter of law as well, with men being paid more than women based on the expectation that men were supporting dependent women and children and women were not (often called the family wage). The family wage system emerged from union pressure and a restriction on women's and children's labor (Carlson 1996, see also Hartmann 1976). Only in 1963 under the Equal Pay Act did paying women less for the same work of men become illegal (England 2000).

Norms regarding the differential status of men and women continue to affect gender inequality. Though no longer a law, women continue to have an average economic status lower than that of men, and comparable worth, paying men and women equally for equivalent work, does not consistently occur (England 2000). Women are concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations that tend to be lower paid than occupations with high concentrations of men (England et al. 1994, Fronczek and Johnson 2003, Reskin 1993). In addition, a gender wage gap persists that cannot be fully explained by occupation, experience, or productivity (England and Dunn 1988, Marini 1989). Qualitative research has uncovered instances in which some women want to be paid less than their partners because of their own gender status beliefs, and employers capitalize on the opportunity by offering women low paying jobs (Hossfeld 1990:283, 287).

Occupational sex segregation and the pay gap are effects of the status of men and women as well as contributors to status expectations regarding gender, work, and entrepreneurship. Women's historical inferior status has contributed to occupational sex segregation (and crowding) and a pay gap, both of which contribute to expectations of the entrepreneurial capabilities of men and women. Researchers often find evidence suggesting that women continue to face gender discrimination, perhaps resulting from status expectations, in the workplace. For example, despite evidence that shows that men and women have similar turnover and absenteeism rates, women are often seen as mothers who are less committed to their jobs than men (Kennelly 1999). Research has produced contradictory results with regard to the magnitude of gender discrimination with regard to wages, hiring, job placement, and promotion perhaps because gender is a significant status characteristic in some work contexts but not others (Averett and Hotchkiss 1996, Haberfeld 1992, Hampton and Heywood 1993, Kolpin and Singell 1996, Mavrornaras and Rudolph 1997, Neumark and McLennan 1995, Rosenberg, Perlstadt, and Phillips 1993, Spurr 1990, Stanley and Jarrell 1998). However, studies continue to suggest that gender discrimination remains an important factor in gender inequality because employers have different behavioral expectations for men and women. Therefore, gender is a particularly relevant status to entrepreneurship, with men having higher status than women.

In many ways, men and women entrepreneurs are similar. For example, women and men business owners have similar characteristics with regard to personality and business strategies (Birley 1989, Smith, Smits, and Hoy 1992; Sonfield et al. 2001). Researchers have also found that businesses owned by men and women have similar structures and practices and enjoy relative parity with regard to business success (Cliff et al. 2005, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991, Du Rietz and Henrekson 2000). The survival of new businesses is also influenced by similar characteristics for men and women owners (Boden and Nucci 2000). Menzies, Diochon, and Gasse (2004) challenged “myths” about female entrepreneurs, in their study of Canadian nascent entrepreneurs. They found that men and women 1) had similar levels of education, 2) had similar levels of experience (full-time, part-time, managerial, industry, and startup), 3) had no network-use differences, 4) were equally financially savvy, and 5) were equally likely to have a business plan. They also found that women were 6) less likely to have family business partner, 7) had no industry differences, and 8) no size preference differences.[9] They did find significant differences in college majors, with men more often having a business, entrepreneurship, applied science, or computer background with women relatively concentrated in health and natural science majors. Carter et al. (2001) found that the career reasons of men and women nascent entrepreneurs were more similar than the career reasons of female entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs, suggesting that *nascent entrepreneur* was a more consequential status than *woman* (see also Shaver, Gatewood, and Gartner 2001).

Despite these similarities, researchers have also found differences among men and women entrepreneurs, including entrepreneurial outcomes. Researchers consistently find that women's businesses are smaller and generate fewer revenues than do men's businesses and that women's businesses tend to be concentrated in services and retail, with very few women entrepreneurs entering industries such as manufacturing or construction (Bates 1995, Carr 1996, Cliff 1998, Cliff, Langton and Aldrich 2005; Haber, Lamas, and Lichtenstein 1987, Ljunggren and Kolvereid 1996, Loscocco et al. 1991, Loscocco and Leicht 1993, Robb 2002). Size and industry predict other business characteristics and outcomes such as structure, sales, survival, and access to financial capital and therefore significantly influence social stratification of entrepreneurial outcomes by gender (Brau 2002, Du Rietz and Henrekson 2000). Further, gender-based performance differences cannot be fully explained by industry or other firm characteristics (Carter, Williams, and Reynolds 1997, Robb 2002).

[9] However, the sample size was small, 144. This may have made finding significant differences less likely. For example, although sometimes there was a 10 percentage point difference between men and women, it was not statistically significant.

Discrimination and human capital differences explain some of the gender differences in entrepreneurial outcomes. Women business owners also often experience or perceive discrimination in lending practices and in dealings with corporate clients, a likely consequence of status beliefs (Bates 2002, Boden and Nucci 2001, Buttner and Rosen 1992, Coleman 2002, Fabowale, Orser, and Riding 1995, Orhan 2001). In addition to discrimination, women entrepreneurs often have lower achieved status than men. Sometimes, their absolute level of human capital is lower in that they have fewer years of education or experience (Bates 1995, 2002, Renzulli, Aldrich, and Moody 2000). Other times, they lack specific business human capital such has financial or managerial education and experience (Boden and Nucci 2000, Coleman 2002, Loscocco et al. 1991). Given that education and experience are important determinants of entrepreneurial outcomes, they are partial mediators of the relationship between gender and entrepreneurial outcomes. Researchers have also found gender differences in entrepreneurs' perceptions of their financial skills, with women perceiving deficits in these areas (Jones and Tullous 2002, Lerner and Almor 2002, Orhan 2001). In addition, women often report less self-confidence than men (Birley 1989, Scherer, Brodzinski, and Weibe 1990). These perceptions may result from internalized status expectations in which women underestimate their financial skills. Therefore, status beliefs resulting from actual or perceived human capital differences between men and women likely negatively influence the outcomes of women's startups.

Motherhood. Parenthood is an achieved status, but motherhood is a combination of ascribed and achieved because it combines parenthood and gender. Fatherhood and motherhood are associated with different behavioral expectations, presumed abilities and resources and therefore are different statuses. Motherhood is a significant status for both wage and salary workers and nascent entrepreneurs. Typically, individuals become parents during critical career-forming years (Rosenfeld 2002, 1996). Researchers have demonstrated that motherhood has a detrimental effect on women's labor market status. The reason for the negative effect is mothers' (compared to fathers') disproportionate amount of labor in the home: cooking, cleaning, and caring for children (Bittman and Wajcman 2000, Hochschilds 1989, Perkins and DeMeis 1996, Sanchez and Thomson 1997, Sayer 2005). Motherhood is associated with lower wages, called the "motherhood penalty" (Budig and England 2001), and fewer hours devoted to work (Kaufman and Uhlenberg 2000). Reduced hours can take the form of part-time work (Jacobs 1995, Kreckel and Schenk 2001, Rosenfeld 1996, Yeandle 2001) which has reduced training and managerial opportunities, in addition to lowered wages. Some mothers leave the labor force entirely for a period of time (Alon, Donahoe, and Tienda 2001; Bernhardt 1993, Clausen and Gilens 1990, Charles et al. 2001; Drobnic, Blossfeld, and Rohwer 1999; Hakim 1996, Kempeneers 1992, Wenk and Garrett 1992, Yoon and Waite 1994). Not all mothers experience a wage penalty, leave the labor force, or decrease their work intensity. Nevertheless, the status theories reviewed above suggest that motherhood will negatively influence women's status in employment or entrepreneurship, in spite of variations in actual behavior and situations, because of roles and status expectations.[10] Empirical generalizations about mothers, as well as less informed stereotypes about them (Kennelly 1999) inform people's expectations about them as potential entrepreneurs and therefore is an important status characteristic in the entrepreneurial context. Therefore,

[10] Presumably, those with depreciated human capital or work intensity will suffer more effects than those for whom motherhood has not changed their work behaviors.

mothers have lower status than non-mothers in the realm of entrepreneurship, with mothers of young children (under six) having lower status than mothers of older children because the are expected to be more family-involved and less work/entrepreneurship-involved than mothers of older children.

Motherhood can negatively influence entrepreneurial outcomes, despite the fact that entrepreneurship attracts some mothers as an alternative to wage and salary employment because of its flexibility and autonomy (Arai 2000, Carr 1996, DeMartino and Barbato 2003, Green and Cohen 1995, Jurik 1996). Motherhood can reduce women's labor market status and time available for startups. Further, mothers may experience role conflict because the roles associated with the entrepreneur status are perceived as incompatible with the roles associated with mother status. Roles associated with wife and/or mother may reduce the amount of time some women can devote to their startups. Women perform more housework than do men and the gender difference is magnified by marriage and parenthood (Hochschild 1989, Perkins and DeMeis 1996, Sanchez and Thomson 1997). Researchers have also found that women have less uninterrupted leisure time (Bittman and Wajcman 2000).

Entrepreneurship is time intensive: entrepreneurs often work more hours than employees (Reynolds and Renzulli 2005) and nascent entrepreneurs usually must devote one year of full-time work to launch operating businesses (Reynolds and White 1997). Many researchers find that mother entrepreneurs report difficulties managing the demands of their families and their businesses, with one thriving at the expense of the other (Aldrich and Cliff 2003, Buttner and Moore 1997, Cromie and Hayes 1998, Dhaliwal 2000, Jurik 1998, Lee-Gosselin and Grisé 1990, SiewKim, and Seowling 2001).

Overall, mother entrepreneurs have smaller and less successful businesses than nonmothers.

Race/Ethnicity. Race is an important characteristic by which individuals in the United States are stratified and resources are distributed. “Racial and ethnic categories are social constructions rather than natural entities”, meaning that they are socially but not biologically significant (Waters and Eschbach 1995:421). Historical factors such as slavery and Jim Crow segregation have lasting effects on African Americans and their status. Residential segregation (Harris 1999, Massey and Denton 1993) has a profound effect on educational and economic opportunities of minorities (see also Wilson 1996). For example, racial composition and residential segregation influence housing values, negatively influencing the wealth opportunities for blacks and Hispanics (Flippen 2004). Racial segregation within (tracking) and between schools can limit opportunities for individuals to form racially diverse networks, which can have lasting effects on their status attainment opportunities (Braddock and McPartland 1987, Mouw and Entwisle 2006, Stearns 2004). In fact, Mouw (2002) found that racially homogeneous social networks were in large part responsible for racially homogeneous work organizations. Opportunities for educationally disadvantaged minorities are further constrained by a job-skills mismatch in many available jobs for which they are qualified are located in areas far from where such minorities often live (Mouw 2000). Racial differences in incarceration rates, partially due to extra-legal factors in law enforcement and sentencing, and in educational achievement, with a variety of causes, contribute not only to economic inequalities but also to status notions regarding race and expected behaviors and capabilities (Orr 2003, Western 2002).

Despite expansion of civil rights and upward economic and educational mobility of African Americans, evidence suggests that race continues to be a significant status characteristic, influencing impressions regarding the capabilities of individuals from different ethnic groups. Sampson and Rossi (1975) found that people evaluating the status of families based on race, education, and occupations of both men and women found that race of the rater influenced evaluations and that both blacks and whites rated white families of otherwise equivalent education and occupation levels higher than black families. Gaertner and McLaughlin (1983) found that their small sample of white male college students had positive stereotypes about whites compared to blacks and associated blacks more with negative rather than positive stereotypes. Waters and Eschbach (1995) reviewed empirical evidence demonstrating racial discrimination in hiring practices. African Americans sometimes experience racial discrimination in everyday activities such as shopping and sometimes respond by using high-status dress as a defense mechanism, predicting that dressing too informally will attract negative attention (Lee 2000). This less overt discrimination, partially based on status expectations, negatively influences opportunities for minorities and immigrants to achieve favorable labor market statuses.

Farley (1997) studied changes in the status of African Americans. He showed that, between 1940 and 1995, whites became more receptive to integration and equal opportunities for African Americans; however, negative stereotypes regarding African Americans remain and limit the opportunities for African Americans in labor and housing markets as well as in gaining access to debt capital (250-251, 256-257).[11] An example of

[11] Farley argued the restricted access often occurred in the form of institutional discrimination, in which regulations effectively but not explicitly limit access to goods or services for a particular status group.

a stereotype was that whites in the General Social Survey (GSS) felt that blacks were more likely than whites to prefer welfare to self-sufficiency, a stereotype that would negatively influence the status of African Americans as entrepreneurs given the work intensity of entrepreneurship.

Like with African Americans, overt racism against Asians, Hispanics, and Native Americans has declined since the civil rights era and discrimination now occurs in more subtle forms. Research typically shows that Asians'[12] achievement is similar or superior to Caucasians, and Hispanics and African Americans experience lower results in both education and economic outcomes because of a variety of factors, including differential access to resources. These outcomes can influence status expectations regarding the expected behaviors and abilities of individuals as members of different ethnic groups. Hossfeld (1990) noted that employers often have stereotypes regarding the status of Asians and Hispanics, with the stereotypes favoring Asians, originating from status beliefs regarding differences in work intensity and intelligence (289). She noted that workers often used these stereotypes to gain small advantages in their working conditions, although the workers did not actively resist stereotypes and try to achieve status equality. Therefore, because of discrimination, Caucasians and Asians have higher status than persons of color/minorities such as African Americans, Native Americans, and Hispanics. Status expectations influence notions of how members of different ethnic groups will perform in entrepreneurial contexts.

[12] Asian is a diverse ethnic category (as are Hispanic, African American, Native American, or Caucasian). Country of origin significantly influences the achievement outcomes of Asians and Hispanics. The average education and income levels for Japanese Americans and immigrants are much higher than those for Hmong Americans and immigrants.

The effects of race on entrepreneurial outcomes are complex. Typically, researchers find that African Americans experience worse entrepreneurial outcomes than do whites (Butler 1999, Corsino and Soto, 2005; Robb 2002). Coleman (2004) found that although education accounted for racial and gender differences in access to financial capital for Asians, Hispanics, and white women compared to white men, it did not account for higher denial rates for black men. Further, she found that black men were significantly less likely apply for loans because they feared denial. Fairlie (2004, 2005) found that blacks have a much lower rate of self-employment than do other groups, although gains in education have narrowed the gap. African American entrepreneurs often experience discrimination (Feagin and Imani 1994, House-Soremekun 2002, Rasheed 2004). Oliver and Shapiro (1995) noted that slavery and Jim Crow segregation and other forms of discrimination have limited African American access to wealth, an entrepreneurial resource. Although ethnic, particularly immigrant entrepreneurs often earn less than native-born entrepreneurs, many earn high incomes through entrepreneurship (Portes and Zhou 1996). Some ethnic communities serve as incubators for entrepreneurship through rotating credit organizations (Aldrich and Waldinger 1990) and providing on-the-job training for future entrepreneurs (Tienda and Raijman 2004). There are also racial differences in industry composition (Bates 1995). Researchers have also found important gender and race interactions, such as African American women having better entrepreneurial outcomes than African American men (Robb 2002).

Age is a status that is highly associated with the achieved statuses of experience and income. However, age is considered an ascribed status to most because it cannot be manipulated voluntarily. The roles and expectations attached to age are likely products of age's association with human capital.[13] In other words, perhaps because income and experience tend to increase with age up to retirement, as well as hours worked (Tremblay 2001), older persons are expected to be more competent than younger persons, particularly with regard to work and entrepreneurship. Therefore, many have argued that young individuals have lower status and are particularly disadvantaged with regard to entrepreneurship (Fairlie 2005, Hipple 2004, Manser and Picot 1999, Williams 2004). Given the often curvilinear relationship between age and financial rewards, with financial rewards peaking in the 40s and 50s and then declining as age advances further, those of particularly advanced ages may have disadvantaged status with regard to entrepreneurship as well. Therefore, those of young and old ages have lower status than those of middle ages.[14]

In general, researchers have found that younger entrepreneurs have poorer entrepreneurial outcomes than do older workers (Williams 2004). They have argued that young entrepreneurs do not have the human, social, or financial capital that older entrepreneurs do and their capital deficits can undermine their efforts (Hipple 2004). Given status beliefs, those with high-status characteristics are perceived as more capable entrepreneurs and perhaps having more access to resources should experience advantages in entrepreneurial outcomes compared to those with low-status characteristics.

[13] Legal status is also affected by age. Legal status includes various age-based legal restrictions including drinking, smoking, voting, and driving, and legal age discrimination such as minimum wage exemptions or car rental and car insurance policies. Interestingly, acts that are illegal only when committed by minors are called "status offenses" (Jang and Thornberry 1998).
[14] Capturing this curvilinear relationship is often accomplished by introducing a quadratic (age-squared) variable into regression equations.

Measures of Entrepreneurial Outcomes

For stratification research, an important entrepreneurial outcome for nascent entrepreneurs is whether they actually launch operating businesses. Most nascent entrepreneurs fail to establish businesses, and thus the “established business” outcome is an important first determinant of entrepreneurial stratification, before considering factors such as revenues or employment size. I will include a more relaxed measure of entrepreneurial success, individuals who remain active in entrepreneurship. This measure includes those with established businesses and those who remain actively involved in pursuing business launch. Finally, I will include an indicator of whether nascent entrepreneurs abandoned their startups entirely.[15]

Hypothesis 1: Individuals with high-status characteristics will be more likely to establish operational businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startup activities than individuals with low status characteristics.

Many individuals start businesses on their own, but about half start businesses with others (Ruef et al 2003). For those on teams, their status characteristics will influence not only entrepreneurial outcomes but how they behave and are perceived within their teams. Status expectations research has demonstrated that status expectations affect which individuals are most likely to talk, share ideas, have the attention of others, whose ideas and contributions are more valued, and who is likely to be interrupted or ignored. In mixed gender groups or multiethnic groups, women and minorities are often perceived as less competent and thus judged more harshly than men, held to higher standards, interrupted and/or overlooked (de Gilder and Wilke 1990, Foschi 1996,

[15] I consider this measure to be an indicator of entrepreneurial participation in the way that labor force participation includes the employed and unemployed that are actively seeking employment.

Karakowsky, McBey, and Miller 2004; Okamoto and Smith-Lovin 2001, Robinson and Smith-Lovin 2001, Sell et al. 2004).

When teams start businesses, they must assemble a myriad of resources, many of which team members contribute themselves. These resources including financing, contacts, training, and physical materials. Not all resources are equally valued. As mentioned above, care work such as providing personal assistance is often held in lower esteem than other types of work or resources. Status expectations will influence which resources individuals will contribute, which resources individuals will be permitted by their teammates to contribute, and/or which resources their teammates will report them as contributing. For example, in a sex-heterogeneous team, the men will receive more deference, which will lead to greater opportunities to contribute resources within teams. In particular, if men are given more opportunities to speak in discussions, they should be credited more often with contributing ideas and information. Similarly, given status expectations, women in sex-heterogeneous teams will be more likely to be credited with contributing personal services. The same should hold for achieved status characteristics as well, with high-status individuals (professional or highly educated individuals) credited with contributing more resources (particularly ideas) and low-status individuals more likely contributing personal services.

In a way, I am turning Van der Vegt et al.'s (2006) research on its head. Their research elicited responses from all team members and asked the extent to which respondents helped other team members (self-reports only, no alter reports). They found that high-status (expert) members were more likely to be helped by respondents, particularly when respondents were high status (experts) themselves. They found that this helping was the result of commitment. In other words, respondents on teams with high status members are more committed and thus more willing to help their team members. They, in turn, argued that the most vulnerable, low-status team members were less likely to receive help but more likely to provide it. In this research, I am testing the extent to which status influences that values that respondents place on their members' contributions. Therefore, rather than simply considering respondents reports of what they contribute, I am also considering the extent to which they recognize the contributions of others.

Hypothesis 2: High-status individuals will be credited with more contributions to startup teams and will be more likely to be credited with contributing information, contacts, and training, whereas low-status individuals will be more likely to be credited with providing personal services.

Teams Characteristics, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

Because so many nascent entrepreneurs are members of teams, I want to understand how team characteristics influence the level of contributions of startup resources among members as well as the entrepreneurial outcomes of startup teams. I then want to understand how team characteristics and team contributions interact with individual status characteristics to influence entrepreneurial outcomes and therefore determine which individual/team combinations produce the most and least favorable entrepreneurial outcomes.

Scholars have debated the effectiveness of teams in both economic and educational contexts (see Devine et al. 1999, Vallas 2003, Wittenbaum et al. 2004). In theory, teams provide more human power, more ideas through sharing knowledge, more network connections, and more financial resources than do individuals (Aram and Morgan 1976, Foo, Ong, and Wong 2005, Olivera and Straus 2004). In an entrepreneurial context, teams may therefore provide some protection against selection forces. In ideal circumstances, team members work collaboratively, improving on and integrating each others' ideas to produce solutions, products, or services unlikely to be generated from any one member of a team (Allen, Sargent, and Bradley 2003). However, despite potential advantages, teamwork is sometimes associated with inefficiency, conflict, and mistrust on the one hand and groupthink and oversights on the other (Wittenbaum et al. 2004). Therefore, whether the solitary or collaborative approach to entrepreneurship is ideal is contested.

Potential Advantages of Team-based Entrepreneurship

Those pursuing the collaborative approach to entrepreneurship may expect one or several benefits or advantages compared to solitary entrepreneurship. They may expect team-based entrepreneurship to successfully combine their diverse abilities and perspectives, producing enhanced results (Lechler 2001). For example, individuals from diverse perspectives and talents can generate ideas and solutions unlikely to come from any one individual, also referred to as the integration and learning perspective (Ely and Thomas 2001). Second, individuals may form teams so that members can share startup burdens in order to manage them more effectively, such as alternating shifts or regions, or dividing clients among themselves in hopes of meeting demands of the startup as well as other responsibilities such as family, leisure, or wage and salary work. Similarly, teams may likewise provide some protection against the environment for new ventures so that team members can collectively devote more time to the business than one individual could physically do. Teams can then better respond to the demands from internal and external forces such as customers, regulators, and employees. Fourth, individuals may form teams so that individual members can specialize in different areas of the startups that best suit them. For example, one team member focuses on finances and product development and the other team member on marketing and personnel. This sort of distribution may occur unevenly with some partners being generalists while others are specialists or expert consultants.[16]

Fifth, entrepreneurs may form teams in hopes of pooling resources such as money and contacts, both of which are important for venture success (Aldrich 1999, Renzulli et al. 2000). A team has the possibility of a much larger network compared to a solo owner, especially if team members are not related. Teams may also be able to acquire more financial capital than individuals through their personal savings or assets, credit cards, or investors than could individuals starting businesses without teams. Such pooling of financial resources also may mean that members distribute financial risk among themselves rather than bearing the risk alone. Sixth and finally, individuals may also form teams for social, non-instrumental reasons such as wanting to work and spend time with friends, colleagues, or relatives.

Some evidence suggests teams can provide enhanced entrepreneurial outcomes. Stewart et al. (1999) found that team-based ventures enjoyed more success than other ventures (see also Foo et al. 2005). Reynolds and White (1997) found that team size was negatively associated with establishing a fledgling firm but positively associated with growth for those that did establish firms.

[16] However, Ruef et al. (2003) found that this was a relatively rare occurrence given that large teams were occupationally homogeneous.

Potential Disadvantages of Team-Based Entrepreneurship

Successfully combining the human, social, and financial capital of team members into business startups does not always occur and teamwork has several potential pitfalls. Team-based startups involve costs and risks that solo startups do not. Any sort of collaboration involves costs of coordination and delegation. Group process researchers have emphasized the importance of trust, communication, cohesion, and coordination (Baldwin, Bedell, and Johnson 1997; Caldwell and O'Reilly 2003, Carron et al. 2004, Chansler, Swamidass, and Cammann 2003; Edmondson, Bohmer, and Pisano 2001; Jehn and Mannix 2001, Talaulicar et al. 2005) The communication and information sharing required in conditions of high interdependence can make tasks more complex than if the same tasks were performed independently (Allen et al. 2003, Chatman et al 1998). Team members often need to coordinate to meet at particular times and places and therefore must work around team members' schedules. At meetings, team members may get off task discussing non-business matters (Chatman et al. 1998, Wheelan and Williams 2003). Team members must spend time reaching consensus on issues and ensuring their communication is effective and that they understand one another (Carron et al. 2003, 2004; Sinclair 2003). They must take time to resolve disagreements that emerge among team members (Hambrick et al. 1996, Iaquinto and Fredrickson 1997, Talaulicar et al. 2005). Researchers have found that consensus and agreement is important, but reaching decisions too quickly can stifle group creativity (Chirumbolo et al. 2005).

Team members must also decide how to divide labor efficiently. They must decide whether they will be generalists or specialists. If they are all generalists, there may be redundancy or inconsistency in how tasks are completed. If they are specialists, they must decide who is best at what and make sure they are coordinated, knowing what everyone else is doing. Uneven delegation (a mix of generalists and specialists) may lead to conflict if members feel they are being unfairly recognized or rewarded relative to their contributions (Sinclair 2003, Ruef 2003). Establishing roles influences team functioning, with role ambiguity producing negative results (Beauchamp et al. 2005, Bray and Brawley 2002, Clarysse and Moray 2004, Gershenoff and Foti 2003, Mason and Griffin 2003)

Team members must also build trust with one another for fear that they may lose their investments, time and money, to another's incompetence, malfeasance or loss of commitment to the startup endeavor (Halfhill et al. 2005, Shepherd and Krueger 2002). Malfeasance in a variety of forms is possible. Individuals in teams sometimes, though infrequently, free-ride and do not do their share of the work (Erez and Somech 1996). Individuals can improperly take money for personal use, or leave the startup to become a competitor, taking away potential clients or novel ideas. Several studies have contrasted *cooperation* in which individuals work for collective goals, with *exploitation,* in which individuals work for individual gain at expense of team goals and other team members (Arrow and Crosson 2003, Sinclair 2003). Alternatively, team members may abandon the startup and their team members because they become disinterested in the business, dissatisfied with its progress, decide that it uses too much of their time/money, or become overwhelmed with other responsibilities or interests. Such member attrition can be difficult for team members who have lost the labor, contacts, financial resources, and tacit knowledge of the departing member(s).[17] Trust is also important given the

[17] However, Chandler et al. (2005) found departures can be helpful in certain stages of venture development and in certain environments (see also Keck 1997).

uncertainty of business startups. If individuals trust one another, they can rely on informal agreements rather than contracts which may help their flexibility should they need to change direction in their startup (Francis and Sandberg 2000). Trust in virtual environments has been a particular concern for researchers (Adams et al. 2005, Aubert and Kelsey 2003, Salanova et al. 2003). Therefore, the potential advantages of team-based entrepreneurship are tempered by issues of coordination and conflict.

Team Resources and Team Processes

Whether teams enhance or detract from entrepreneurial outcomes depends on the teams themselves as well as environmental factors. Teams may provide advantages in some circumstances, but not others, depending on environmental conditions (Ancona 1990, Henningsen and Henningson 2003, Keck 1997). Within the teams, whether teams enhance or detract from entrepreneurial outcomes is likely contingent on available *resources* based on team composition, and team functioning--also referred to as group *processes*. A rigid interpretation of the resource perspective is that teams are merely the sums of their individual team members' characteristics and attributes. Following this interpretation, teams with the most resources (such as size, human capital, financial capital, and social capital) and therefore those most likely to achieve business launch and least likely to experience startup discontinuance would be those with high average status, diversity, and weak ties.

However, teams are not simply collections of resources; resources must be activated, coordinated, and managed (Faraj and Sproull 2000). Resources will be best utilized when team members readily make contributions. Processes focus on communication, coordination, and trust rather than characteristics of individual members.

The process perspective emphasizes information exchange and collective efficacy, the extent to which teams establish group norms and have confidence in the teams' abilities to accomplish goals (Bray 2004, Caldwell and O'Reilly 2003, Eby and Dobbins 1997, English, Griffith, and Steelman 2004; Halfhill et al. 2005; Katz-Navon and Erez 2005; Molleman, Nauta, and Jehn 2004; Schei and Rognes 2005, Shepherd and Krueger 2002, Smith et al. 1994, Whiteoak, Chalip, and Hort 2004). Ample evidence suggests that status expectations influence team processes that may limit the ability of diverse and/or weak tie teams to mobilize resources effectively. From this perspective, teams that are homogeneous with close ties should have higher functioning group processes and, as a result, higher chances of business launch and lower chances of startup abandonment.

Processes and resources may also interact in which teams with the most resources (high status, diverse, and weak ties) achieve favorable outcomes to the extent that they are able to overcome status expectations and have high levels of team functioning. Therefore, my analysis seeks to provide insight to the relative importance of group resources and group processes in startup teams. If weak tie and diverse teams are most likely to launch operational businesses and least likely to abandon startup activities, then the resource perspective is supported. If close tie and homogeneous teams are most likely to launch operational businesses and least likely to abandon startup activities, then the group processes perspective is supported. If weak tie and diverse teams are more likely to achieve business launch and less likely to abandon startup activities only to the extent that team members provide contributions (or that weak tie and diverse teams' negative effects on business launch and positive effect on startup abandonment are weakened to the extent that members contribute resources) then the results will suggest that both group processes and group resources influence entrepreneurial outcomes.

To summarize, research suggests that the team-based approach could either produce enhanced or diminished entrepreneurial outcomes. Aubert and Kelsey (2003) contrasted process gains and process losses. Process gains are cases in which individuals gain from team-based work whereas process losses are cases in which individuals would have performed better had they completed the task individually (see also Erez and Somech 1996). I argue that whether team-based entrepreneurship results in process gains or process losses depends how well teams can mobilize their available resources, which I argue is contingent on the on the status and relational composition of team members.

Resource contributions may be a proxy for how well a team works together to achieve a common goal, such as starting a business. Chatman and Flynn (2001) found that cooperative norms are important to group outcomes. If team members do not provide contributions to the startups, they likely either lack the resources necessary to start businesses or are unwilling to invest their own resources in the business because of a lack of confidence in the team or the startup endeavor. Certain resources must be mobilized to set up an established business. Therefore, resource contributions should be positively associated with establishing operational businesses because they reflect of how well the team is functioning as well as because gathering resources are necessary for establishing businesses.

Hypothesis 3: As the level of resource contributions increases among team members, the odds of establishing operational businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active increase and the odds of abandoning startup activities decrease.

Team Status

With regard to status, the resource perspective suggests that teams composed of high- status members should be more able to mobilize their status into higher levels of resource contributions and beneficial entrepreneurial outcomes than teams with low-status members. Teams with high-status members are more likely to be perceived as legitimate entrepreneurs, according to status beliefs. Such status beliefs will be influential in relations with people outside the startup such as clients, customers, lenders or investors. They have, or are believed to have, more resources at their disposal which should help them establish their businesses, similarly to how high-status *individuals* have been shown to have more favorable outcomes than low-status individuals. Because high-status members should have more resources at their disposal, they should also contribute more resources.

Hypothesis 4: The higher the level of status among team members, the higher the level of resource contributions.

This potential status advantage in resource contributions and entrepreneurial outcomes can take one of two forms. First, *average status* characteristics of the team will influence resource contributions and entrepreneurial outcomes. Van der Vegt et al. (2006) found that teams with high levels of overall expertness had higher levels of helping and also higher performance. In particular, they found that the relationship between alters' level of expertise and respondents' helping and commitment were affected by the expertise of the respondent. Expert respondents had higher commitments to teams with high status members and provided more interpersonal helping to teams with high status members than did low expertise respondents.

Hypothesis 4a: The average status of team members will be positively related to the level of resource contributions within teams.

Hypothesis 5a: The average status of team members will be positively related to establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and negatively related to abandoning startups.

Alternatively, status may have a threshold effect in which team only need to have one member of a high-status category (such as a man, a Caucasian, or a professional) to influence entrepreneurial outcomes. In such instances, one high-status person is required but additional high-status members are of little consequence.

Hypothesis 4b: Teams with at least one member of a high-status characteristic will be positively associated with the level of resource contributions within teams.

Hypothesis 5b: Teams with at least one member of a high-status characteristic will increase odds of establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and decrease odds of abandoning startups.

When teams have both favorable access to resources through their high status and high team functioning through resource contributions, they should be most likely to establish businesses and least likely to abandon startup activities.

Hypothesis 5c: High-status teams will have increased odds of establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and decreased odds of abandoning startups to the extent that team members contribute resources.

Team Diversity

Group diversity is a popular topic to organization and management theorists as well as sociologists and psychologists. Theoretically, group diversity piques the interest of scholars because it provides the potential for improved learning via the integration of varied perspectives and talents (Ely and Thomas 2001). Yet empirically, group diversity often produces conflict and disruption in the form of high turnover (Milliken and Martins 1996, Ucbasaran et al. 2003). Homogeneity, or lack of diversity, has been noted in work organizations, informal networks, voluntary associations, neighborhoods, and schools (Kanter 1977, Massey and Denton 1993, McPherson and Smith-Lovin 1986, 1987; Stearns 2004). Diversity also has normative importance to some scholars because demonstrating that diverse groups are successful, or demonstrating how diverse groups can achieve favorable results, has important consequences for advancement opportunities of those underrepresented in positions of authority, such as women and minorities (Jehn et al. 1999).

Some research demonstrates that diverse groups can produce enhanced outcomes in both entrepreneurial and non-entrepreneurial contexts (for example, see Hambrick, Cho, and Chen 1996). Diverse groups can have enhanced outcomes because their diversity and tolerance for discussion allows for more innovation whereas homogeneous groups not only have fewer raw materials to work with (in terms of new ideas) but also have strong norms of conformity that discourage dissent (Ruef 2002).

Nevertheless, a lack of trust and irrational behavior resulting from status expectations may undermine the effective activation of raw materials in diverse teams. Diverse teams have many challenges (Barsade and Ward 2000, Chatman and Flynn 2001, Cohen and Zhou 1991, Devine et al. 1999, Eby and Dobbins 1997, Hambrick, Cho, and Chen 1996; Foschi 1996, Jehn, Northcraft, and Neale 1999; Kilduff, Angelmar, and Mehra 2000; Smith, et al. 1994, Van der Vegt et al. 2006). First, diverse groups may have so many different perspectives that they have difficulty making decisions (Clarysse and Moray 2004). Second, if members of diverse groups have stereotypes about members who are different from them and low levels of trust and understanding, they may be hesitant to share information and thus are unable to capitalize on their enhanced resources. For example, Flynn, Chatman, and Spataro (2001) found that in groups of demographically diverse individuals, a variety of conditions must be met for such groups to share information and thus produce beneficial results. These conditions were equal status,[18] self-revealing interactions, egalitarian norms, cooperative interdependence, and extroverted and self-monitoring personalities. If group members do not trust one another, they are hesitant to contribute ideas or other resources if they feel those ideas will not be appreciated on one hand or will be exploited on the other. At the same time, these authors argued that diversity itself was not the cause of group functioning problems but was the result of status-based impressions members made about one another. Homogeneous groups often have more cohesion and satisfaction, leading to enhanced commitment and effort and less absenteeism (Sanders and Nauta 2004).

Diversity's effects on resource contributions and startup outcomes may be contingent on the nature of the diversity. Foo et al. (2005) found that some types of diversity, such as education, were positively associated with performance evaluations of the presentation of business plans of startup teams whereas others (age and employment status) were negatively associated with performance evaluations. Jehn et al. (1999) found that sex and age diversity and information diversity improved performance but attitude diversity negatively influenced performance, contingent on the nature of the tasks.

[18] Here, equal status refers to status from the perspective of the group, not in terms of the ascribed and achieved characteristics discussed above.

Therefore, I will examine the influence of different types of ascribed and achieved status diversity on resource contributions.

Hypothesis 6: Teams with status diversity will have lower levels of contributions to the startup than teams with status homogeneity.

High-status team members provide potential for entrepreneurial gains, but conflict from team diversity may undermine the potential advantages. Diverse teams may not only be reluctant to contribute resources due to lack of trust, but they may have difficulty reaching decisions or establishing organizational routines. Therefore, diverse teams may have difficulty converting their potential resources, such as of unique perspectives and experiences and wide ranging networks, and thus either abandon their startups or have difficulty with business launch.

Hypothesis 7: Teams with high levels of status diversity among members will be less likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and more likely to abandon businesses.

However, when members of diverse teams do contribute resources, they may be able to capitalize on the potential advantages team diversity provides and convert those advantages into beneficial entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 7a: The negative effect of status diversity on entrepreneurial outcomes will be reduced to the extent that team members contribute resources to the startup.

Team Relationships

Whether team members are spouses, kin, friends, work associates, or strangers would likely affect resource contributions to the startups. Like with diversity, teams composed of weak ties such as strangers should have the most potential resources from which to draw, not only because information is likely to be shared among close ties but also because close ties are likely to be homogeneous with regard to race and achieved characteristics such as education and occupation (Ruef et al. 2003, see also Kalmijn 1991, 1994). Additionally, kin teams would have more network overlaps and thus fewer novel contacts whereas stranger teams should also have fewer network overlaps. This reasoning is similar to the strength of weak ties argument, which argues that important assistance such as finding jobs often comes from casual, weak-tie relationships rather than close relationships and thus those who desire to network strategically should focus on developing and maintaining numerous, diverse weak-tie relationships rather than having a close-knit social circle of relationships (Granovetter 1974).

However, status expectations and lack of trust may suppress team members' contributions of such resources. Close relationships have more trust and often have similarity of personality and therefore tend to contribute more resources. Previous research has suggested that groups or teams with close ties produce more information sharing and communication (Aubert and Kelsey 2003, Barsade et al. 2000, Kilduff et al. 2000). McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook (2001) referred to value homophily as the preference to interact with persons of similar values, beliefs, attitudes, or abilities. In fact, some suggest that the importance of trust, group norms, and affective similarity overshadow the effects of demographic similarity of diversity, meaning that demographically (or status) diverse teams are more likely to be successful if there is affective similarity, in other words, similar personalities and dispositions (Barsade and Ward 2000). Therefore, kin, spouse, work associate, and friend teams should have enhanced communication, trust, and coordination than stranger teams (Aubert and Kelsey 2003, Baldwin, Bedell, and Johnson 1997; Francis and Sandberg 2000, Hare 2003). Ruef (2003) found that relations among startup team members influenced group level equality and individual level ownership stakes with spouse and kin ties having greater equality and greater ownership share. On average, teams with close ties should have more resource contributions given that these teams have affective similarity, cohesion, and trust compared to stranger teams.

Hypothesis 8: Teams with weak relationships (such as strangers) will have lower levels of contributions than teams with strong relationships.

Close tie teams and weak tie teams may each be uniquely positioned to contribute particular types of resources. Close tie teams should be more likely to have contributions of personal services and emotional support. A particular type of close tie team that warrants further examination is the spouse team. Spouse teams are the most common type of entrepreneurial team. Researchers have found that spouse teams often involve gender traditional roles and specialization by sex (SiewKim and Seowling 2001, Marshack 1994, Smith 2000). Some researchers call spouse teams “copreneurial” teams. Caputo and Dolinsky (1998) found that families have an important effect on whether women pursue entrepreneurship. Spouse teams should be more likely to contribute personal assistance, particularly on the part of women, compared to other teams. With regard to stranger teams, given that weak tie teams should have less in common than strong tie teams, including shared knowledge and shared contacts, teams with weak ties should be more likely to contribute information, ideas, and contacts.

Hypothesis 9: Close relationships will be more likely to offer personal services whereas weak ties will be more likely to offer information and contacts.

In addition, teams composed of different types of relationships: those containing both spouse and work associate or stranger for example, would produce affective diversity, which would negatively affect team processes such as resource contributions.

Hypothesis 10: Having multiple relationships among team members will lower levels of resource contributions among team members.

A great deal of research has been devoted to family businesses based on blood relations or spousal relations. Although rarely credited with innovation or employment growth, family businesses are important contributors to employment, income, and wealth (Heck and Stafford 1999). Further, family businesses often have favorable entrepreneurial outcomes. Heck and Stafford (1999) found that human capital (achieved status) did not significantly influence revenues but that each family member employee did significantly increase gross revenues. Upton and Heck (1997) found that family businesses have better performance because there is more consensus (unified vision) and lower agency costs. That is, although family conflicts may infect startup activities, the generally high levels of trust among family members will lead to more consensus which will enable decision making.

Hypothesis 11: Teams with close relationships will be more likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startups than teams with weak relationships.

Hypothesis 12: Teams with more than one type of relationship will be less likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and more likely to abandon startups than teams with only one type of relationship.

However, following the strength of weak ties argument, weak tie teams that are able to trust members and contribute resources will be able to mobilize their diverse resources into favorable entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 11a: The effect of tie strength on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened to the extent that resources are contributed.

Hypothesis 12a: The effect of having more than one type of relationship on a startup team on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened to the extent that resources are contributed.

Teams' Moderating Effects on Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

If certain teams produce more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than solo startups, then teams may lessen the impacts of individual status on outcomes. Perhaps the effects of one individual's status on entrepreneurial outcomes are simply diluted by the status of the other members. In such a situation, one individual's status would be half as consequential in a two-person team and one-fourth as consequential in a four-person team compared to a solo entrepreneur. In this case, the average status or the maximum status of team members will be instrumental in influencing startup outcomes (refer to hypotheses regarding team status, 4-5). High-status individuals will be disadvantaged through memberships in diverse teams and low-status persons could only enhance their outcomes through partnerships with high-status persons. Similarly, high-status individuals with abundant resources would not need to turn to weak ties or strangers in order to find resources and therefore would benefit more from strong-tie than weak-tie teams. By contrast, low-status individuals would perhaps be more advantaged working with diverse and weak-tie teams.

Under certain conditions, teams can produce what are called process gains, in which teams work more effectively than individuals, overcoming status limitations of individual team members. In this instance, team status will not be as deterministic. Rather than a team simply consisting of the sum or the average of the members' statuses, teams would produce more than the sums of their parts. That is, through collaboration, they can generate superior ideas, products, services, or solutions than could the members acting individually or independently side by side. They would evaluate ideas from multiple perspectives and revise and improve them. The effects of teams on the relationship between individual status and entrepreneurial outcomes will contingent on how well the team functions and contributes resources.

Hypothesis 13: The effect of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened when nascent entrepreneurs are on teams.

Hypothesis 13a: The level of resource contributions will lessen the effect of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes.

Conclusion

Status is an important stratification mechanism. For nascent entrepreneurs, status has been shown to influence entrepreneurial outcomes. I argue that status characteristics also likely influence contributions among team members, which should in turn influence whether teams can turn their startups into operational businesses or alternatively leave nascent entrepreneurship. In addition to individual status's influences on resource contributions and entrepreneurial outcomes, I argue that the status and relational composition of startup teams will influence both outcomes of interest. Under a particular set of circumstances, teams can mediate the influence of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes. That is, the effects of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened in particular team configurations.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I discuss the data and methods used to test my hypotheses regarding status, teams, and entrepreneurial outcomes. I first discuss the data collection methods used in the PSED and the rationale behind them. I then discuss the operationalization of my concepts and the methods used to create variables in the analysis. I then include a brief discussion of descriptive statistics of the variables of interest by gender and by the closeness of relationships among team members for those respondents on teams. I then review the regression methods used and finally discuss diagnostics for particular statistical problems and their remedies.

Data

To answer my research questions, I used data from the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED-I). The principal investigators for the PSED-I aimed to create a nationally representative sample of nascent entrepreneurs and a comparison group. They used random digit dialing and a screening questionnaire to determine if individuals were actively involved in starting businesses. Those with established businesses were excluded from the sample, defined as individuals with three or more months of positive cashflow generated through their ventures (see Appendix A, page 461 in Gartner et al. 2004). A comparison group included individuals who were not actively starting a business. Because of the interest in the influence of race and gender on entrepreneurial experiences and processes, women and minorities were oversampled to ensure adequate representation. If not for this oversampling, the random digit dialing would have not generated sufficient numbers of women and minorities because women are underrepresented in the entrepreneurial population and racial minorities are underrepresented in the general population. Weights were calculated so that, when applied, the data are nationally representative of individuals starting businesses (Shaver 2006).

The study consists of four waves, the first conducted between 1998 and 2000. In each wave, respondents were asked to complete both phone interviews and mail questionnaires; the response rates were higher for the phone interview than the mail questionnaire. For the first wave, there are 830 nascent entrepreneurs at 431 comparison group respondents (1261 total). Some are eliminated because they are improperly classified nascent entrepreneurs in the comparison group sample or operators of existing businesses in the nascent entrepreneur sample. At 12, 24, and 36 months, respondents were asked to complete follow-up interviews and questionnaires. My analyses will only focus on the nascent entrepreneurs, 830 respondents. After cleaning, there are 817 nascent entrepreneurs in wave 1: 715 independent and 102 partial nascent entrepreneurs (for whom part of the business will be owned by an existing organization).

Measures

From the mail questionnaires and phone interviews, respondents were asked to provide detailed information about themselves and their startups. From this information, I was able to construct several measures of status, teams, and entrepreneurial outcomes.

Status

First, I measure achieved or labor force status by considering occupational characteristics, employment history and experience, and level of education. Respondents were asked to give their occupation, which was coded according to 1990 Standard Occupational Classifications (SOC) generated by the United States Census. I assigned SEI Scores (Nakao and Treas 1994) which originated from the 1989 General Social Survey to measure occupational SEI.[1] In addition, I used IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series) census information to assign sex composition to occupations to determine whether respondents' occupations are mixed gender, male-typed, or female-typed. I coded occupations with fewer than 35 percent women male-typed, occupations with between 35 and 65 percent women mixed-gender, and occupations with more than 65 percent women female-typed. With regard to labor force attachment, respondents were asked about the major activities they were involved in 12 years prior to the interview (1987 to 1998). These include full- and part-time wage and salary work, education, and self-employment; volunteer work, homemaking, unemployment, disability, discouraged worker, and retirement. From this information, I constructed measurements regarding their labor force status such as whether they have been unemployed or otherwise out of the labor force and whether they have been out of the full-time labor force. My definitions of out of labor force or out of full-time labor force should not be confused by those of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For the Bureau of Labor Statistics, labor force participation includes the employed and unemployed and excludes students. My definition excludes unemployed and includes entrepreneurs and students. Individuals reporting that they were not engaged in employment, self-employment, or studies in any

[1] Although there is some discrepancy between the 1980 and 1990 Standard Occupation Classifications (SOCs), Nakao and Treas (1994) provided information that shows which occupations have been reclassified to enable me to assign occupational SEI scores accurately.

one year were coded as a 1 for ever being out of the labor force, and zero otherwise. Individuals reporting that they were not engaged in *full-time* employment, self-employment, or studies in any one year were coded as a 1 for ever being out of the full-time labor force and zero otherwise. Respondents indicated the highest level of education obtained (up to eighth grade, some high school, high school graduate, technical degree, some college, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, some graduate work, master's degree, doctorate degree). From this information, I created an indicator variable for whether they had completed at least a bachelor's degree. Further, respondents were asked in the mail questionnaire how many courses and how many years of work experience they had in the following business areas: sales/marketing management, accounting/financial control, production/plant management, personnel/human resource management, transportation/distribution/inventory management, financial and capital management, technological and innovation management, mathematics, and economics. I created measures for how many areas respondents had education and experience in and also separate indicator variables for whether they had financial and accounting experience and education. Because the mathematics and economics courses could be relatively elementary (high school or lower) I excluded these categories from the measures of business education and experience. Respondents also provided the years of managerial and industry experience, which I logged given the likely diminishing returns of each. In addition, respondents provided the number of startups they had been involved with prior to the interview. I simply created an indicator for whether respondents had any prior startup experience. These measures should provide abundant information regarding respondents' labor market status.

A variety of individual characteristics often labeled as demographic characteristics also reflect status, specifically ascribed status. Age is another important status because of age norms, networks, and labor force experience (Lawrence 1988, Riley 1987, Settersten and Mayer 1997). Respondents were asked to give the year of their birth, which I subtracted from the year of the wave 1 interview to generate their age. I also introduced an age-squared term because status often initially rises with age and then begins to fall again with later ages. Respondents were asked their race/ethnicity and gender. I created an indicator variable for whether a respondent was African American or Hispanic and whether a respondent was a woman. Each of these important statuses likely affects entrepreneurial outcomes and startup contributions within resource teams.

Respondents indicated the number of persons in their household who were under the age of 18 and also provided the number of persons in their household under 6. Through these measures, I was able to create an indicator variable for parent and also a measure of the number of children in the household under 6. Importantly, individuals with no children in their home but who have either adult or young children living elsewhere or will be coded the same as those who have never had children. Rather than creating separate variables for "mother" and "mother of young children" I simply run analyses separately for men and women to determine if parenthood and particularly parenting young children have differing effects on men and women.

*Team*s

Respondents were asked if they would own their business by themselves or with someone else. Those who responded "with someone else" are members of teams. For respondents on startup teams, I measure the status composition, diversity, and relational composition of teams.

Respondents provided information regarding the status characteristics of their team members. They were asked about their occupations, their years of experience in the industry and their startup experience, their genders, ages, and racial/ethnic background. Therefore, I created status composition measures of teams for average status, maximum status, and status diversity. For average status, I calculated means for the continuous status characteristics of age, occupational SEI, and the log of years of industry experience. For the indicator characteristics of race, gender, startup experience and female-typed occupation, I calculated the proportion of team members having the particular characteristic. To calculate proportions, I needed to generate a team size variable. The variable in the packaged dataset is based on the number of team members for whom respondents provide their gender. In the vast majority of cases, this is an accurate measure. However, once I calculated the proportion measures such as the proportion of individuals with startup experience or a female-typed occupation, I found that on a few occasions, respondents gave responses to those inquiries but not gender, resulting in proportions greater than one. Therefore, I created a new size variable which was the maximum number of non-missing responses for any of the status characteristics. I also used this team size measure as a control. For maximum status, I used the maximum status for continuous variables and an indicator for whether a team had at least one person with a high-status indicator characteristic (male, startup experience, Caucasian, male-typed occupation). The measurement of diversity measures differed for continuous and indicator variables as well. I calculated ranges for continuous status characteristics and used indicators of whether diversity was present or absent for indicator characteristics.

Respondents were also asked how they knew their team members, allowing me to construct measures of relational composition. Ruef et al. (2003) noted that relations strongly influenced the racial and gender composition of teams, with spouse teams likely to be opposite sex and kin teams likely to be racially homogeneous. Ruef (2003) created a measure of tie strength which he found to significantly influence ownership distributions within startup teams of the PSED. In this measure, kin and spouse teams are scored as 3, friend and colleague ties are scored as 2, and stranger teams are scored as 1.[2] Because teams can have more than one relationship type (such as a three person team in which one person is a coworker with the respondent and the other is the spouse), I scored the closest relationship present in the team. I also included an indicator for whether a team had more than one relationship type.

Startup Contributions

In the next chapter, I present my analyses regarding startup contributions within teams, which is a proxy for individual-level power and team level functioning. This analysis will test hypotheses 2, 4, 6, 8-10. Respondents were not asked how often or how well their team cooperated, communicated, or trusted one another. They were not asked how roles or responsibilities were distributed among team members. However, respondents were asked if their team members provided various types assistance to one another. For each team member (including the respondent), respondents were asked if the team member provided the following types of assistance to the startup: introductions to

[2] Rather than simply coding the relationships as 1-3, Ruef then used these scores in a more complex formula measuring the Bonacich measure of eigenvector centralization (17). However, I simply code the relationships using the 1-3 scale.

important persons, information or advice, training, access to financial assistance, physical resources, business services, personal services, or other assistance. Then, respondents were asked to choose which, if any, was most important.

Hypothesis 2 focused on how the status characteristics of the individual team members will influence how many contributions they gave and what sorts of assistance they gave.[3] For this analysis, respondents' team members are counted as observations. Because respondents did not give details regarding their team members' parental status, labor force attachment, or education, I will focus on the following status characteristics: gender, race, age, occupational SEI, occupational sex typing, startup experience, and industry experience to determine which, if any, significantly influence the number and type of contributions made. The individual resource contributions I focus on are introductions, information, training, and personal services. This analysis includes the respondents who said they were members of teams and provided valid responses for the measures under analysis (317 out of 411) plus their team members, for a total of 717.

Hypotheses 4, 6, 8-10 concern the relationship between the composition of the startup team and the nature of startup contributions by team members. Hypothesis 4 concerns average and maximum status, hypothesis 6 concerns diversity, and hypotheses 8-10 concerns relationships among team members. For this analysis, the unit of observation is the team and therefore I only included the 318 respondents who said they were members of teams and provided valid responses for the measures included in the models. The measures I constructed are the number of different types of assistance

[3] Given that these answers are from the perspective of respondents, I am actually measuring how many and what kinds of assistance team members are recognized and credited with contributing by the respondents. Team members may give assistance that is not recognized or alternatively may not give assistance and yet receive credit for such contributions.

contributed, the average number of assistance contributions per team member, whether a team member provided any introductions and contacts and as a most important contribution, information as a most important contribution,[4] any training and as a most important contribution, and any personal services and as a most important contribution.

Entrepreneurial Outcomes

Hypotheses 1, 3, 5, 7, and 11-13 concern entrepreneurial outcomes. To measure entrepreneurial outcomes, I consider the conditions of startups twelve months after the initial interview. Respondents were asked to describe their startup as either an operational business, still an active startup, an inactive startup, or an abandoned startup. This measure is a perception-based measure from the perspective of the respondent rather than the definition used in the initial screening of an infant business, one that had three positive months of cash flow. Using this four category response, I run logistic regression on three dependent variables. First, I run analysis on whether respondent abandoned startup activities altogether. Then, I run analysis on whether respondents established operational businesses. Finally, I run analysis on whether respondents are either still actively involved in their startups or established operational businesses. This final measure could be considered entrepreneurial participation in that, as *labor force participation* includes those working and those looking for work, *entrepreneurial participation* includes those operating businesses and those seeking to operate businesses.

Because the minority oversample was initially collected later than the other subsamples, their 12 month follow up interview dates correspond more closely to the 24 month follow-up interviews of the other subsamples. For this reason, in the original data

[4] Because virtually all respondents on teams had at least one member contribute any information, multivariate analysis on this variable was not possible.

packaging, there are no 12 month follow-up responses for the minority oversample because their responses are included in the 24 month follow-up. Because I am more interested in entrepreneurial outcomes 12 months after the initial interview rather than period effects, I use the responses from the “24 month follow-up” for the minority oversample.

Interaction Effects

I hypothesized several interaction effects between individual status, teams, team composition, and group processes influencing entrepreneurial outcomes. Rather than constructing several interaction terms to test these hypotheses, I run regressions separately for team members and non-team members and for those on team members with high levels of contributions and those not on teams with high levels of contributions. I constructed an indicator variable for the level of contributions provided by first examining the distribution of the average number of resources provided per team member. I found that the median number of assistance types provided is 3.875. Therefore, I coded solo entrepreneurs and those on teams with average contributions less than 4 as 0 and those on teams with average resource contributions 4 or greater as 1.

Controls

I control for the log of dollars and hours devoted to the startup. Respondents were asked to estimate how much money and time they had devoted to starting their business at the initial interview. These are important resources for businesses and my analyses test the effects of status and teams on entrepreneurial outcomes net of financial capital and time invested in startups. I also controlled for respondent’s household income and net worth, in 10,000s of dollars and whether respondents were home owners or not.

Respondents were asked to provide their household incomes and net worths, but not all were comfortable doing so. For those who initially refused to respond to these questions, they were asked to answer whether their incomes and net worths were above or below certain thresholds to allow for the most precise level of information possible. Their answers to the income and wealth range questions were used to calculate approximate values. For a detailed discussion of the decision rules for creating these variables, see Kim, Aldrich, and Keister (2004). These measures control for financial resources available to respondents. I also control for industry and technology. First, I created a dummy variable for whether a respondent's startup was a service or retail business. These are the most popular types of startups and often (although not always) require less capital than startups in manufacturing or wholesale trade, for example. I also controlled for industry-related risk by assigning the one year industry failure rates according to the 1992 Economic Census Characteristics of Business Owners (U.S. Department of Commerce 1997). In addition, I controlled for the level of technology and innovation associated with the respondents' startups. Respondents were asked whether their product or service was available five years ago (0) or not (1). They were also asked if they would be devoting a substantial amount of resources to research and development (1) or not (0) Finally, they were asked if they considered their startup a high tech startup (1) or not (0). I summed these three responses and divided by three to create an index of innovation and technology (Allen and Stearns 2004). I also controlled for whether their business startup was home-based or not. Finally, I controlled for regional differences by introducing an indicator for south.

Descriptive Statistics

In Table 3.1, I show the weighted means and standard deviations for the variables used in the analysis to test hypothesis 2, that team members with high status will be credited with more resources (with the exception of personal services). As I do in the regression analysis in the next chapter, I show the statistics for all team members (respondents and their alters), and then separate alters from respondents, alters of male respondents from alters of female respondents, and finally male and female respondents. The descriptive statistics in this table reveal some interesting findings. First, men have more women on their teams than do women, which is not surprising given that approximately half of startup teams in the PSED are spouse teams. Secondly, over 40 percent of team members have had experience with a startup prior to the one asked about in the PSED. Third, respondents credit themselves with providing slightly more assistance types than they do their alters. The only instances in which respondents were more likely to credit their alters than themselves with providing assistance in training for women and personal services for men. Given that so many teams are spouse teams, this suggests some evidence of status expectations that men in spouse teams are providing more training whereas women in spouse teams are providing more personal assistance. In addition, those two assistance types have the largest differences between men and women.

Table 3.2 displays the weighted means and standard deviations for the variables used to test the remainder of the hypotheses in chapter 4, testing how team status composition and relational composition influence the contributions of assistance by teams. These means and standard deviations are with the respondent rather than the team member as the unit of observation. I show means and standard deviations for men and women combined and separately and note several gender differences. First, women respondents have substantially less industry experience than do men (as is the case in Table 3.1). The statistical software package STATA does not permit t-tests to determine if means of weighted data are significantly different from one another, but the difference is substantial. When the means are exponentiated to restore the unlogged value, the difference is almost 1 year of industry experience. Men and women also differ in their occupations, with women having an average occupational SEI nearly ten points lower than men's and women much more likely to be located in occupations with at least 65 percent women. Women's teams are more likely to be sex diverse than men, not surprising given the underrepresentation of women in entrepreneurship. Men's teams have are more likely to have more than one ethnicity represented. Men have invested more dollars than have women, on average. Men's businesses are more high-tech that women's businesses, women's businesses are more likely to be in services or retail. Men have higher net worth but lower income than women. However, there are several similarities between men and women respondents who are nascent entrepreneurs and members of teams.

Table 3.3 shows the weighted means and standard deviations for the variables used in the analysis for chapter 4 (except for hypothesis 2) according to strength of ties in teams. I included "no teams" in this table although solitary nascent entrepreneurs are excluded from the analyses in chapter 4 to avoid providing additional tables. All of the team characteristics are missing for those not on teams. Note that very few teams have "stranger", someone respondents did not know each other before the startup, as the closest relationship and therefore these means and standard deviations should be considered lightly given the small number of cases. Several findings are worth noting. First, men are more likely to be in stranger and associate/friend teams and women are more likely to be in kin and spouse teams or on no teams. Second, there are no African Americans or Hispanics in stranger teams. Stranger teams have the most amount of industry experience and kin and spouse team respondents have the least amount of industry experience. The same is true for startup experience and occupational SEI, and occupational sex composition, with stranger teams having the highest status respondents and kin/spouse teams having the lowest, and these status differences also hold true for most average and maximum status characteristics. Stranger teams are also larger than other teams. Stranger teams are the least likely to be sex diverse whereas kin and spouse teams are most often sex diverse. Stranger teams have the lowest occupational SEI diversity and kin/spouse teams have the highest. Solitary nascent entrepreneurs have invested more dollars but fewer hours (with the exception of stranger team respondents) in their startups than others. Those without teams are also most likely to have home-based startups. Stranger teams have the highest levels of technology in their startups and also are most likely to have their businesses be service or retail. Stranger teams are more likely to occur in the south than other types of teams. Stranger teams give fewer assistance types than do other types of teams overall but give the same number of assistance types per person as kin/spouse teams. Friend/associate teams are more likely to provide any introductions and introductions as a most important resource and are more likely to provide information as a most important resource. Kin/spouse teams are slightly more likely than the other types to provide any training and training as a most important resource and are also more likely to provide any personal services and personal services as a most important resource.

Table 3.4 displays the weighted means and standard deviations for variables used in the analyses in Chapter 5 according to team tie strength. I also display the respondents who were not members of teams in this table as they are included in chapter 5's analysis. Only respondents who responded to phone interviews 12 months after the initial survey are included. Although there are slight variations between respondent characteristics presented in Table 3.3 and those for respondents included in the analyses for chapter 5, I do not provide a separate table demonstrating those differences. Therefore, Tables 3.4 and 3.5 only show the means and standard deviations for variables not included in chapter 4.

Although stranger teams tend to have higher achieved status in many respects, they have the lowest levels of managerial experience. They have higher levels of financial education and experience, accounting education and experience, business education and experience in more areas, are more likely to have a bachelor's degree (with those on no teams the least likely). Each of the four team types are equally likely to have abandoned startup activities. However, associate/friend teams are the most likely to have operational businesses and those without teams the least likely. Stranger teams are the most likely to remain entrepreneurially active.

Table 3.5 shows the same characteristics as Table 3.4, those analyzed in Chapter 5, but with men and women combined and separated. Men have more managerial experience than women, but about the same amount of financial education, and women are more likely to have accounting education. Women are more likely to report they have financial experience and accounting experience. Women are more likely to have been out of both the labor force and the full-time labor force in the twelve years prior to the interview than were men. Women were less likely to report abandoning startup activities and slightly more likely to report remaining entrepreneurially active.

Strengths of the PSED

The PSED is well-suited for testing my hypotheses regarding status, teams, and nascent entrepreneurship. First, because the sample is of nascent entrepreneurs rather than business owners, the sample is less vulnerable to selectivity or success bias that plagues studies of business owners. Whereas most studies of business owners exclude those whose startups failed to become operational businesses, this sample includes those who launch businesses and those who fail to do so. This more inclusive sample of nascent entrepreneurs allows me to better explain causes of startup success or failure than would a sample of only successful business owners. Second, the data collection methods maximized the probability of contacting team members who are often hidden from studies of business owners (such as family members or co-owners). Many studies of business owners contact one owner of each business they sample and therefore miss other owners. This study asks if people are involved in startup activities for a business they will be an owner or part-owner, capturing a broader spectrum of participants in nascent entrepreneurship. This will provide me with important insight to issues of gender, family, and entrepreneurship. Third, the data contain detailed information regarding respondents' status characteristics background, startup characteristics, and team characteristics. Fourth, the panel nature of the data allows me to evaluate the progress of the nascent entrepreneurial process and determine the effects team and status have on it without ambiguity of time ordering.

Caveats of the PSED and Study Design

The PSED includes a specific group of individuals: those taking actions toward starting a business at the time of the interview. Therefore, individuals who were nascent entrepreneurs but abandoned their efforts are not included in the survey.[5] In addition, the sample does not include those operating businesses at the time of the study. Therefore, results should not be generalized to discouraged nascent entrepreneurs or business owners. Also, I am restricting my analysis to nascent entrepreneurs that have made the decision to start businesses.[6]

Analytic Strategies

I employ a variety of regression techniques to test my hypotheses. First, to test hypothesis 2 about the relationship between team members' status characteristics and the contributions they are credited by respondents with providing, I use population averaged logistic regression for the analysis of individual resource contributions and Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE) for the analysis of the number of contributions team member are credited with providing. These methods account for clustering, or the fact that multiple observations originate from the same respondent, which would downwardly bias standard errors (Ruef 2003, Ballinger 2004). These methods, rather than hierarchical linear models, are most appropriate when there are a small number of observations (in

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[5] For this reason, some have suggested excluding those who began their nascent activities more than 12 months before the initial interview and others have suggested controlling for date of first nascent entrepreneurial activity.

[6] For those interested in how ascribed and achieved status characteristics influence the nascent entrepreneurship decision, refer to Reynolds et al. (2002).

this case between 1 and 5) per cluster. Generalized estimating equations also allow for within team correlations to be calculated, which I present at the bottom of each column for my analysis of the number of resources team members are credited with providing. Because respondents are likely not only affected by their team members' status characteristics when assigning credit for contributions but also by potentially biased evaluations of their own contributions, I run logistic and ordinary least squares analysis for the respondents' self-reports separately from their reports of their alters' contributions.

In the second phase of my analysis, I regress team-level composition characteristics on the levels of resources provided by the team. For this analysis, I used Ordinary Least Squares for the average number of resources provided and the total number of unique resources provided. Even though total number of unique resources is a count variable with a range from 0 to 8, its relatively normal distribution suggests that either negative binomial regression or poisson regression would be unnecessary and inappropriate, since those techniques are indicated in cases where a count variable with a restricted range has disproportionate numbers of 0s and 1s. In addition, I use logistic regression for predicting the log odds of whether a respondent's team provided individual resources either at all or as a most important resource.

For the entrepreneurial outcome variables, I use logistic regression for the variables measuring the conditions of the startups 12 months after the initial interview.

Diagnostics and Data Corrections

All of my analyses are run with weights so that the characteristics of the sample are comparable to those of the population. For all of the analyses, the weights are recentered for the number of respondents in each analysis so that the mean of the weight is equal to one.[7] Standard errors are robust in regression analysis with weighted data, and therefore heteroskedasticity is not a concern. In regressions for which I test for status characteristic information gained through the mail questionnaire (business-related education and experience and labor force continuity), I imputed mean and modal values for those not answering the mail questionnaire to minimize the loss of observations. I controlled for these imputed values by controlling for whether respondents answered the mail questionnaire.[8] I also calculated variance inflation factors (VIF) to determine if collinearity was present. I found that the only variables with a variance inflation factor over the traditional cutoff of 10 were the age and age-squared variables.

Because of the characteristics of some variables, some regressions would not converge for particular subsamples. For example, in testing hypothesis 2, the number of assistance types offered by a team member would not converge for the alters of women respondents with all the variables included in the model. However, all of the individual coefficients and standard errors were reported. I decided run the alters of women respondents with a few of the control variables missing that were not significant in the full model: net worth, income, south, home-based business, and home ownership. I display the results from the full and reduced models in Table 4.1 but only interpret the

[7] Perhaps because my analysis is restricted to nascent entrepreneurs, I found that recentering had little effect on my results. The mean of the weight variable without centering was always rather close to one for various subsamples of analysis.

[8] In analyses not shown in this dissertation, I also ran analyses in which all missing values for all variables were imputed with either mean or modal values and individual indicators for imputed values were introduced into the models for controls. I found that changes made minimal differences in my results. I decided to restrict my mean imputation to the mail questionnaire responses because they had the greatest number of missing values, it minimized the number of imputation control measures requiring thus making the models more parsimonious and less unwieldy, and the decision rules for imputing missing values for characteristics of team members became problematic.

coefficients that were significant in each. I also ran the same reduced model for the alters of male respondents, although this model did converge. In Table 4.3, also testing hypothesis 2, the regression for whether male respondents provided their startup teams with any information would not converge. Men on teams with ethnic diversity or on teams with more than one relationship type all responded that they provided their teams with information assistance. Because of these phenomena in the data, multivariate analysis was not possible. In Table 4.5, also testing hypothesis 2, the model for the alters of male respondents would not run with population averaged logistic regression because only in two instances did multiple team members provide personal services in the analysis of men. Therefore, I ran this model as a logistic regression equation but included an indicator variable for whether there were multiple records for a respondent. In Tables 4.8, 4.13, and 4.18, testing for average status, maximum status, and status diversity on the odds of a team member providing information, logistic regression is only run for whether a team member provided information as a "most important" assistance type because virtually all respondents on teams reported that someone on the team provided "any" information, making multivariate analysis not possible. In Table 4.10, 4.15, and, 4.20 testing whether average status, maximum status, and status diversity predicted whether a team member provided respondents' teams with personal services, none of the women on teams without a spouse or kin tie said that a team member (including themselves) provided personal services as a "most important" resource. Therefore, the variable and the 29 observations with kin/spouse ties were dropped from the equation.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS FOR STARTUP CONTRIBUTIONS

In this chapter, I present the results testing hypotheses I proposed regarding the relationship between status and startup contributions within startup teams. I test this relationship in multiple ways. First, I consider how status characteristics of individuals influence how respondents evaluate their contributions, a measure of power and influence within teams. Second, I tested the effects of team status characteristics on team functioning. I measured team status in three different ways—average status, maximum status, and status diversity. I measured group functioning by considering collective contribution levels within teams. I found that the effects of status on contributions were sensitive to the measurement of status, the contribution under consideration, and the gender of the respondent. I found evidence that status expectations do influence team interactions, with teams containing high status members having more contributions than teams with low status members. However, the effects of status were far from deterministic. I also found variation in the importance of particular status characteristics. Gender and industry experience had a greater influence on predicting contributions than other status characteristics, such as race or occupational sex composition, which had either a limited or highly localized influence on how team members provided contributions. Further, although I did not provide a hypothesis to this effect, I found that selected respondent status characteristics influenced their evaluations of others.

I also present results testing my hypotheses regarding how relationships among team members influence contributions, finding overall that teams with close relationships have higher levels of team functioning in the form of contributions than teams with weak relationships. Therefore, my results suggest that entrepreneurs starting businesses with teams experienced the highest levels of team functioning when their team were composed of individuals with high levels of achieved status from their existing social networks.

Plan of the Chapter

This chapter discusses results from extensive analyses, presented in 20 multiple-page tables. I organize my discussion in a way that maximizes balance between providing an overall understanding of how particular status characteristics influence startup contributions and providing a simple way to evaluate the relative magnitudes of individual coefficients. The major headings under which my discussion is organized are the hypotheses presented in chapter two. Each hypothesis has several tables, which are listed at the beginning of each heading. I begin by briefly reviewing the theoretical justification for the hypothesis and briefly discussing any methodological notes about the results. I then provide a general sense of how influential each status characteristic (or independent variable) was on the contributions overall, thus looking across multiple tables row by row.

Then, I discuss each contribution type in the order that the tables are presented. In this more detailed discussion, I interpret individual coefficients or exponentiated coefficients (odds ratios) and discuss any important differences in how status characteristics influence men's and women's reporting of a particular contribution. I conclude each section by evaluating how much empirical support my hypothesis received. Throughout, I provide substantive interpretation of my results in terms of how status characteristics would likely influence interactions in real startup teams.

Hypothesis 2: Individual Status and Help Provided. Tables 4.1-4.5

I hypothesized that the status of individual team members would be positively associated with the amount of assistance they were credited with providing, particularly for high status assistance types--introductions, information, and training--and predicted that high individual status characteristics would be negatively associated with providing low status assistance--personal assistance. I reasoned that status characteristics deemed relevant by team members would influence the extent to which members would have more power and control in team interactions. Individuals with high levels of power and control will have more opportunities to make contributions directly relevant to startup activities, such as introductions, information, and training than less powerful team members. In addition, the contributions of more powerful team members are more likely to be recognized and acknowledged whereas less powerful members may have their contributions ignored by other team members. To determine if interaction inequalities were present in teams, I examined how status characteristics influenced contributions by team members.[1] For these results, I used general estimation equations, (GEE or XTGEE in STATA) and population averaged logistic regression (XTLOGIT in STATA) to account for intra-team correlation and clustering (Ballinger 2004, Ruef 2003).

I tested hypothesis 2 using several dependent variables: first, the number of assistance types provided, and then four individual assistance types--whether a person

[1] Recall that contributions are from the perspective of the respondent. Possibly, team members provide contributions to startup activities unrecognized by respondents. For brevity's sake, I will refer to the contributions reported by respondents as contributions.

provided any introductions, information, training, and personal assistance.[2] In each of the equations, I estimated the coefficients for the individual “alter” status characteristics, the status characteristics of the respondent, the status diversity and relational characteristics of the team, and respondent and startup controls. Although only team members’ status characteristics are pertinent to testing hypothesis two, I also discuss the significant respondent status characteristics.

In many datasets in which respondents nominate alters, respondents are not included as alters/team members. In this dataset, respondents were considered team members and therefore provided responses regarding the types of assistance they themselves offered to their startup teams. Therefore, in addition to running analyses on all team members, I ran analysis separately for respondents’ self-reports of assistance and the reports of alters’ assistance because of attribution biases, in which respondents use different criteria to evaluate themselves relative to others, may be present. I ran the analysis without mean imputation.

The results are presented in Tables 4.1 to 4.5. The first column of numbers in each table contains the coefficients and standard errors for all team members. The second column contains the statistics only for respondents’ alters. Columns three and four contain the statistics for the alters of women respondents and men respondents, respectively. Column five contains the statistics of respondents’ self-reports only. Finally, the sixth and seventh columns contain the statistics for the self-reports of women and men, respectively.

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[2] The affirmative responses to whether these types of assistance were offered as the “most important” assistance were too low to run logistic regressions. Each team member can only provide one “most important” contribution. If a team member did not provide a contribution, the probability for “most important” is 0. If they did provide the contribution, then the probability for most important is 1/number of contributions provided. The variation is too little to warrant multivariate investigation.

Before reviewing and interpreting the coefficients in each of the tables for hypothesis 2, which is organized by dependent variable or contribution type, I will briefly discuss how the individual status characteristics influenced the dependent variables overall. Between Tables 4.1 and 4.5, many status characteristics had 36 coefficients (9 for number of contributions or Table 4.1, 7 for introductions or Table 4.2, 6 for information or Table 4.3, 7 for training or Table 4.4, and 7 for personal services or Table 4.5). Gender had fewer coefficients because coefficients were not reported when analyses were run separately for men and women. Respondent status characteristics also had fewer coefficients because they were not reported in respondents' reports of their own contributions (instead, they were reported as "alter" characteristics).

Team members' status characteristics varied in their level of influence on the contributions team members provided. Achieved characteristics overall had more influence than ascribed characteristics. Team members' industry experience increased contributions in 15 of 36 instances (or 41.7 percent of the time) and decreased contributions 3 of 36 (or 8 percent). The negative coefficients for industry experience were consistent with expectations because they all occurred with regard to personal services, which I discuss in greater detail below. Team members' startup experience and occupational SEI each significantly increased contributions 10 of 36 instances (27.8 percent). Team members' startup experience never significantly reduced contributions but occupational SEI decreased contributions in 2 of 36 instances (5.6 percent). Team members' age never increased contributions and reduced contributions in 9 of 36 instances (or 25 percent of the time). African American and Hispanic team members had higher levels of contributions than whites and Asians in 6 of 36 (16.7 percent) instances and lower contributions in one of 36 instances (2.8 percent). Female team members had significantly higher levels of contributions in 5 of 27 instances (18.5 percent) and lower levels in one of 27 instances (3.7 percent). Finally, team members with female-typed occupations had higher levels of startup contributions in two of 36 instances (5.6 percent) and lower contributions in one of 36 instances (2.8 percent). Overall, the alter status characteristics with the greatest support were first industry experience, and then startup experience and occupational SEI. However, even these status characteristics did not always influence contributions. Their influence depended on the gender of the respondents and the contribution type in question.

Respondents' own characteristics influenced how they evaluated others. The characteristics with the greatest influence were industry experience, occupational SEI, and female-typed occupation. Each of these characteristics significantly influenced respondents' evaluations in others between 30 and 40 percent of the time (7 of 22 times for female-typed occupation, 8 of 22 times for industry experience, and 9 of 22 times for occupational SEI). Age influenced respondent's evaluations of others more than 20 percent of the time (5/22) and gender, race, and startup experience had lesser impacts on respondents' evaluations of others.

Number of Assistance Types Reported: Table 4.1

The number of types of assistance provided was distributed rather normally despite its restricted range, suggesting that Poisson or negative binomial would not be necessary or appropriate.

Alter Characteristics and Self-Reports. I found that achieved status characteristics positively influenced the number of types of assistance provided by both alters and self-reports. In particular, the log of years of *industry experience* individuals had was significantly and positively associated with the number of assistance types they were credited with providing by respondents, with the exception of women's self-reports. A one unit increase in the number of years of industry was associated with between a 0.05 increase in the number of assistance types provided in the case of the respondents only regression and a 0.15 increase in the number of assistance type provided in the case of the alters of men (see columns 7 and 5, respectively). Therefore, the substantive significance of this effect was small because a team member would need to have more than a lifetime of industry experience to increase the number of contribution types provided by one.

Men respondents with previous *entrepreneurial experience* credited themselves with providing significantly more assistance types, but previous startup experience was not significantly associated with the number of contributions provided by men's alters, women, or women's alters. The effect for men's self-reports was relatively large: men with startup experience credited themselves with providing 0.69 more contributions than men without startup experience (refer to column 9). Therefore, men respondents who had started businesses before reported themselves as more contributory than inexperienced men respondents. However, neither men nor women respondents reported that alters who had started businesses before contributed more to startup activities than first-time nascent entrepreneurs.

In the analysis of women's alters, *occupational SEI* was positively associated with the number of assistance types they were credited with providing. Multiplication shows that a person with an occupational SEI of 50 would be credited with, on average, 0.82 more contributions than a person with an occupational SEI of 0 net of other characteristics.[3] However, occupational SEI was negatively associated with men's self-reports of providing several assistance types to their startups, contrary to expectations. A man with an occupational SEI of 50 was likely to credit himself with providing his team 0.59 fewer contributions than a man with an occupational SEI of 0.[4] Therefore, occupational SEI increased power and influence in startup teams from the perspective of women respondents. Men, on the other hand, reported that their prior entrepreneurial experience rather than their occupational status increased their contributions and influence.

These results show that achieved status characteristics did influence the number of contributions team members provided, but they also show that, given the small values of the coefficients, high-status team members did not contribute dramatically more contributions than low-status team members. In the context of startup teams, respondents considered achieved status characteristics relevant to entrepreneurial activities because they influenced how much assistance individuals were credited with providing. The results supported the path of relevance principle (Cohen and Zhou 1991), stating that status characteristics most directly relevant to group tasks (like industry experience, business experience, and occupation) had the greatest impact on status expectations relative to status characteristics distantly or indirectly related to group tasks (like gender, race, and age). In addition, the results supported the activation principle, which states that status expectations become activated when individuals perceive a particular status to be relevant to tasks in a group setting (Cohen and Zhou 1991).

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[3] Refer to column 4. 0.82=50*.0164.

[4] Refer to column 9. 0.585=50*-0.0117.

Although not readily observable, the results may also suggest that achieved characteristics influence how team members relate to each other when they communicate, including how many opportunities individuals have to express their ideas and the extent to which other team members consider their contributions valuable. Stated another way, team members with limited achieved characteristics such as no previous industry experience may be marginalized in their teams and perceived as providing little contributions to startup endeavors.

The influence of achieved characteristics on the respondents' evaluations of team members' contributions does not necessarily reflect status expectations, artifact, or credentialing. Rather, the differences may result from genuine and observable differences between those with differing levels of industry experience and their capabilities to express their ideas effectively to team members.

Respondent Characteristics. Respondents' own characteristics also influenced how they credited their team members' contributions. Please refer to the rows under the heading "Respondent Characteristics" in Table 4.1. Occupational SEI and having a female-typed occupation were both negatively associated with men's and women's evaluations of team members' contributions. An increase in respondents' SEI of 50 was associated with a decrease in 0.42 in the number of contributions their alters provide.[5] A respondent with a female-typed occupation was associated with a 0.5 decrease in the number of contributions their alters provided (refer to column 2).

For women, age was positively associated and log of years of industry experience was negatively associated with their evaluations of team members' contributions. An increase of ten years for a woman respondent was associated with an increase of 0.46 in

[5] Refer to column 2. 0.42=50*-0.0084.

the number of contributions their alters provide.[6] A one unit increase in the log number of years of industry experience for women respondents had was associated with a 0.1 decrease in the number of contributions their alters provide (columns 3 and 4). For men respondents, their own age and industry experience did not influence their evaluations of alters' contributions. Respondents' gender, race, and startup experience had no main effects on their evaluations of alters' contributions.

The significant results supported theory and previous research findings (Alexander 1972) that those with higher status rank others as having less status than do those of lower status. Individuals with certain high status characteristics were more likely to overlook the contributions of team members compared to those with low status characteristics, net of the team members' status characteristics. Low-status individuals may gain more contributions from their team members if they form teams with high-status individuals, but their own contributions may not be recognized. Alternatively, perhaps those with high achieved status (such as industry experience) may be more able to discriminate between high- and low-value assistance from their team members and therefore disregard assistance from less experienced team members they determine lack merit.

Overall, the results show that *achieved* status characteristics, especially industry experience, influence perceptions of how much team members contribute to startup efforts. Ascribed status characteristics had less of an influence on how respondents evaluated themselves and others. Therefore, in entrepreneurial startup teams, achieved status characteristics influenced the extent to which contributions were provided and

[6] Taking the average of the alters of female respondents only and the alters of female respondents only, reduced model (columns 3 and 4), the raw coefficient is 0.046. 0.46=10*0.046.

recognized but race, gender, and age did not substantially influence such exchanges. Evaluations of team members' contributions were also influenced by respondent characteristics, with respondents of higher status crediting their alters with lower levels of assistance.

Any Introductions: Table 4.2

Next, I analyzed how status characteristics influenced whether team members received credit from respondents for providing introductions or contacts useful to startup activities. The team member status characteristics associated with whether they provided introductions were age, race, industry experience, and previous startup experience.

Alter Characteristics and Self-Reports. Age was only significant in the entire sample and in the analysis of men's and women's combined alters (columns 1 and 2). The coefficients remained negative in the separate analysis for men and women, but they did not reach significance thresholds. In the mixed-gender alter analysis (column 2), a 50 year old alter was only 0.79 times as likely to be credited with providing introductions as someone who was 40.[7] In the theory section, I hypothesized that those of older ages would have a higher status than younger nascent entrepreneurs, given prior research on entrepreneurs and business owners indicating that young entrepreneurs are relatively disadvantaged in entrepreneurship because they tend to have less human, social, and financial capital (Fairlie 2005, Hipple 2004, Manser and Picot 1999, Williams 2004). Instead, the results show that, *net of other characteristics*, younger team members had higher status and were seen as more capable of providing introductions to startup team members than were older team members. Below, I discuss how experience increased the odds of team members being credited with providing introductions. Therefore the

[7] I calculated this odds ratio by multiplying the raw coefficient (-.024) by ten and exponentiating it.

increased social capital associated with age may be mediated through experience and the remaining effect of age decreased the status of members of startup teams. Team members appeared to find that, among two individuals with identical levels of experience, the younger member contributed more than the older member. Team members perhaps perceived younger individuals as more innovative or more current with entrepreneurship trends than older individuals.

Men were significantly more likely to credit African Americans and Hispanics with offering introductions than they were Caucasians or Asians (columns 4 and 7). African American and Hispanic alters in the men's analysis were nearly five times as likely to offer introductions compared to white and Asian alters, and African American and Hispanic men respondents were almost four times as likely to credit themselves as offering introductions relative to white and Asian respondents.[8] The effect of race suggests that because of the degree of racial segregation present in modern U.S. society in social networks, schools, neighborhoods, employment organizations (Braddock and Partland 1987, Harris 1999, Massey and Denton 1993, Mayhew et al 1995, Mouw 2002, Mouw and Entwisle 2006, Stearns 2003) racial minorities who are underrepresented in business leadership often have more diverse and expansive networks because their relative scarcity makes homogeneous ties difficult (Ibarra 1992, Ruef et al 2003). These results also suggest that racial differences in social networks of nascent entrepreneurs should be studied further to determine the relative inclusion or exclusion of African Americans and Hispanics in business-related networks. Race did not produce significant

[8] The formula for the alters in the male analysis was 4.7016=exp(1.548) in column 4 and for the self-reports in the male analysis was 3.8501=exp(1.348) in column 7.

differences in the contribution of introductions and contacts among women (columns 3 and 6.)

In addition to the ascribed status characteristics of age and race, some achieved characteristics also influenced team members' contributions of introductions. The log of *industry experience* was significantly and positively associated with the odds of alters offering introductions by both men and women respondents. In the mixed-gender analysis of alters (column 2) a team member with one log year of industry experience was 1.2 times as likely to provide introductions as a team member with 0 log years of industry experience.[9] Alters' *startup experience* was significantly associated with being credited with offering introductions in the analysis of men only. In the analysis of men's alters (column 4) a team member with startup experience was almost three times as likely to provide introductions as a team member without startup experience.[10] Therefore, individuals (particularly men) forming startup teams in hopes of gaining introductions and contacts to help their entrepreneurial activities are more likely to achieved desired results with alters that are younger, African American or Hispanic, with prior industry and startup experience.

The results show notable differences in the ways in which men and women assigned credit for introductions in their startup teams. Previous research has found that, in the context of entrepreneurship, men and women use their social networks in similar ways (Aldrich 1999; Menzies, Diochon, and Gasse 2004). However, men and women in the PSED had different experiences regarding which team member status characteristics influenced whether alters provided them with contacts. For men, race and startup

[9] 1.2=exp(0.18)

[10] 2.97=exp(1.09)

experience had significant effects on whether team members provided introductions, but these status characteristics did not have the same effects for women. Therefore, women seeking to find new contacts through their team members will find different results than will men with team members of identical status characteristics.

Respondent Characteristics. The respondents' status characteristics also influenced the odds of crediting other team members with providing introductions. For women, their age was positively associated with and their industry experience was negatively associated with the odds of crediting others with providing introductions (refer to column 3 under the heading of "Respondent Characteristics"). Women who were 50 were 1.78 times as likely as women who were 40 to credit a team member with providing introductions (1.78=exp(10*.058)). A woman with one log year of industry experience was only 0.87 times as likely as a woman with zero years of industry experience to credit a team member with providing introductions (0.87=exp(-0.14)). These coefficients were in the opposite direction of those same characteristics for alters. Therefore, a situation in which an alter was most likely to be credited with providing introductions was when the respondent was older but the alter was younger and the respondent has less industry experience but the alter more industry experience. The results also suggest that older age was lower status, rather than higher status. Individuals with high status characteristics are apparently less likely to recognize the contributions of others relative to individuals with low status characteristics.

In addition, having a female-typed occupation was negatively associated with crediting other team members with providing introductions for both men and women respondents. In the analysis of men's and women's alters (column 2) respondents with a female-typed occupation were only about half as likely as those in a mixed-gender or male-typed occupation to credit a team member with providing introductions (0.45=exp(-0.8)). This result cannot be explained by Alexander's (1972) argument that low-status individuals give higher appraisals than high status individuals. Bivariate analysis shows that respondents in female-typed occupations more often formed teams with close ties among whom there are few opportunities to provide novel contacts.

Any Information Provided: Table 4.3

I ran logistic regression analysis to further test my hypothesis 2 that high status characteristics will increase the odds that respondents will credit team members with providing information, a high-status contribution. I discuss the significant coefficients for team member characteristics and respondent characteristics and discuss the substantive significance of each. I also mention the status characteristics that did not significantly influence information contributions.

Alter Characteristics. Several status characteristics of team members influenced their odds of providing information. The first result of note in this portion of the analysis was that men were significantly less likely to credit women team members with providing information assistance. Men were only 0.188 times as likely to credit women team members with providing information assistance compared to men team members, net of other characteristics such as tie strength[11]. According to this result, men on average expected women to be less knowledgeable about starting businesses and therefore were less likely to credit them as providing information helpful to startup activities. Women on startup teams with men may find that their efforts to provide useful information are

[11] Refer to column 4. 0.188=exp(-1.6713).

sometimes thwarted by status expectations in that the information they provide is relatively ignored.

Team members' industry experience was associated with a significant increase in the odds of being credited with providing information by women respondents. Team members with one log year of industry experience were 1.29 times as likely to provide information according to women (column 3) than were team members with no industry experience.[12] Women respondents perceived industry experience as a relevant status characteristic influencing their impressions of team members' capabilities to provide assistance, including introductions and information. For men, industry experience increased alters' odds of contributing introductions, but not information. Therefore, women respondents find that team members with industry experience were capable of sharing information that they have acquired working in the industry of the startup.

Another achieved status characteristic that influenced whether team members provided information was occupational SEI. Occupational SEI significantly and positively increased the odds of men and women respondents crediting others with providing information assistance. For example, in the mixed-gender analysis of alters (column 2), an alter with an occupational SEI of 50 was more than three times as likely to provide information than an alter with an occupational SEI of 0.[13] Regardless of gender, respondents considered team members' occupational background a relevant factor that influenced whether they provided information relevant to starting businesses. Through alters' occupational training, either formal education or on-the-job, alters appear to

[12] 1.29=exp(0.26)

[13] 3.49=exp(50*.025)

acquire information relevant to business startups that they then share with their team members.

The final alter status characteristic that significantly influenced respondents' evaluations of team members' information contributions was alter age. Age was significantly and negatively associated with being credited with providing information by women respondents. For alters of women respondents (column 3) a team member who was 50 was only 0.36 times as likely to provide information as a team member who was 40, net of other factors such as experience and occupation.[14] The negative effect of age on the odds of team members providing information provided further evidence that age, net of experience, is low status.

Self Reports. The model for men's self-reports did not run properly because no men on teams with ethnic diversity or on teams with more than one type of relationship credited themselves with providing information to their startups. This artifact in the data may suggest negative effects of diversity on team processes and exchanges, which I explore and discuss in greater detail towards the end of the chapter. Therefore, it was not possible to determine how men's own status characteristics influenced how they contributed information to startup teams because their information contributions appear to be strongly influenced by racial diversity and relational diversity.

For women, only race and ethnicity influenced the odds of crediting themselves with providing information. African American and Hispanic women were significantly less likely than white or Asian women to credit themselves with providing information. African American and Hispanic women were only about 0.10 times as likely to credit themselves with providing information as were white and Asian women, according to the

[14] 0.36=exp(10*-.10)

analysis displayed in column 6 of Table 4.3.[15] This result suggests that African American and Hispanic women have internalized status expectations that, perhaps because they are underrepresented in business ownership, they are less capable of contributing information, an example of the translation principle (Cohen and Zhou 1991).

Respondent Characteristics. Men and women differed in how their own status characteristics influenced their characterization of others' contributions. No respondent status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of men crediting other team members with providing information. For women, their age was positively associated with the odds of crediting others with providing information (the opposite effect of the alters' age), and industry experience was negatively associated with the odds of crediting others with providing information (the opposite effect of the alters' industry experience). Looking under "Respondent Characteristics" in Table 4.3 in column 3, women 10 years older were over three times as likely to credit a team member with providing information as women ten years younger.[16] Further, women with one log year of industry experience were only 0.8 times as likely to credit a team member with providing information compared to a woman with no industry experience.[17] In addition, women respondents' previous startup experience was also negatively associated with the odds of crediting others with providing information. Women respondents with previous startup experience were only 0.15 times as likely to credit other team members with providing information compared to women with no such prior experience.[18] These results were similar to those

[15] 0.10=exp(-2.27)

[16] 3.22=exp(10* 0.12)

[17] 0.8=exp(-0.22)

[18] 0.15=exp(-1.86)

for introductions and contacts in Table 4.2. Women whose ascribed and achieved status characteristics increased their knowledge or perception of knowledge about startup activities were less likely to seek information about startup activities from others or recognize others' contributions as helpful.

As was the case in the previous two analyses (total assistance provided and introductions and contacts), I found variation in the importance of particular status characteristics influencing whether team members were credited with providing *information* assistance, with industry experience significantly influencing contributions whereas occupational sex composition had no effect. Therefore, I found further evidence that achieved status relevant to the particular startup activities: industry experience and occupational SEI, significantly influenced individuals' influence within teams. Those with high levels of industry experience were either more likely to have information, provide information, and/or more likely to have information they provide recognized by other team members.

In addition, I found that men and women differed in how team members' status characteristics and their own status characteristics influenced their reporting of information assistance. Men were less likely to credit women with providing information, and gender was more influential in information contributions than was industry experience for men. Women in mixed-sex teams were therefore likely to encounter gender expectations in which they were given limited opportunities to provide information or the information they contributed went unacknowledged. Further, while men's own status characteristics did not influence how they credited others with providing information, women with higher status characteristics were less likely to credit others with providing information compared to women with lower status characteristics. African American and Hispanic women have also apparently internalized status expectations that affect the reporting of their own contributions within startup teams. They internalized their lower status in entrepreneurship and therefore were far less likely to report contributing information. However, respondents did not report that the race and ethnicity of their alters affected their likelihood of contributing information.

Any Training: Table 4.4

Alter Characteristics. Men and women differed substantially in terms of which sorts of team members they reported provided training assistance. Women were significantly more likely to credit women rather than men team members with providing training, net of other factors. The coefficient was quite large, 1.47 located in the first row of column 3. In other words, women were more than 4 times as likely to credit women compared to men with providing training. In addition, team members' industry experience and occupational SEI were positively associated with the odds of women respondents crediting alters with providing training. Team members with one log year of industry experience were 1.3 times as likely to be credited with training compared to those with no experience and team members with an occupational SEI of 50 were over 5 times as likely to be credited with providing training than were those with an SEI of 0.[19]

The results for industry experience and occupational SEI were not surprising, given status expectations theory and the results for the other dependent variables. Respondents found that occupational SEI and industry experience were relevant status characteristics that determined who provided training valuable to startup activities,

[19] 1.30=exp(0.26). 5.73=exp(50*.03). Refer to column 3.

compared to other status characteristics they determined irrelevant such as startup experience, race, and occupational sex composition.

However, the result for alters' gender was somewhat surprising from a status characteristics theory perspective. Women are underrepresented in business ownership and are thus, overall, less likely to be experts in entrepreneurship. Therefore, women crediting other women with providing training at much higher levels compared to men was counter to status expectations. I suspect that the contrary finding was a result of homophily, in which team members of the same sex were more comfortable giving and receiving training. Seen another way, gendered status expectations about relative business expertise may influence women respondents to deliberately not seek training from their men team members for fear of being seen as less knowledgeable and less of a contributor to their team. Given that men were less likely to credit women with providing information (Table 4.3) such concerns on the part of women may be warranted. Net of other factors, women without much industry or entrepreneurial experience who seek to pursue entrepreneurship as a member of a startup team in order to receive training should therefore seek out other women (ideally those with industry experience and high occupational SEI) with whom to form startup teams, or alternatively might need to seek training from outside of their startup teams.

Team members' age was negatively associated with being credited with providing training by female respondents. A team member that was 10 years older was only 0.63 times as likely to be credited with providing training by a woman than someone ten years younger.[20] Older team members were therefore considered by women less knowledgeable and therefore less likely to offer training (or information). In the context

[20] See column 3. 0.62=exp(10*-0.047)

of starting businesses, then, older team members have lower status than younger team members, especially from the perspective of women. When industry experience was accounted for, older people face negative status expectations and are apparently viewed as less capable of contributing training to business startups.

No “alter” status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of male respondents crediting team members with providing training. Therefore, although women respondents were influenced by gender, age, industry experience, and occupational SEI when crediting team members with providing training, men were approximately equally as likely to credit team members with providing training, irrespective of their ascribed and achieved status characteristics. For comparison, see columns 3 and 4.

Self Reports. The only status characteristic that significantly influenced respondents’ odds of crediting themselves with providing training was startup experience (column 5). Respondents with startup experience were twice as likely to credit themselves with providing training compared to respondents that had not attempted business ownership before.[21] The effect was positive, although falls below significance thresholds when the analysis was separated for men and women (columns 6 and 7). No other status characteristics significantly influenced the incidence of respondents crediting themselves with providing training in their teams. Respondents did not find that their alters’ prior experience increased their helpfulness in providing training, with women reporting that alters with prior experience were actually less likely to provide training contributions (column 3). Therefore, team members may vary substantially in their impressions of their own status and contributions compared to other team members’ impressions of them.

[21] 2.12=exp(0.75)

Respondent Characteristics

Men and women differed substantially in how their *own* status characteristics influenced whether they credited others with providing training. None of the respondent characteristics significantly influenced the odds of men crediting others with training (see the second set of rows "Respondent Characteristics" in column 4). According to these results, then, men were equally likely to credit others with training regardless of their own status characteristics or the status characteristics of others. However, in the analysis of women, respondents' age was positively associated with crediting others with training, and their industry experience and occupational SEI were negatively associated with the odds of crediting others with providing training (refer to the second set of rows "Respondent Characteristics" in column 3). Respondents ten years older were more than twice as likely to credit others with training as respondents ten years younger.[22] Respondents with one log year of industry experience were only 0.85 times as likely to credit team members with providing training relative to respondent women with no industry experience.[23] Respondent women with an occupational SEI of 50 were only 0.28 times as likely to credit team members with providing training relative to women respondents with an occupational SEI of 0.[24] These effects were the opposite of how the same status characteristics in alters affected their odds of being credited with providing training. A team member having high status characteristics alone did not necessarily guarantee that they received credit training provided. They were most likely to receive credit when respondents lack those same high status characteristics.

[22] 2.4=exp(10*0.09)

[23] 0.85=exp(-0.16)

[24] 0.28=exp(50*-0.03)

Two additional respondent characteristics significantly influenced the odds of team members receiving credit for training. African American and Hispanic women were more than 7 times as likely as white and Asian women to credit others with providing training.[25] Women with startup experience only 0.23 times as likely as those without startup experience to credit others with providing training.[26] These respondent status characteristic effects provide additional evidence that respondents with high status characteristics were less likely to acknowledge the contributions of other team members relative to respondents with lower status characteristics. In addition, these results also suggest that although individuals who form teams with high status individuals may potentially increase their access to novel contacts, information, and training, they risk having their own contributions ignored by their team members, regardless of their own status.

Any Personal Services: Table 4.5

Compared to introductions, information, and training, personal services has a lower status in an entrepreneurial setting. The description of personal services in the questionnaire (helping team members with household help or child care) is similar to that of care work, which researchers have shown to be devalued in work settings (England, Budig, and Folbre 2002). Therefore, including analysis of the odds of team members providing personal services was important to determine how status expectations and characteristics manifest themselves in self-selected entrepreneurial teams. Because few men reported that more than one alter provided personal services, a population-averaged logit model would not run. Therefore, I ran a logistic regression analysis for men's alters

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[25] 7.37=exp(2)

[26] 0.23=exp(-1.46)

and included a dummy variable for the two respondents for whom more than one alter provided personal services (see column 4).

Alter Characteristics and Self Reports. The effects of gender were noticeable. When all team members were included in column 1, women (both alters and respondents) were almost three times as likely to be credited with providing personal services compared to men.[27] In the analysis of respondents (column 5), women were twice as likely to credit themselves with providing personal services to their startup teams as were men.[28] Women alters were also more likely to be credited with providing personal assistance (column 2), but when the analysis was run separately for men and women, the coefficients fail to meet significance thresholds.[29] The insignificant coefficients in the men only and women only analyses (columns 3 and 4) were approximately equal magnitude in the opposite direction, with women less likely to credit women alters with providing personal assistance and men more likely to credit women alters with providing personal assistance.

Therefore, status expectations stemming from occupational sex segregation and division of household labor, with women spending disproportionately more time on housework and childcare, do appear to influence contributions within startup teams (Cohen and Zhou 1991, Ridgeway 1997). Although women do not expect personal services from other women, they do report providing personal services themselves,

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[27] 2.72=exp(1)

[28] 2.11=exp(0.75)

[29] A possible explanation for why men do not credit women for providing personal services significantly more often than they do men was that this type assistance was so low status that men do not notice it, whether it was provided by men or women. However, bivariate analysis shows that men and women report that alters provided personal services with equal frequency (see Table 3.1).

suggesting that women have internalized gendered status expectations. In teams starting businesses, women follow expectations that they should provide personal services to other team members, and example of the translation principle in which inequalities in interaction develop from status-based performance expectations (Cohen and Zhou 1991).

Women on startup teams may find themselves providing personal services to their team members. These personal services may be integral to whether startups become operational or not because work overload is a major issue for entrepreneurs and team members helping one another meet family responsibilities may prove influential in whether they are able to devote sufficient resources to business launch (Aldrich and Cliff 2003, Reynolds and Renzulli 2005, Reynolds and White 1997). However, providing personal services can be time-consuming and may limit the amount of contributions women can make that more directly and recognizably influence startup outcomes. These gender differences in the provision of personal services could further perpetuate status expectations regarding gender differences and business ownership. If women are spending much of their time in startup teams on support duties and given fewer opportunities to develop business skills such as writing business plans or negotiating with suppliers and vendors, then expectations about their relative competence in each are likely to persist.

Team members' age was negatively associated with the odds of being credited with providing personal services, although the coefficients become insignificant in the separate male and female equations. Referring to column 2, a team member that was 10 years older was only 0.78 times as likely to be credited with providing personal services as was someone ten years younger.[30] Respondents' age was also negatively associated with women crediting themselves with providing personal services to their startup teams. Women respondents 10 years older were only 0.53 times as likely to credit themselves with providing personal services as those ten years younger.[31] These coefficients were contrary to the previous results because age was negatively associated with being credited with providing high-status assistance types and positively associated with respondents crediting others with providing high-status assistance types. Therefore, these results may reflect that life course effects rather than status effects explain the relationship between age and personal services. Individuals who are beyond a certain age were unlikely to have young children at home that would need to be cared for while they devote time to startup activities. Data on the respondents show that those with young children are, on average, seven years younger than those without young children. I also found a negative correlation between age and hours devoted to household activities (care of children and household maintenance) among respondents. I do not have information on the ages of children of non-respondent team members or the amount of time they devote to household activities, but because respondents are representative of nascent entrepreneurs, it is reasonable to expect that these age differences associated with family and household characteristics were also present among alters.

Therefore, older team members were less likely to give services because they were at a stage in the life course in which their families need less maintenance and they have more available time to devote to startup activities. For example, Lerner, Brush, and Hisrich (1997) found in their analysis of Israeli women entrepreneurs that the age of

[30] 0.78=exp(10*-0.03)

[31] 0.53=exp(10*-0.06)

women's children was positively associated with their businesses' profitability and that most women became entrepreneurs after their children became adults. This explanation seems more plausible than a status-based argument, especially given that age's effect on personal services was negative both for alters and respondents (although insignificant), whereas in previous findings, respondent characteristics had the opposite effect of the alter characteristics.

Industry experience was negatively associated with being credited with providing personal services in the women only analysis, consistent with expectations. Referring to column 3, team members with one log year of industry experience were only 0.82 times as likely to provide personal services compared to those with no industry experience.[32] Those with high levels of industry experience were likely perceived by team members as using their limited time on activities more directly related to starting businesses rather than indirect, support activities. Similarly, these individuals may be less willing to volunteer personal services to team members whereas those with less achieved status might be more likely to volunteer or be pressured into providing such assistance, given their relative lack of influence within teams.

African American and Hispanic women were significantly more likely to report themselves as providing personal services and occupational SEI was negatively associated with men crediting themselves with providing personal services, consistent with hypothesis 2. African American and Hispanic women were over three times as likely as Asian and Caucasian women to report providing personal services (refer to column

[32] 0.82=exp(-0.20)

6).[33] Men with an occupational SEI of 50 were only 0.21 times as likely as men with an occupational SEI of 0 to report providing personal services (refer to column 7).[34] Team members who perceive their status as low were more likely to provide personal services than those whose status characteristics were high.

Counter to expectations, startup experience was positively associated with the odds of respondents crediting themselves with providing personal services for both men and women (columns 5-7). In the analysis of men and women respondents, those with startup experience were more than twice as likely as respondents without startup experience to provide personal services.[35] This result, combined with results from the other four analyses presented thus far, reveal that startup experience was a peculiar status characteristic that was perceived differently, depending on whether people were referring to themselves or others. Respondents with startup experience report providing more contributions, more personal services, and more training than respondents without startup experience (Tables 4.1, 4.4, 4.5). However, respondents reported that their team members' startup experience increased provisions of contributions only for information and introductions (Tables 4.2 and 4.3). The value of startup experience within teams differs depending on whether the evaluator has startup experience or is only observing the influence of startup experience in others. According to respondents, startup experience increased information and contacts but does not overall increase the level of contributions provided. Perhaps respondents found that team members were constrained by their experiences in ways that limited their contributions to teams.

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[33] 3.68=exp(1.30)

[34] 0.21=exp(50*-0.03)

[35] 1.94=exp(0.66)

Respondent Characteristics. As was the case with the high-status contributions of introductions, information, and training, high-status individuals were less likely to credit others with providing personal services and low status respondents were more likely to credit others with providing personal services. While this might seem contradictory to the previous results, it may suggest that high-status individuals are more likely to overlook contributions, regardless of type. Minority women were more likely to credit others with providing personal services (see Column 3 under “Respondent Characteristics”). African American and Hispanic women were more than twelve times as likely as Caucasian or Asian women to credit team members with providing personal services (12.18=exp(2.5)). In addition, women with high occupational SEI were less likely to credit others with providing personal services. Respondent women with an SEI of 50 were only 0.36 times as likely as women with an occupational SEI of 0 to credit others with providing personal services (0.36=exp(50*-.02)). No respondent characteristics influenced whether men credited others with providing personal services.

Summary of Results of Hypothesis 2

In these analyses, I wanted to determine how team member status characteristics influenced the extent to which team members were credited with providing different types of assistance. These results had numerous non-findings, but some interesting themes emerge. First, alters’ industry experience was positively associated with being credited with providing more types of assistance, introductions, information, and training and was negatively associated with providing personal assistance. In startup teams, industry experience was an important status characteristic that shaped power and deference within teams, manifested through interactions and exchanges among team members. However, the magnitude of the effect was small. I also found evidence of some gender expectations, although fewer than some might expect according to status characteristics theory, with gender having significant effects in 6 out of 27 instances or just over 20 percent of the time. Male respondents less often credited women with providing information. Further, women were more often credited with providing personal assistance, including self-reports of providing personal services by women respondents. Therefore, gender expectations do not influence all team processes, but do significantly influence information and personal service provisions.

These results showed variation from assistance type to assistance type, from alter to self-report, and between men and women. Personal assistance differed substantially from the other types of assistance. It is not only a lower status contribution in the context of nascent entrepreneurship, but it is also specific to particular stages of the life course. Men and women differed on how their own status and the status characteristics of others influenced their evaluations of startup contributions, which suggests that gender diverse teams likely have differences of opinion regarding which team members provide particular types of contributions.

Running analyses for respondents and their alters separately illuminated findings that would have been obscured had I run the analysis only with all the team members together, as in the first column in Tables 4.1-4.5. For example, when all team members (including respondents) were included in the analysis for any personal assistance, the team member's gender was significant whereas the respondent's gender was not. However, a breakdown of the analysis reveals that although men were more likely to credit women than men with providing personal assistance (and no such gender difference occurs in the women’s analysis of alters) women were also more likely to credit themselves with providing personal assistance to their startups. Running the analyses separately shows that, although respondents’ evaluations in part genuinely reflect the contributions that their team members were capable of and willing to provide, it also shows that the evaluations were subjective and vulnerable not only to status biases, but attribution biases as well. Respondents evaluated team member alters differently than they did themselves and also varied their level of crediting others based on their own status characteristics.

Industry experience significantly influenced the odds of whether a person provided assistance more reliably than any other status characteristic. However, the exact effect of, for example, a person with ten years of industry experience providing information to their startup team depends on whether the person was a respondent or not, and if they were an alter, the industry experience of the respondent. The results also showed that, along with the status characteristics of the individual being evaluated for their contributions influencing respondents’ appraisals, the respondents’ own status characteristics had significant influence. I did not generate a hypothesis to this effect, but the results are worth further consideration. I found in several instances that high status characteristics of the respondent were negatively associated with crediting team members with providing contributions. Therefore, these results suggest that contributions can be overlooked, depending on the status characteristics of the evaluators. A potential side effect for those seeking to form teams with individuals of high status characteristics so that they can increase their access to various types of assistance is that the assistance they contribute is underappreciated.

I now examine how the team level-characteristics of average and maximum status, status diversity, and relational composition, influence the level of assistance provided at the team level.

Team-Level Analysis

Whereas the previous analysis tested the extent to which individual status characteristics influence how respondents credit themselves and other team members with providing particular types of assistance as individuals as a proxy for team members' power and influence, the following analyses test whether team status and relational characteristics influence individual respondents' access to particular types of assistance within their teams. Contribution levels reflect team functioning, how willing and able team members are to provide assistance that may increase the survivability of their ventures. There were nine dependent variables in this analysis: the number of different assistance types provided by the team, the average number of assistance types provided per team member, whether a team member provided introductions, information, training, and personal services as the "most important" contribution and whether a team member provided any introductions, training, and personal services.[36] I first review the results testing my hypothesis regarding team status increasing the level assistance provided (hypothesis 4) by examining how average status characteristics (hypothesis 4a) and then maximum status characteristics (hypothesis 4b) influenced access to contributions. I then review the results that test my hypothesis regarding the negative relationship between status diversity and startup contributions (hypothesis 6). Finally, I review the results testing hypotheses 8 through 10 regarding how relationships influence contributions.

[36] Because virtually all respondents on teams reported that at least one member provided any information, multivariate analysis was not possible on this variable.

Average Team Status and Contributions Provided: Hypothesis 4a, Tables 4.6-4.10

I ran analyses to determine which team average status characteristics significantly increased provisions of particular contributions in respondents' startup teams. In these regressions, I also included the status characteristics of the respondents to determine if their ascribed and achieved status characteristics influenced the reporting of help offered by team members. In addition, I controlled for a variety of other individual and startup characteristics. Although 411 respondents were team members in the sample, approximately 100 were lost due to non-response to individual questions. The results presented in the tables are those with these cases excluded for the sake of parsimony. However, I also ran the results (not shown) with means imputed for missing values and indicators for each of the variables with missing values, and the results were largely unchanged.

In discussing my results, I first briefly review the effects of individual status characteristics across the different contributions. Then, I focus on each contribution, discussing the significant status characteristics as well as differences in the analyses of men and women. No team-level average status characteristic significantly influenced all the contributions types, but the status characteristics varied in their influence across the contribution types. The coefficients I review are listed under "Team Characteristics", the second block of rows in each table.

Of all the status characteristics, average industry experience influenced the most contributions, having a significant influence on 5 of the 9 dependent variables. Average industry experience of the team was positively associated with 1) the number of different types of assistance provided by the team (Table 4.6) and 2) the average number of assistance types provided by each team member (see Table 4.6), 3) the odds of introductions being provided (Table 4.7), 4) any training being provided as well as 5) training being provided as a most important contribution (Table 4.9). Average industry experience was not associated with a team member contributing introductions as a most important contribution, information as a most important contribution, any personal services, or personal services as a most important contribution (see Tables 4.7, 4.8, and 4.10).

Next, the proportion of women on a team significantly influenced four of the nine contribution measures. The effect of proportion of women on a team varied by gender, which I address further when I discuss each contribution type. The proportion of women significantly influenced whether information was provided as a most important contribution (4.8), whether any training was provided (4.9), and whether any personal services or personal services as a most important contribution were provided (4.10).

Race, average occupational SEI, and the proportion of team members in a female-typed occupation significantly influenced three of the nine contribution measures. Race significantly influenced the odds of any introductions or introductions as a most important contribution being provided (4.7), and whether personal services were provided as a most important contribution (4.10). Average occupational SEI influenced the number of different contributions provided by team members (4.6), the odds any introductions (4.7), and the odds of any personal services being provided (4.10). The proportion of team members in a female-typed occupation significantly influenced the odds of any introductions being contributed, introductions provided as a most important contribution (4.7) and whether information was provided as a most important contribution (4.8).

Finally, age and startup experience significantly influenced two of the nine dependent variables each. Age significantly influenced the number of different contributions provided within teams (4.6) and whether training was provided as a most important contribution (4.9). The proportion of team members with startup experience significantly influenced the odds of information being provided as a most important contribution (4.8) and the odds of any personal services being provided within the team (4.10).

Therefore, average industry experience and the proportion of women appear to have more diffuse influences on startup team interactions and functioning relative to startup experience and average age. Average industry experience was likely important to team members because of the path of relevance principle, that status characteristics most closely related to team members' activities have the most influence on their interactions and functioning. Teams in which members have high levels of industry experience likely perceive and project high status that stems from them having high levels of specific human capital relevant to forming businesses in a particular industry. Teams with high levels of industry experience have higher levels of team functioning and therefore are advantaged over teams with lower levels of achieved status. Gender has been shown to influence group interactions in a variety of contexts and therefore the results for gender are expected.

Less expected is the relatively minimal impact of startup experience. Prior experience starting a business would seem to provide high achieved status that would be relevant to starting businesses. However, perhaps prior experience has limited influence on team functioning because the prior experience can produce either high or low achieved status, depending on the outcomes of the prior startups. Starting businesses can advantage teams by providing team members with more resources to contribute depending on the outcome of the prior business. Business attempts that resulted in operational businesses that were sold for financial gain are likely to increase status and resources and, as a result, contributions. Prior business attempts that result in financial loss could also provide opportunities for team members to contribute more resources regarding what not to do, but would likely decrease status. The decrease in status may reduce the odds of team members recognizing contributions made by partners with prior failed businesses. Additionally, prior business attempts that result in operational businesses still owned and run by team members can reduce contributions because, even though such experiences may increase status, current owners may have constrained time to devote to the new startups.

Below, I discuss the results for each contribution type, interpreting the magnitude of each of the significant effects and highlighting any differences between men and women in terms of how status characteristics influenced contributions (or recognitions of such contributions).

Number of different contributions: Table 4.6

The number of different contributions refers to how many of 8 contributions respondents' teams provided. Each contribution type was only counted once, so this variable measured the range of contributions available to respondents through their teams. In the entire sample, only age and industry experience significantly influenced the number of contributions provided. Each year of average team age, net of other factors, was associated with a decline in 0.048 in the number of contributions provided. This coefficient was small; for a team to lose one contribution type, the average age would need to increase by over 20 years. The coefficient was also double for women respondents (0.08 see column 2) and insignificant for men. A team in which members average one log year of industry experience was associated with 0.21 more different contributions (see column 1). The effect was stronger for women (0.29, column 2) and insignificant for men (column 3). In addition, average occupational SEI was significant in the analysis of women. Each unit increase in average occupational SEI was associated with a 0.006 increase in the number of contributions provided by the team for women respondents, meaning that a team with an average occupational SEI of 50 will have a predicted number of contributions 0.3 higher than a team with an average occupational SEI of 0. No status characteristics significantly influenced the number of contributions provided in men's teams.

Proportion of women, racial composition, occupational SEI, occupational sex typing, and startup experience did not significantly increase or decrease the number of contributions a team provided and therefore these status characteristics do not have an overall effect on the effectiveness of resource exchanges on teams. Average status did not increase or decrease the level of contributions in men's teams. However, women on teams seeking to maximize contributions are most likely to do so when their teams have older members with high occupational SEI and high levels of industry experience. Therefore, average status characteristics have a more important influence on whether women's teams function well. On mixed-gender teams, members may disagree on how status characteristics influence team functioning.

Average Number of Contributions: Table 4.6

This next set of analyses concerned how many different types of contributions each team member provided, on average. Whereas the previous dependent variable only concerned how many different types of contributions were provided by the team overall, this variable concerns how contributory team members were, on average. A team in which one team member contributed many assistance types and everyone else contributed few would have a high value for the number of different assistance types (4.5) but a lower number for the average number of contributions (4.6). Only average log years of industry experience significantly influenced the number of contributions team members provided, on average. Teams in which members have an average industry experience of one log year were associated with a 0.25 increase in the number of average contributions team members provided (column 4).The coefficient for women only (column 5) was 0.23 and the coefficient for men only (column 6) was 0.22. This result provides further evidence that industry experience is a relevant status characteristic to both men and women nascent entrepreneurs.

Introductions: Table 4.7

Four team-level average status characteristics influenced the odds of a team member providing any introductions. The proportion of African American and Hispanic team members increased the odds of a team member providing introductions. The effect of race was quite large. A team in which all team members were African American or Hispanic (1) was more than 15 times as likely than teams with no African American or Hispanic members (0) to have a team member providing any introductions.[37] This sizeable coefficient is likely an artifact of the data. When the data is weighted, there are

[37] See column 1. 15.77=exp(2.76). The coefficients were approximately double when men and women were analyzed separately (see columns 2 and 3).

few minorities in the sample. Most teams are not ethnically diverse, so proportion black/Hispanic is a bimodal distribution with all Black-Hispanic and none Black-Hispanic being the most common ethnic compositions. The bivariate relationship between race and introductions is significant but not as dramatic as it appears in the multivariate analysis. These results are not surprising given the effects of race on introductions found in hypothesis 2 in which African Americans and Hispanics were more often credited with provided introductions, by others and themselves.

Secondly, average industry experience increased the odds of a team member providing any introductions. A team with an average industry experience of one log year was 1.24 times as likely to have a team member provide introductions compared to teams with zero average years of industry experience (see column 1 of Table 4.7).[38] The magnitude of the effect of average industry experience was much smaller than that of racial composition, but it was significant for both men and women (see columns 2 and 3). Teams with high achieved status relevant to their startups' industries apparently have opportunities to meet others helpful to startup activities. These members then provided contacts to their teams and such contacts were recognized as valuable contributions by respondents.

Third, the proportion of team members with a female-typed occupation significantly decreased the odds of a team member providing introductions. Teams in which all members were in a female-typed occupation were only 0.11 times as likely as a team with no members with female-typed occupations to have a team member to provide introductions (0.11=exp(-2.2)). The coefficient was larger for men and insignificant for women (columns 1-3). Because the coefficient was insignificant for women, these results

[38] 1.24=exp(0.22)

suggest that men have low status expectations of holders in female-typed jobs. Holders of female-typed jobs are expected to not only lack business relevant skills, but connections that could help nascent entrepreneurs. Not only do these individuals more often lack contributions and fail to contribute them, but their other team members often fail to provide contributions to those in female-typed occupations. As a result, those in female-typed occupations are unlikely to improve their access to helpful business contacts by forming or joining startup teams unless they join teams with several members with mixed-gender or male-typed occupations and thus reducing the proportion of members with female-typed occupations.

Finally, in the analysis of men only, average occupational SEI increased the odds of a team member providing any introductions. Men's teams with an average occupational SEI of 50 were 20 times as likely to have an introduction contribution as teams with average occupational SEI's of 0.[39] This result is consistent with a status expectations theory, that teams with high levels of occupational status have access to business contacts that are shared among team members.

Therefore, according to a status characteristics interpretation, race and occupational sex composition were relevant status characteristics that influenced perceived access to contacts with individuals that could be helpful in business startup activities. For men, occupational SEI was also a relevant status characteristic for business introductions. To a lesser extent, respondents appeared to believe that teams with high levels of industry experience were more likely to have access to helpful contacts. In contrast, age, startup experience, occupational SEI, and gender did not influence recognitions of introduction contributions.

[39] 20=exp(50*0.06)

The results for whether a person on respondents' teams provided introductions as their most important contribution had some points of divergence from the results for whether a team member provided any introductions. Average industry experience became insignificant. The coefficients for average industry experience were considerably smaller, and the coefficient in the analysis of men was negative (see column 6). Secondly, the negative effect of the proportion of team members with a female-typed occupation became insignificant for men but significant for women. Although the coefficient for race was significant for both men and women for "any introductions", the coefficient for race in the women's analysis became insignificant for introductions as a most important contribution. Finally, the coefficient for occupational SEI in the men's only analysis of "any introductions" became insignificant in the analyses of whether team members provided introductions as a most important contribution. As was the case for "any introductions" average age, startup experience, and gender composition did not significantly influence whether a team member provided introductions as a most important resource.

Information: Table 4.8

Multivariate analysis of whether respondents received any information from their team members was not possible because almost all respondents reported that a team member provided information. Therefore, only the multivariate results for information as a "most important" contribution are presented. Four of the seven average team status characteristics influenced whether a team member provided respondents with information as a most important contribution for men and none of the seven status characteristics influenced whether a team member in the women's analysis provided information as a most important contribution.[40]

In the entire sample, the proportion of women decreased the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution and the proportion of team members with startup experience increased the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution. For men, proportion women, occupational sex typing, average industry experience, and startup experience significantly influenced information contributions.

Men respondents on teams in which half of the members were women (because such a team with all women members is impossible) were only 0.15 times as likely to have a member contribute information as a team in which all members were men (see column 3, 0.15=exp(0.5*-3.73)). This strong negative effect of the presence of women on men's teams was provocative. It suggests that men tended to embrace status expectations that women in startup teams were less capable of providing information essential to startup activities. Further, these men did not compensate for the perceived lack of women's expertise by offering such information to their presumably less-informed team members. Perhaps, such men did not share such information with their women team members because they anticipated women team members playing a specialized and/or support role in the teams in which knowledge of the daily workings of the startups was not required.

In addition to the effect of women, occupational sex typing further depressed the odds of a team member on a male respondent's team providing information. A team in

[40] In the remainder of the discussion of Table 4.8, information refers to information as a most important contribution.

which all members were in a female-typed occupation was only 0.13 times as likely to have a member provide information compared to a team in which all members were in male-typed occupations (column 2, 0.13=exp(-2.2)). This result could reflect true knowledge differentials rather than status beliefs: a team in which all members were in highly feminized occupations such as preschool teacher or nurse may have limited information on how to start businesses. However, such a result was not found in the analysis of women respondents. In addition, consider a two-person team consisting of a woman in a female-typed occupation and a man in a mixed-sex or male-typed occupation. The combined coefficients for gender and female-typed occupations suggest that information was far less likely to be exchanged in such a team relative to a team consisting of two men in non-female typed occupations. Therefore, the first team suggests specialization of gender typical roles within the startup in which information exchanges would be limited whereas the second team suggests more collaboration and exchange of ideas.

The other two significant results for whether information was provided in the analysis of men were average industry experience's negative influence and startup experience's positive influence. Teams with an average industry experience of one log year were only 0.73 times as likely to provide information compared to teams with zero average years of industry experience (0.73=exp(-0.32)). Given that industry experience tended to be highly valued in teams, according to prior results, the negative effect of industry experience was surprising. Perhaps such teams were more likely to contribute a different type of assistance that respondents determined was more important than information. Secondly, startup experience had a strong effect on the odds of whether a team member provided information. A team in which all members have startup experience was over 19 times as likely to have a member provide information relative to teams in which zero members have startup experience (19.8=exp(2.99)). This result is expected from status characteristics theory. Those with high achieved status, specifically prior experience starting businesses, would have higher levels of information contributions within their teams compared to teams lacking this achieved status.

Training: Table 4.9

No average team status characteristics influenced whether male respondents credited a member of their team with providing any training. In the entire sample, the proportion of women decreased the odds of a team member providing any training and average industry experience increased the odds of a team member providing any training, consistent with status expectations.

According to column 1, a team in which all members were women was only 0.3 times as likely to have a team member provide training relative to a team with all men (0.3=exp(-1.23)). The coefficients were insignificant when respondents were separated by sex, but the coefficient was positive for women and negative for men, suggesting that men on mixed-sex teams were less likely to have a member provide training. This result further bolsters my argument made with regard to *information*: that men on mixed-sex teams may view startup roles as specialized by sex with women performing traditional roles within the teams such as bookkeeping or support functions while the men manage more direct tasks. In such teams, the results suggest that men found that their women team members did not contribute essential information or any training and such assistance did not need to be provided to women members, given their limited roles.

These results suggest that women coming from non-business backgrounds seeking to learn more about entrepreneurship by starting businesses with men may find limited opportunities to expand their business expertise. Instead, such women are likely to experience gendered status expectations in which they are expected to perform support tasks and important information and training are not exchanged.

Average industry experience was significantly and positively related to any training being provided, consistent with expectations that those with experience are capable of providing training and will have opportunities in their teams to provide it. The coefficient for average industry experience was larger for women and insignificant for men. For women, average industry experience increased the odds of a team member providing any training. According to column 2, teams in which members average one log year of industry experience were 1.49 times as likely as teams with zero average years of industry experience to have a member provide training (1.49=exp(0.40)).

For women, the proportion of African American and Hispanic team members decreased the odds of a team member providing any training. This result is consistent with status expectations that minorities have less business expertise due to resource and opportunity constraints. The coefficient for the proportion of African American and Hispanic team members was large and provocative. A team in which all members were African American and Hispanic was only 0.02 times as likely as a team in which no members were African American and Hispanic to provide training (.02=exp(-3.94)). This large coefficient can be attributed to the small number of women respondents on teams with African Americans and Hispanics. The magnitude of the coefficient is not reliable, but both the cross-tabulations and the multivariate analysis suggest that proportion minorities is negatively associated with training.[41] These results suggest that racially and ethnically based status expectations negatively influence respondents' odds of crediting minority team members with providing training.

Two team-level average status characteristics significantly influenced whether a team member provided training as a most important contribution. Average industry experience significantly increased the odds of a team member providing training as a most important contribution in the mixed-sex and women's analysis (columns 4 and 5), but the effect was insignificant for men. The magnitude of these coefficients was similar to those for any training. Average age significantly increased the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution in the mixed sex and men's analysis (columns 4 and 6). In the mixed-sex analysis, a team with an average age of 40 was twice as likely as a team with an average age of 30 to have one team member provide training as the most important contribution (refer to column 4, 2.01=exp(.07*10)). The effect of age was surprising, given the results from hypothesis 2 indicating that age was low status. Perhaps older team members are the recipients of training, as the analysis from Hypothesis 2 suggests, in which respondent age increased the odds of crediting others with training and alter age decreased the odds of crediting others with training.

Personal Services: Table 4.10

In the mixed-gender model, only average age significantly influenced whether a team member provided personal services. Average age reduced the odds of a team

[41] The racial composition least likely to report training in the bivariate analysis was 50% African American or Hispanic. Only 5 of 9 women on such teams reported a member providing training (in contrast to 77 percent of women on teams without African Americans and Hispanics and 70 percent of women on teams with all African Americans and Hispanics). Although the small number of cases makes generalizing beyond the sample problematic, the results are consistent with status expectations and suggest examination of diversity might illuminate other findings.

member providing personal services. As I suggested in my discussion of the results for hypothesis 2, the negative effect of age in the case of personal services suggests more of a life course than a status phenomena (unless one uses the Mertonian notion of status, which refers to role rather than to prestige or stratification). The coefficient of age for women was double of that for the entire sample and the coefficient was insignificant for men. A team with an average age of one year older was only 0.86 times as likely to have a team member offer any personal services relative to a team with an average age of one year younger for women respondents (column 1, 0.86=exp(-0.15)).

For women, the proportion of team members with startup experience was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing personal services. A team in which all members have startup experience was almost ten times as likely as a team with no members having startup experience to have a member offer personal services (column 2, 9.7=exp(2.27)). The analysis from hypothesis 2 indicated that much of this effect was driven by respondents with prior experience having a high likelihood of reporting providing personal services. Men respondents also reported themselves as providing personal services more often when they had startup experience (in hypothesis 2), but the coefficient was insignificant and negative in the average status model presented in this table. The insignificance was likely because the coefficient for proportion female was so large (see column 3).

Team sex composition significantly influenced the provision of personal services for some respondents. Men respondents on teams in which half of the members were women (given that men cannot be on teams with all women members) were 18.92 times as likely to have a team member provide personal services as teams with no women members (refer to column 3, 18.92=exp(2.94)). In the analysis of women, the coefficient was insignificant and negative. This result suggests that gendered expectations about women providing personal services in startup teams were more likely to appear in mixed-sex teams than in single-sex teams.

Finally, the proportion of African American/Hispanic, average occupational SEI, average industry experience, and proportion in female-typed occupation did not significantly influence the odds of a team member providing any personal services.

The results for whether a team member provided personal services as their "most important" contribution differed from those of whether a team member provided any personal services, with the exception of the strong gender effect in the analysis of men respondents. Although the coefficient for the proportion of women in a startup team was insignificant, large, and negative for women respondents, the coefficient was large, positive, and significant for men and in the mixed-gender analysis. Men on teams in which half the team members were women were over one hundred times as likely to have a team member provide personal services as a most important contribution than teams in which all members were men (column 6, 146.76=exp(0.5*9.98)). [42] This means that men were more likely than women to report that on teams with women, some members' most valuable contribution to startup activities was looking after another team member's home or children. Arguably, these were often spouse teams. However, the results were not symmetrical for the women respondents, meaning that women were not as likely to report themselves as providing personal services as the most important contribution on sex diverse teams (refer to table 4.20, column 4). I interpret this exceptionally large

[42] The majority of instances of personal services reported by respondents occurred in teams 50/50 sex composition.

coefficient to mean that men did not report a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution except on teams with women, typically spouse teams. Men with women on teams did not report always a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution, but that they were much more likely to report such contributions than were women on mixed-sex teams (refer to Table 4.20).

For men, the coefficient for average occupational SEI was significant and negative, with teams with an average occupational SEI of 50 only 0.015 times as likely as teams with an occupational SEI of 0 to have a member provide personal services as a most important contribution (column 6, 0.015=exp(50*-0.08)). Occupational SEI was also significant and negative for the mixed-sex analysis and negative but statistically insignificant in the analysis of women respondents. These results are consistent with theoretical expectations, that high achieved status is negatively associated with either the provision of or the recognition of low status assistance. In addition, the coefficient for African American and Hispanic was negative both in the mixed-gender analysis and in the analysis of women. The coefficient for women was large, but likely an artifact of the sample's characteristics given than less than 40 women respondents belonged to teams with only African American and Hispanic members (column 5)[43]. This result suggest that the status expectations associated with personal services are governed more strongly by gendered than racial expectations. No other average team status characteristics

[43] Unweighted, 35 women respondents belong to teams in which all members are African American or Hispanic. When the data is weighted, only 28 women respondents belong to such teams. In the bivariate analysis, team racial composition had little influence on whether a member of a woman respondent's team provided personal services as a most important contribution. For all white and all African American/Hispanic teams, approximately 10 percent provided personal services as a most important contribution.

significantly influenced the odds of crediting a team member with providing personal services as a most important contribution.

Summary of the Results from Hypothesis 4a

The results in this section mirrored some of the results from hypothesis two, but also showed new insights about how status influences group interactions in startup teams. Overall, the results provided modest support to hypothesis 4a that average status is positively associated with team members providing assistance. In particular, average industry experience did increase access to different types of contributions. Therefore, those seeking teams that will contribute high levels of assistance are most likely to achieve desired results if their team members have high levels of experience in the industry of their chosen startup. The results also indicated that gender expectations influenced team functioning, often worsening team functioning in mixed-sex teams.

Subsequent analyses highlights whether the effects of gender and race observed in average status analyses were the result of having one person of a particular group on a team (as hypothesis 4b analyses will show) or the result of having a diverse team (as hypothesis 6 will show).

Hypothesis 4b. Maximum Status: Tables 4.11-4.15

I examined whether contributions provided by team members was determined more by average status or whether having only one high-status person (or one high status characteristic) was sufficient for increasing assistance provisions, testing hypothesis 4b. I first discuss the effects of each status characteristic across the contribution types and then review the results from each of the contribution types, table by table.

I found that the maximum log number of years of *industry experience* was significantly and positively related to four of nine dependent variables. It increased the number of unique assistance types given, the average number of assistance types given, the odds of having a team member provide any introductions, and the odds having a team member provide training as the most important contribution (see Tables 4.11, 4.12, and 4.14). The only instance in which industry experience was significant in hypothesis 4a analysis and not in hypothesis 4b analysis was for any training provided. Therefore, having only one team member with high levels of industry experience improves team's access to important contributions and apparently was not hampered or lessened by having inexperienced members on the team, given that average status and maximum status produced similar results. Teams may only need to cross a minimum threshold of industry experience in order to access important contributions from their team members' collective resources and experiences.

Having at least one team member with *prior startup experience* was significantly and positively related to dependent variables in four instances and significantly and negatively related to a dependent variable in one instance. It increased, in the analysis of men, both the number of unique assistance types provided by the team and the average number of assistance provided per team member (Table 4.11). It also increased the odds of a team member providing information as the most important contribution for men (Table 4.13). Finally, having a team member with prior startup experience significantly increased the odds of a team member providing personal services in the analysis of women (Table 4.15). Having a team member with startup experience was negatively associated with the odds of a team member provide training as the most important contribution for men (Table 4.14).

The results show that having at least one team member with experience related closely to startup activities increased access to assistance contributions. Therefore, seeking out those with such experiences likely increases access for individuals with lower levels of achieved status. Additionally, the results show that individuals with high achieved status characteristics need not surround themselves with similarly experienced team members to provide important contributions for their teams, given that the one team members' achieved status characteristics was sufficient to increase provisions of assistance. If high status individuals are harmed by forming teams with low-status individuals, such effects were not apparent in the analyses. If the negative effects of low status individuals were equal to the positive effects of high status individuals, then having only one high status team member would not provide increased provisions of assistance and only average status would enhance contributions.

The occupational characteristics of one team member can influence the level of contributions within teams. The maximum *occupational SEI* was positively associated with the number of unique assistance types provided within teams of women respondents (Table 4.11) and was negatively associated with a respondent giving personal services as a most important contribution in the mixed-gender and men's analyses (Table 4.15). These results are consistent with theoretical expectations and suggest that team members can improve access to assistance, with the exception of personal services, by forming teams of individuals with high occupational status.

Occupational sex composition significantly influenced contribution levels in six instances. Having at least one team member in a *male-typed occupation* was positively associated with the number of unique assistance types provided as well as the average number of assistance types provided in the mixed-gender analyses (Table 4.11). It was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing any introductions and as the most important contribution in the mixed-gender analyses (Table 4.12). Finally, having a team member in a male-typed occupation was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing any personal services in the mixed-gender analysis and providing personal services as the most important contribution in the women's analysis (Table 4.15).

Although the analyses for hypothesis two often showed mixed effects for occupational sex composition, these results suggest that having at least one person in an occupation with more than 65 percent men increased the level of contributions provided by the team. Individuals in female-dominated occupations were more likely to perform personal service contributions than those in male-dominated occupations in the analysis for hypothesis 2 and thus the positive coefficient for male dominated occupations was somewhat surprising. However, the effect may result from how having a team member from a male-dominated occupation influences team dynamics rather than from the member from a male-dominated occupation actually providing the personal services. In other words, a speculative explanation for the positive effect of male-dominated occupation on personal services is that teams with a member from a male-dominated occupation were more specialized than other types of teams. Members from male-typed occupations may engage more in direct business activities and relegate others in more indirect startup activities whereas teams without a person in a male-dominated occupation may have less specialization and be less likely to have team members helping care for others' families and homes.

Ascribed status characteristics produced mixed results, depending on the gender of respondents and the assistance type under examination. *Maximum age* was negatively associated the number of unique contributions provided in a team in the mixed-gender analysis (Table 4.11, column 1) with the odds of any introductions being provided or as the most important contribution for women (Table 4.12). However, maximum age was positively associated with the odds of any training or training as the most important contribution for men (Table 4.14), and positively associated with the odds of a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution for men (Table 4.15). These results of age were surprising given that age was often negatively associated with individuals receiving credit for contributions in hypothesis 2. I had concluded in my discussion of hypothesis 2 that the negative effects of age on high status contributions were because advanced age, net of other characteristics, was a low status characteristic. This analysis may indicate that older rather than the younger team members were the recipients of training. In hypothesis 2, I attributed the negative effect of age on personal services to a life course rather than a status based effect, with team members of advanced ages not having the sorts of family and household responsibilities that would necessitate team members providing personal services. However, the results in Table 4.15 (column 6) suggest more of a status effect, in which older individuals may be relegated to performing personal services for others.

Teams with one or more *Caucasians* were more likely to have someone provide personal services as a most important contribution and less likely for someone to provide introductions (Tables 4.15 and 4.12). The second result echoes the findings from hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 4a that African Americans and Hispanics were more likely to be credited with providing introductions and the first result mirrors that from hypothesis 4a which showed the proportion of African Americans and Hispanics negatively influenced the odds of a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution.

Finally, having at least one male on the team was negatively associated with the average number of assistance types given for women (4.11), net of other factors. This result may preview effects of diversity that will be discussed in the next section. It appears that for women, sex diversity net of other characteristics (such as tie strength) negatively influenced overall team functioning as measured by the number of contributions each team member provides.

Number of Unique Contributions: Table 4.11

Five of the seven team maximum status characteristics significantly influenced the number of unique contributions team members provided. Race and gender had no effect in any of the models. The influence of gender, however, can be seen in the differences between men and women in how the status characteristics of their team members influenced reporting of contributions. For women, maximum occupational SEI significantly increased the predicted number of unique contributions provided. The individual coefficient was small 0.015 (see column 2) but it means that a team with a member with a maximum occupational SEI of 50 contributed 0.75 more unique assistance types than a team with a maximum occupational SEI of 0 and higher occupational SEI levels can produce an increase of one unique contribution type. The coefficient was small and insignificant in the mixed-gender and men-only analyses shown in columns 1 and 3. Women who want to engage in team-based entrepreneurship in hopes of gaining access to assistance are more likely to achieve favorable results when forming teams with individuals from prestigious occupations.

For men, startup experience increased the number of unique contributions provided. Having one team member with prior experience starting a business increased the number of unique contributions by only 0.63 (column 3). Therefore, a woman having a team member from a particularly high status occupation (such as physician) increased the number of contributions slightly more than a man having a team member with prior entrepreneurial experience. Prior entrepreneurial experience had no influence in the mixed-gender or women's only analyses. These results suggest that the path of relevance principle is sensitive to gendered differences in perception with regard to which status characteristics are most directly relevant to starting businesses.

Maximum age decreased the number of unique contributions provided, but the coefficient was small. For a team to lose one unique assistance type, the maximum age would need to increase by 40 years (the raw coefficient was -0.03 in column 1). These results bolster the argument that older individuals have lower status in startup teams than younger individuals. Maximum log industry experience increased the number of unique contributions. Industry experience was the only coefficient that was significant in the mixed-gender, men only, and women only analyses. An increase in one log year of industry experience of the most experienced team member was associated with an increase in 0.16 (column 1) in the number of unique contributions provided. Finally, having a team member with a male-typed occupation increased the number of unique contributions provided by almost one half (0.48 in column 1). The coefficients were insignificant for the men only and women only analyses, but the coefficient was larger for women than for men. This result suggests that women, who typically have lower status with regard to entrepreneurship, can increase access to startup-related assistance by joining teams with individuals in occupations with high concentrations of men, such as finance. Men, who have higher status, may overlook the contributions of members in male-typed occupations.

Average Number of Contributions: Table 4.11

Four of the seven maximum status characteristics significantly influenced the number of contributions each team member provided. Race, occupational SEI, and age did not significantly influence the average number of contributions in any of the analyses. Having a male on the startup team decreased the number of contributions provided per team member on women's teams by 0.93 (column 5). Net of other characteristics, women respondents on all-women teams have team members contributing one more assistance type each compared to women on mixed-sex teams. This result is surprising, given status expectations that men would be credited with providing more contributions. The result likely reflects problems with heterogeneity in which gender diverse teams have communication or trust difficulties that undermine the contribution of assistance or assistance recognition. Having at least one team member with prior experience starting a business increased the number of contributions provided by team members on average by almost 0.5 for men (0.45 in column 6), consistent with expectations. Maximum industry experience increased the number of contributions provided on average among team members in the mixed-gender analysis and the analysis of men only, consistent with expectations. An increase in one log year of experience for the team member with the most experience was associated with a 0.14 increase in the number of contributions provided per team member (column 4). Finally, in the mixed-gender analyses, having at least one team member in a male-typed occupation was associated with an increase in 0.53 (column 4) in the average number of contributions provided by team members, consistent with expectations. Therefore, in many instances, teams only need one member with a high status characteristic to increase the contribution levels and functioning of their startup teams. These results suggest that low status members, to the extent that they are able to form teams with high status members, will likely receive important assistance from team members.

Introductions: Table 4.12

Four of the seven maximum status characteristics influenced whether a team member provided any introductions. Gender, maximum occupational SEI, and prior startup experience did not influence introductions. Having at least one Caucasian on the startup team significantly reduced the odds of a team member providing any introductions in the mixed-gender and women- only analyses. The coefficient for men was approximately equal in magnitude to that of women but fell below conventional significance thresholds (see columns 2 and 3). In the mixed-gender analyses, a team with a Caucasian was only 0.19 times as likely as a team with no Caucasians to have a team member provide any introductions (0.19=exp(-1.67), see column 1). These results shed further light on the relationship between race and introductions previously discussed in hypotheses 2 and 4a. Not only do minorities more often credit themselves with providing introductions and receive credit from others for providing introductions, but introductions are more likely to be provided in all-minority teams than in mixed-race or all-white teams. I speculate that connections are viewed as particularly important for minority nascent entrepreneurs, who are typically underrepresented in entrepreneurship and tend to have less favorable outcomes (Robb 2002). Social networks have been highlighted as especially important for immigrant entrepreneurs (for review, see Yoo 2005, see also Aldrich and Waldinger 1990, Portes and Zhou 1992). Yoo (2005) found that immigrants valued both co-ethnic ties as well as ties outside their ethnic communities, although the latter were more difficult to establish than the former.

Next, maximum age was negatively associated with the odds of a team member providing any introductions for women. A team in which the oldest member was 60 was only 0.30 times as likely as a team in which the oldest member was 50 to have someone provide introductions (see column 2, 0.30=exp(10*-0.12)). This result suggests that older team members have low status and teams most likely to produce introductions are those with younger members. Accordingly, persons wanting to make new contracts through their team members' networks should form teams within individuals no older than themselves.

Maximum industry experience was positively related to the odds of a team member providing introductions in the mixed-gender, men's and women's analyses. In the mixed-gender analyses, a team in which one member has one log year of industry experience was 1.2 times as likely as a team in which maximum industry experience was 0 to have someone provide introductions (see column 1, 1.2=exp(0.19)). This result is expected from both a status and a social network perspective. Individuals that are highly experienced not only have more opportunities to make contacts through their years in particular industries (outdegrees—people they know), but their stature within the community makes them more desirable and visible, thus they are likely to have more indegrees, people who consider them ties (Wasserman and Faust 1994).

Finally, having a team member with a male-typed occupation had a large positive effect on the odds of a team member providing introductions, but the coefficient was only significant in the mixed-gender analysis. A team in which at least one member has a male-typed occupation was almost three times as likely as a team without a member in a male-typed occupation to provide introductions (see column 1, 2.8=exp(1.03)). This result is consistent with status-based theoretical expectations as well as network expectations. Male-typed occupations are high status and therefore are more likely to generate favorable social networks. In addition, because women are underrepresented in entrepreneurship, those with male-typed occupations have more opportunities to meet individuals starting businesses relative to individuals working mostly with women.

Only maximum age and male-typed occupation significantly influenced whether a team member provided introductions as a most important contribution. The other five status characteristics—race, gender, occupational SEI, startup experience, and industry experience—were insignificant. Although maximum age reduced the odds of a team member providing introductions for women respondents, it was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing introductions as a most important contribution in the mixed-gender analyses (see column 4). A team in which the oldest member was 60 was 1.4 times as likely to have someone provide introductions as the most important contribution compared to a team in which the maximum age was 50 (1.4=exp(10*0.03)). This result was surprising, and demonstrates how measurement of dependent variables can influence the results. Perhaps older team members were recipients of introductions assistance rather than providers of introductions assistance.

Having a team member with a male-typed occupation also increased the odds of whether a team member provided introductions as the most important contribution in the mixed-gender analyses. A team in which at least one member had a male-typed occupation was 2.4 times as likely as a team with no members in a male-typed occupation to have someone provide introductions as a most important contribution (see column 4, 2.4=exp(0.88)). Therefore, forming teams with individuals holding male-typed occupations is an important way for individuals to gain access to helpful social networks.

Information: Table 4.13

Most maximum status characteristics did not significantly influence whether a team member provided information as a most important contribution. Only having prior startup experience increased the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution, and only in the mixed-gender and men's analyses (columns 1 and 3). The effect in the men's analyses was quite large: men on teams in which one member has startup experience were almost 6 times as likely as men on teams without prior startup experience to credit someone with providing information as a most important contribution (5.92=exp(1.78)). Given that the coefficient for respondents' startup experience was negative and almost as large as the coefficient for maximum startup experience, respondents were most likely to report a team member provided information when they themselves had not had experiences starting businesses before. In other words, the results were not an artifact of respondents with startup experience crediting themselves with providing information as a most important contribution.

Training: Table 4.14

Only maximum age was significantly associated with the odds of a team member providing any training, and it is only significant for men. A team in which the oldest member is 50 is twice as likely as a team in which the oldest member is 40 to have someone provide training according to men respondents (column 3, 2.61=exp(10*.097)). This result suggests that either team members defer to older respondents as sources of training because of their experience or that older individuals as the recipients of training in the event that they are seen as having low status, as often appeared to be the case from the results in Hypothesis 2.

Three of the seven maximum status characteristics significantly influenced whether a team member provided training as a most important contribution. Race, gender, occupational SEI and occupational sex composition did not significantly influence the odds of a team member providing training as a most important contribution. Having at least one team member with prior startup experience decreased the odds of a team member providing training as a most important contribution in the mixed-gender and men's analyses (columns 4 and 6). In the mixed-gender analyses, having at least one team member with prior startup experience meant that a team was only 0.21 times as likely as a team without an experienced team member to have someone provide training as a most important contribution (see column 4, 0.21=exp(-1.54)). This result is somewhat surprising, given the results from information. One possibility is that the difference reflects semantics in which information and training are synonyms, and those with team members having prior experience prefer information to training. Alternatively, teams with members with prior startup experience may more often have members provide information that is more abstract rather than providing instruction on concrete skills through training.

Maximum age was positively associated with a team member providing training as a most important contribution in both the mixed-gender and male only analyses (columns 4 and 6). In the mixed-gender analyses in column 4, a team in which the oldest member was 60 was almost 1.5 times as likely as a team in which the oldest member was 50 to have someone provide training as the most important contribution (exp(10*.04)=1.48). As stated above, either older team members are viewed by team members as sources of training or they are recipients of training. Finally, industry experience was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing training as a most important contribution in the mixed-gender and women's analyses (columns 4 and 5). In the mixed-gender analysis in column 4, a team in which a member has 1 log year of industry experience was 1.35 times as likely as a team without a member with prior industry experience to have someone provide training as a most important contribution (1.35=exp(0.30)). These results again demonstrate the relevance of industry experience relative to other status characteristics for startup teams. Individuals wanting training from their startup teams apparently need only to find one team member with high levels of industry experience.

Personal Services: Table 4.15

Two of the seven maximum status characteristics influenced the odds of team members providing personal services. Although the coefficient was insignificant in the mixed-gender analyses and the analyses of men, having at least one team member with prior startup experience significantly increased the odds that a team member provided personal services in the analysis of women (column 2). Women on teams with at least one member who has started a business before were over three times as likely as women on teams without members with prior startup experience to have someone provide personal services (3.5=exp(1.25)). Perhaps women on teams with an experienced member are on teams with specialized division of labor in which one member (typically a woman) provides personal services and another member (typically a man) performs tasks more directly related to business activities. Secondly, in the mixed-gender analyses (column 1) having at least one team member with a male-typed occupation increased the odds of a team member providing personal services. A team in which a member had a male-typed occupation was almost twice as likely as a team without a member in a male-typed occupation to have someone provide personal services (exp(0.68)=1.97). The coefficient was small for women and larger for men, but these coefficients fall below traditional significance thresholds. As I suggested with the results for startup experience, perhaps teams with a member in a male-typed occupation are those with traditional division of labor in which one member is often performing support functions whereas the member in the male-typed occupation is focusing on more expressly business activities.

Four of the seven maximum status characteristics influenced the odds of a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution. Having at least one Caucasian increased the odds of a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution in all three analyses (see columns 4-6). In the mixed-gender analyses, a team with a Caucasian was almost seven times as likely as a team without a

Caucasian to have member provide personal services a most important contribution, and the coefficients in the men's and women's only analyses were larger (exp(1.92)=6.85). Therefore, traditional division of labor within startup teams is more common in teams with whites than all-minority teams. Maximum occupational SEI was negatively associated with the odds of a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution. A team with maximum occupational SEI of 50 was only 0.08 times as likely as a team with a maximum occupational SEI of 0 to have someone provide personal services as the most important contribution in the mixed-gender analyses (0.08=exp(-0.05*50)). The coefficient's magnitude was larger in the analysis of men and insignificant for the women's analysis. Therefore, not only are individuals unlikely to receive personal services from team members with high occupational SEI, those with high occupational SEI scores are less likely to receive personal services from others. Maximum age was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution in the men's analysis (column 6). A team in which the maximum age was 60 was over nine times as likely as a team with the maximum age of 50 to have someone provide personal services as a most important contribution according to male respondents (9.23=exp(10*0.22)). This result was surprising given the results from hypothesis 2, which showed the older people were less likely to give personal services according to both self-reports and alter reports. Finally, in the analyses of women, a team member in a male-typed occupation was associated with an increased in the odds of someone providing personal services as the most important contribution (column 5). The coefficient was large, with women on teams with a member in a male-typed occupation over 21 times as likely as those without a member in a male-typed occupation to have someone providing personal services as their most important contribution (21.76=exp(3.05)). This coefficient is large because few respondents reported a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution and most women belonged to teams in which a member had an occupation with at least 65 percent men. Only one woman respondent on a team without a male-typed occupation reported personal services as a most important contribution. Women who belong to teams with a member in a male-typed occupation are more likely to have traditional division of labor in which the woman is primarily contributing care for children and household of male members.

Summary of Hypothesis 4b

Although the results differed between the maximum status and average status, it appears that having at least one team member with several years of industry experience significantly increased the level of assistance provided within the teams and may be sufficient in some instances to foster favorable team processes. The results from testing hypotheses 4a and 4b largely reflect those from hypothesis 2. Years of industry experience was an important achieved status characteristic in entrepreneurial startup teams, seen as directly relevant to startup activities. Team members tended to look to those with high levels of industry experience as experts capable of providing the startup effort with introductions, information, and training (among other contributions) and less likely to be shouldered with assisting other team members with their personal obligations.

The results from Hypotheses 2, 4a, and 4b show that status characteristics appear to be important, but that the effects of status characteristics are highly contingent on who is evaluating them, the nature of group dynamics, and the contribution under consideration. It is interesting to consider differences in the effects of particular status characteristics on a given contribution from individual alters, to respondent self-reports, to average status and maximum status. They reveal a complex and unstable relationship between status characteristics and group functioning. Team members do not necessarily agree on who has more influence and power in their teams and who is providing the most contributions. Similarly, team members may have different impressions of their own contributions compared to the impressions of the alters.

Hypothesis 6: Diversity and Team Assistance: Tables 4.16-4.20

My next team-level hypothesis regarding status composition and startup contributions was that diversity would decrease the amount of assistance team members provided their startup teams. Diversity presents both challenges and opportunities for small groups. From a resource perspective, diversity increases available resources and points of view that teams can use to complete tasks. From a process perspective, diversity can undermine trust and communication. In the analysis of individual team members (hypothesis 2), I controlled for team diversity characteristics. Those coefficients showed mixed effects; with some types of diversity increasing the odds of a team member being credited with providing a contribution and other characteristic types reducing the odds of assistance contributions (refer back to Tables 4.1 to 4.5). For example, sex diversity was negatively associated with the number of contributions team members contributed, decreased the odds of a team member providing introductions and the odds of a team member providing training but was positively associated with the odds of men respondents crediting their alters with providing introductions. Occupational sex typing diversity increased the odds of a team member providing introductions, information, and personal services and had inconsistent effects on the number of contributions team members provided. Age diversity decreased the number of contributions team members provided and the odds of team members contributing introductions. The individual team member analysis suggested that diversity's effect on contributions and team functioning depends on the type of status diversity, with some types of diversity enhancing team functioning and others detracting from it (Foo et al 2005).

Team-level results of the effects of diversity on assistance contributions are presented in Tables 4.16-4.20. The results show variations in how status diversity influenced contributions. The status diversity which most often influenced contributions was occupational sex composition, which significantly influenced seven of the nine indicators of team functioning. Second, startup experience diversity significantly influenced six of nine measures of contributions. Sex diversity and age diversity each influenced four of nine contribution measures. Industry experience range significantly influenced two of nine measures, ethnic diversity only influenced one of the nine indicators of team functioning and finally occupational SEI diversity significantly influenced none of the nine contribution measures. I found it interesting that industry experience diversity was relatively insignificant given the importance of industry experience in prior analyses. This suggests that having one person with industry experience was helpful but having less experienced members did not hurt team functioning.

Number of Unique Contributions: Table 4.16

Only two of the seven diversity measures significantly influenced the number of unique contributions provided by respondents' teams, and each had a positive effect. For men, startup experience diversity increased the number of unique contributions provided by almost 0.5 (see column 3). For women, occupational sex typing diversity increased the number of unique contributions provided by 1.30 (see column 2). These results suggest that diversity did not decrease the level of assistance types available to respondents through their teams. Therefore, nascent entrepreneurs should not avoid forming teams with diverse others for fears that the diversity will reduce overall team functioning in the form of individuals not wanting to contribute assistance because of communication or trust difficulties. Instead, groups from diverse backgrounds more likely have members with unique assets that provide greater opportunities for assistance exchanges.

Average Number of Contributions: Table 4.16

Three of the seven diversity measures produced significant effects for the average number of contributions team members provide. Sex diversity reduced the average number of contributions provided by 1.09 (see column 5) for women respondents. Therefore, net of other characteristics, women will receive higher levels of contributions from their team members on teams of all women rather than on teams of all men. This result is consistent with expectations that status diversity undermines contributions. In the mixed-gender analysis (column 4) teams in which some but not all members had prior startup experience contributed an average of 0.33 more assistance types than those on teams in which all or none of the members had tried to start businesses before. Although this result is contrary to expectations from a process point of view, it suggests that teams with diverse experiences with regard to business startups are more contributory than teams with heterogeneous startup backgrounds, consistent with a resource perspective. Finally, occupational sex typing diversity increased the average number of assistance types by 1.03 (see column 5) in the analyses of women respondents. This result is contrary to hypothesis 6, that diversity would undermine team functioning and instead suggests that certain types of achieved status diversity increase team members' tendency to contribute assistance to startup efforts.

The results in Table 4.16 showed no evidence that diversity reduces the level of contributions among startup teams, with the exception of sex diversity reducing the average number of contributions among women respondents' teams. Therefore, these results did not support hypothesis 6 that diversity undermines overall team functioning. Instead, individuals, particularly those with low status characteristics, can have higher team functioning in diverse teams. I next considered how diversity influences the odds of teams providing individual contribution types.

Introductions: Table 4.17

Two diversity characteristics significantly influenced the odds of a team member providing introductions. Age diversity reduced the odds of a team member providing introductions in the analysis of women (see column 2). A team with one year age range was only 0.88 times as likely as a team with zero years of age range to have someone provide introductions (0.88=exp(-0.13)) and an age range of ten years was associated with an odds ratio of 0.28 relative to a team with zero years of age range (0.28=exp(10*-0.13)). Therefore, age diversity, which from a resource-based perspective should increase access to contacts, actually reduced the odds of team members providing novel contacts to one another. The effect of age reflects more of a process perspective, in which diversity can undermine contributions, consistent with hypothesis 6. The negative effect of age diversity may result from homophily. Individuals prefer to associate with those similar to themselves and age diversity therefore reduces the extent to which team members make contacts within others' social networks.

Occupational sex typing diversity had a large effect on the odds of team members providing introductions, but the effects were opposite for men and women. For women, a team with occupational sex typing diversity was almost 70 times as likely as a team without occupational sex typing diversity to have a team member provide introductions (69=exp(4.24), see column 2). The large magnitude of the coefficient is an artifact of sample characteristics. About a third of the women team members belonged to teams with occupational sex typing diversity. Only 2 women on teams with occupational sex typing diversity failed to report that a team member provided introductions. Therefore, although the magnitude of the coefficient cannot be taken at face value, both the multivariate analysis and the cross-tabulations suggest that women seeking introductions from team members are more likely to find them on teams in which members vary on the proportions of women in their occupations, such as construction worker and nurse. By contrast, for men, a team with occupational sex typing diversity was only 0.29 times as likely as a team with more homogeneity with regard to occupational sex typing to have a member provide introductions (0.29=exp(-1.24)), see column 3). Men and women differed in their perspectives regarding the usefulness of having an occupationally diverse team for obtaining contacts. The results from men reflect more of a process perspective whereas the results of women reflect a resource perspective. Racial diversity, gender diversity, occupational SEI diversity, startup diversity, and industry experience diversity had no effects on the odds of team members providing introductions.

Therefore, most diversity types did not influence the odds of team members providing introductions. Age reduced the incidence of introductions contributions for women respondents and occupational sex typing diversity had divergent effects on introductions contributions from the perspectives of men and women.

Three of the seven diversity measures significantly influenced whether a team member provided introductions as the most important contribution. In the mixed-gender and women's analyses (columns 4 and 5) racial diversity increased the odds of a team member providing introductions as the "most important" contribution. In the mixed-gender analyses, teams with ethnic diversity were almost twice as likely to have a team member contribute introductions as a most important contribution relative to racially homogeneous teams (2.16=exp(0.77)). These results were not surprising, given that racial composition significantly influenced the contributions of introductions in previous analyses (see Tables 4.2, 4.7, and 4.12). As I suggested earlier, social networks may be more important to minority entrepreneurs and minority team members on racially diverse teams may invest attention in the development of their teams' social capital. The results from hypothesis 4b demonstrate that all-minority teams were more likely than teams with some or all Caucasian members to have introductions provided, and thus my analysis suggests that all minority teams are most likely to have introductions provided, followed by racially diverse and finally all-Caucasian teams.

Secondly, startup diversity reduced the odds of a team member providing introductions as a most important contribution in the mixed-gender and men's analyses (columns 4 and 6). In the mixed-gender analyses, teams in which some, but not all, members had startup experience were 0.58 times as likely as teams with homogeneity of startup experience to have a member provide introductions as the most important contribution (0.58=exp(-0.55)). The coefficient in the men's analysis was twice as large and the coefficient for women was small, insignificant, and positive. Men's results reflect a process perspective whereas women's results reflect that the pressures of processes and resources effectively result in a null effect.

Finally, in the men's analysis (column 6) age range was positively associated with the odds of a team member providing introductions as the most important contribution. A team with a 10 year age difference was 1.76 times as likely as a team with no age range to have someone provide introductions as the most important contribution (1.76=exp(10*.06)). Therefore, although teams with age diversity are less likely than other teams to have a team member provide contacts, when they do provide contacts, they are more likely to be the most important contribution of a given team member.

The results for introductions show that diversity often had no effect on a team's access to useful social contacts. However, diversity can increase access in the case of racial diversity. Other types of diversity can have mixed effects, depending on whether respondents were men or women.

Information: Table 4.18

For women, no diversity characteristics significantly influenced the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution. For men, two of the seven status characteristics influenced the odds of a team member providing introductions as a most important contribution. Ethnic diversity, occupational SEI diversity, startup diversity, age diversity, and industry experience diversity did not influence whether a team member contributed information as a most important assistance type. However, men on *sex diverse* teams were only 0.18 times as likely as men on all men teams to have someone provide information as a most important contribution (see column 3, 0.18=exp(-1.7)). In addition, men on teams with *occupational sex typing diversity* were only 0.41 times as likely as men on teams without occupational sex typing diversity to have someone provide information as a most important contribution (refer to column 3, 0.41=exp(-0.89)). These results suggest that men were influenced by gendered status beliefs. In particular, men appeared to believe that information essential to business startup activities is tied to gender (masculinity) and to male-typed occupations. As noted previously in my discussion of information results presented in Table 4.8, men on teams with women or those in female-typed occupations not only more often failed to credit other team members with providing essential information, but also were less likely to contribute such information to their alters. Therefore, these status beliefs not only reduced opportunities for women and persons in female-typed occupations to contribute information and have such information recognized, but they undermined team functioning by reducing the levels at which men contributed such information. These results support hypothesis 6 and the process perspective.

Training: Table 4.19

Five of the seven diversity characteristics influenced whether team members provided training, three reduced the incidence of training and two increased the incidence of training. Four status characteristics influenced the reporting of training by women respondents and only one (industry experience range) influenced the odds of men reporting training.

Sex diversity and startup experience diversity reduced the incidence of training, according to women respondents. Women on teams with sex diversity were only 0.22 times as likely as women on all women teams to report that someone provided training (see column 2, 0.22=exp(-1.51)). Sex diversity therefore appears to undermine team functioning in the realm of training, meaning that women on sex diverse teams were less likely to report either giving or receiving training. This result supports hypothesis 6 and the process perspective, in which gendered beliefs likely cause communication and trust problems which undermine the provision of training assistance. Women on teams in which some, but not all, members have started businesses before were only 0.27 times as likely to have someone provide training compared to teams with homogeneous startup experiences (see column 2, 0.27=exp(-1.31)). This result is simultaneously consistent with hypothesis 6 that diversity undermines training and counter-intuitive, because teams in which some have experience and others lack it would logically be teams that provide opportunities for training to occur. Therefore, this result supports a process perspective rather than a resource perspective on team interactions.

Two diversity characteristics increased the odds of women respondents reporting training. First, teams with a ten year age range were more than twice as likely as teams with a zero year age range to have a women respondent report training (column 2, 2.15=exp(10*.08)). The coefficient was slightly smaller in the mixed-gender analyses and insignificant in the analysis of men only (see columns 1 and 3), Second, women on teams with occupational sex typing diversity were more than nine times as likely as teams without occupational sex typing diversity to report training taking place (9.38=exp(2.24), see column 2). These results contradict hypothesis 6 but support the resource perspective, in which teams with more disparate characteristics have more opportunities to share and exchange assistance, particularly training. According to women, teams with diversity with regard to age and occupational sex composition are teams in which some members lack skills that other members both have and are willing to provide instruction.

Only industry experience diversity reduced the odds of team members in men respondents' teams providing training. Men on teams with one log year of industry experience range were only 0.87 times as likely as men on teams with zero log years of industry experience range to report a team member providing training (see column 3, 0.87=exp(-0.14). As was the case for women and startup diversity, the negative coefficient is both consistent with hypothesis 6 and contrary to intuitive expectations because teams in which some individuals have considerable experience should have opportunities to provide training to those with less industry experience, again suggesting that processes are more influential in determining whether training occurs than resources.

My results show that men and women differ sharply in their impressions of how team characteristics influence team functioning in the form of training assistance provisions. According to my results, men and women on the same teams may disagree as to whether training was provided and who provided the training. In addition, my results suggest that those seeking training from their team members will find it in different types of teams, depending on their gender.

Training as a most important contribution. Only two of the seven diversity measures influenced whether a team member reported training being contributed as a most important assistance type. Startup experience diversity negatively influenced the odds of training being provided as a most important contribution for both men and women (see columns 4-6). This result is consistent with hypothesis 6 that diversity undermines team functioning, but is counter-intuitive. Individuals who have limited business experience are unlikely to receive essential training from team members that have started businesses before. Secondly, in the mixed-gender analysis and in the analysis of women, industry experience range increased the odds of a team member providing training as a most important contribution. Overall, respondents on teams with an industry experience range of one log year were 1.1 times as likely as those on teams with homogeneous industry experiences to report a team member providing training as a most important contribution (see column 4, 1.1=exp(0.1)). The coefficient was twice as large for women only and negative, small, and significant for men only. This result again demonstrates differences in perceptions between men and women, with men reporting a negative relationship between industry experience diversity and any training and women reporting that essential training more often occurs in teams with a range of levels of industry expertise. In addition, this result is contrary to hypothesis 6 and supports the resource perspective.

The overall results for training indicate a mixed effect of diversity on whether respondents can access training within their teams. Many diversity traits have no influence, and others can either improve or diminish access to training, depending on whether men or women were asked.

Personal Services: Table 4.20

Three of seven diversity measures influenced whether a team member provided personal services. Ethnic diversity, occupational SEI diversity, age diversity, and industry experience diversity had no effects on the provisions of personal services. However, teams with sex diversity were almost three times as likely as sex homogeneous teams to have a member provide personal services (see column 1, 2.8=exp(1.03). The coefficient was larger for men than for women, but these coefficients were insignificant (see columns 2-3). Therefore, personal services are most often provided in mixed-sex teams, which mostly are spouse teams (Ruef et al 2003). These spouse teams, then, often have traditional division of labor by sex. Second, teams with some but not all members having prior startup experience were 1.7 times as likely as teams with homogeneous startup experiences to have someone provide personal services (see column 1, 1.7=exp(0.54)). The coefficients were approximately the same magnitude in the men's and women's separate analyses but fall below conventional significance thresholds. Therefore, teams with uneven levels of business status or expertise are more often those in which one or more members assists in startup activities by caring for the homes and children of other members. In other words, low status team members more often provide support assistance and risk having their low status reinforced by the extent to which their startup activities are not directly related to the business. Third, women on teams with occupational sex typing diversity were more than 6 times as likely as women on teams without occupational sex typing diversity to report a team member providing personal services (see column 2, 6.34=exp(1.85)). This coefficient suggests that, according to women respondents, occupational sex typing diversity increased overall team functioning (as evidenced in Table 4.16) as well as access to introductions and training (Tables 4.17 and 4.19) but also may lead to specialization in which one team member provided personal services while others focused on more direct business operations.

Personal Services as a Most Important Contribution. Two diversity measures significantly influenced the odds of a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution. Age range had opposite effects on the odds of whether a team member provided personal services as a most important contribution for men and women. The coefficients were about the same in magnitude. A woman's team with an age range of one year was 0.81 times as likely as a woman's team with no years of age range to have someone provide personal services as a most important contribution (see column 5, 0.81=exp(-0.22). In addition, younger women respondents (refer to column 5 under respondent characteristics) were significantly more likely to report personal services provided as a most important contribution. This result may reflect a life course effect in which younger women were more likely on teams with members (including themselves) that are parents of young children who needed to devote considerable amounts of time to family and household labor.

However, at the same time, men on teams with an age range of one year were 1.23 times as likely as men on teams with 0 years of age range to have someone contribute personal services as a most important assistance type (1.23=exp(0.21), see column 6). The age differential may suggest a power imbalance in which some members are relegated to support functions. The divergent results for men and women suggest potential sources of conflict on gender diverse teams in which men and women differ on expectations as to whether personal services should be provided.

Secondly, as was the case for "any personal services" occupational sex typing diversity increased the odds of women reporting a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution. The coefficient was large, in that women on teams with occupational sex diversity were more than 500 times as likely as women on teams without occupational sex typing diversity to report a team member providing personal services as a most important contribution (see column 5, 538=exp(6.29)). As was the case with previous large odds ratios, the magnitude should not be interpreted literally because it is an artifact of the sample's characteristics. Few respondents reported personal services provided as a most important contribution and most women did not belong to teams with occupational sex typing diversity. Therefore, I am uncertain as to whether the relationship between occupational sex typing diversity and personal services would remain significant with such a large coefficient were I to have a larger sample with more instances of women on teams with occupational sex typing diversity. However, the results do suggest that when team members have occupations that differ with regard to sex composition, they are more likely to engage in gendered division of startup tasks.

Summary of Hypothesis 6

My overall results provide insufficient evidence to support hypothesis 6 that diversity decreased contribution levels, a measure of team functioning. For example, only sex diversity in the case of women respondents lowered measures of overall contributions. Most diversity measures had no net effect and some actually improved levels of contributions within startup teams. The results for the individual assistance types were mixed and varied substantially depending on whether the teams in question belonged to male or female respondents. In fact, if there was any evidence of deleterious effects of diversity, it was that sex diversity tends to undermine team functioning as a result of status beliefs, given the differences in the perceptions of men and women (age and occupational sex composition having opposite effects for men and women), men reporting negative consequences of women on their teams, and vice versa. Beyond the effects of gender diversity, diversity appears to be like any team resource such as human capital or status. That is, it must be effectively managed and its presence alone is not particularly consequential.

Because tie strength was controlled for in this analysis, the results suggest overall that, net of strong relationships, having teams with both men and women reduced team members' odds of providing startup contributions. In other words, individuals should not necessarily avoid forming teams with close ties of the opposite sex, especially if they have high levels of industry experience, but that, net of other factors, gender status expectations tend to negatively influence the contributions (or at least the perceptions of the contributions) of assistance in diverse startup teams.

The effects of having some, but not all, of the team members with some prior entrepreneurial experience had differing effects depending on the contribution in question and the gender of respondents. For instance, startup experience diversity was positively associated with the number of unique assistance types the team provided in the men's analysis and positively associated with the average number of contributions provided in the mixed-gender analysis (Table 4.16). It was negatively associated with introductions being offered as the most important contribution in the men's analysis (Table 4.17) and negatively associated with the odds of any training being provided in the women's analysis or as the most important contribution in the mixed-gender, men's, and women's analysis (Table 4.19). In addition, startup experience diversity was positively associated with offering any personal services in the mixed-gender analysis (Table 4.20). Had I not run the individual team member analysis to test hypothesis 2, a reasonable interpretation of the positive relationship between startup experience diversity and the provision of personal services would be that in teams with startup diversity, the members without startup experience would be relegated to indirect, support tasks rather than those directly related to starting businesses. However, the results from hypothesis 2 showed that startup experience was *positively* related to respondents providing personal services to the startup.

The negative findings associated with startup diversity and training were simultaneously expected and counter-intuitive. Although diversity often undermines the successful exchanges of assistance like the results suggest, a situation in which some, but not all, of the team members have had entrepreneurial experience would seem to be one that would lend itself to training (compared to instances in which none or all team members had prior entrepreneurial experience). Therefore, teams are not always able to capitalize on the potential advantages that having team members with varying experiences can provide.

Age, industry experience, and occupational sex typing diversity also produced mixed effects on startup contributions. Age range was negatively associated with any introductions being provided in the women’s analysis and positively associated with the odds of introductions being provided as the most important contribution in the men’s analysis (Table 4.17), positively associated with the odds of a team member providing any training in the women’s analysis (Table 4.19), and negatively associated with the odds of a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution in the men’s analysis (Table 4.20). Industry experience range was negatively associated with the odds of a team member providing any training in the men’s analysis but was positively associated with the odds of someone providing training as the most important contribution in the women's analysis (Table 4.19). Finally, occupational sex typing diversity produced mixed results, depending on the dependent variable and gender. It produced positive results in the women's analysis in six of nine instances: number of unique assistance types, average number of assistance types (Table 4.16), introductions (Table 4.17), training (4.19), and any personal services as well as personal services as the most important contribution (4.20).

Occupational sex typing diversity produced negative results in the men's analysis in two instances: it reduced the odds of introductions (4.17) and the odds of information being offered as the most important contribution (4.18). Therefore, occupational sex typing diversity improved reports of assistance provisions according to women respondents but decreased assistance provisions according to men respondents. These results suggest that status perceptions of occupational sex composition as it relates to entrepreneurship vary by gender.

The mixed effects of diversity on contributions demonstrate that diversity has the potential of providing more raw materials but can also undermine team functioning. Although the results show some negative effects of diversity with regard to individual assistance types, diversity does not appear to have a substantial effect on the overall level of assistance given within the team (Table 4.16) i.e. the average number of assistance types per member and the unique number of assistance types given. Therefore, given that the results from hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 4b suggest that having at least one team member with high status (particularly industry experience) increased access to a variety of types of assistance, the net effect of an inexperienced entrepreneur forming a team with an experienced team member is likely to be positive with regard to assistance access.

Hypotheses 8-10: Team Relations and Help Provided

Rather than running separate analyses for strength of relationships to test hypotheses 8 through 10, in my previous analyses of average status, maximum status, and status diversity on startup contributions, I controlled for team tie strength using a single measure in which strong ties (kin and spouse) were coded as 3, associate and friend ties were coded as 2, and stranger and non-person (such as an organization) ties were coded as 1. An important finding from the analyses was that the significant coefficients for this variable were always positive, meaning that stronger ties facilitated access to assistance. Even though weak ties are often credited with providing access to useful contacts (Granovetter 1974), weak ties did not improve access to assistance to introductions.[44] Close-tie teams were therefore likely able to capitalize on enhanced communication and trust which then result in high levels of contributions on the part of team members. In contrast, weak-tie teams tended to contribute fewer resources.

In hypothesis 8, I proposed that teams with weak ties will have lower levels of assistance contributions. My analyses demonstrate that tie strength was generally positively associated with the level of assistance provided within teams (for examples, see Tables 4.6, 4.8, 4.9, 4.15, 4.16, and 4.18), supporting hypothesis 8. For example, individuals on teams with a spouse or a kin (3) on average had 1 more unique contribution than individuals on teams with strangers or non-persons (1) (see column 1 in

[44] In analyses not shown here, I also considered whether particular relationship types (spouse, kin, friend, associate, stranger, and non-person) significantly differed from one another in their relationships to startup contributions within teams. I ran my results in a variety of ways and did not find significant results. Therefore, although strong ties tended to provide more contributions, the nature of the relationship did not affect contributions.

Table 4.6 in the average status analyses. The coefficient was 0.53). The coefficient was approximately the same magnitude for men and women but insignificant for women. The results for unique contributions were similar in Table 4.16 considering diversity.

For men, having close ties on a team significantly increased the odds of a team member providing information as a most important contribution. The coefficient was 1.35 in the average status model (see column 3 in Table 4.8), insignificant in the maximum status model (Table 4.13), and 1.33 in the diversity model (see column 3 in Table 4.18). Team tie strength significantly influenced training, but only in the average status model (compare Tables 4.9 to 4.14 and 4.19). In the average status model, the coefficient for the mixed gender analysis was 0.73 and the coefficient for women respondents was 1.17. Tie strength also significantly influenced whether team members provided personal services. In fact, no women respondents reported a team member provided personal services as a most important contribution unless they were on teams with kin or spouses. For examples of significant coefficients, see Tables 4.10, 4.15, and 4.20. Therefore, personal services occur almost exclusively in close-tie teams.

In hypothesis 9, I proposed that weak tie teams would be more likely to provide information and contacts and strong tie teams would be more likely to provide personal services. I reasoned that because information and contacts are likely shared within strong tie relationships but are likely unique in weak tie relationships, weak tie relationships would provide more opportunities for the exchange of new information and contacts. Similarly, I reasoned that strong tie teams would provide more personal services because of their higher levels of trust. Table 3.3, discussed in the previous chapter, presents the bivariate relationship between the single tie strength measure and startup contributions. It shows that stranger teams did not more often provide introductions (either at all or as the most important contribution) or information as the most important contribution compared to other d types. However, Table 3.3 does show that close tie teams (kin and spouse) more often provide personal services. The results were similar in the multivariate analysis. In particular, only on teams with spouse or kin members did women report a team member providing personal services as the most important contribution (see Tables 4.10, 4.15, and 4.20). I therefore found partial support for hypothesis 9 in that strong tie teams were more likely to provide personal services, but they were not less likely to provide information, introductions or training. These results suggest that, all other factors (such as status characteristics) being equal, potential nascent entrepreneurs are unlikely to net advantages in access to startup assistance from team members by seeking to form teams with weak ties or strangers. Instead, they should seek to form teams with individuals with high levels of achieved status from their network of existing relationships. These results support the process perspective, in which communication and trust rather than quantities of potential resources, determine team functioning.

For hypothesis 10, I proposed that teams with more than one type of relationship, such as a team with a spouse relationship present among two members and a friend relationship among other members, would be associated with a decrease in the level of assistance provided. I reasoned that such teams would create asymmetry of trust and communication quality or what some have termed “affective diversity” which could undermine team functioning (Barsade et al. 2000). With the exception of multiple relationships reducing the odds of providing personal services as a most important contribution for women (see Tables 4.10, 4.15, and 4.20), having multiple relationships did not decrease the level of assistance exchanges, contrary to hypothesis 10. In fact, it was positively associated with women crediting themselves with providing any information (see Table 4.3) and men with crediting themselves with providing any personal services (Table 4.5). Therefore, if a close-tie team such as a spouse team seeks additional team members perhaps to bring in more experienced individuals, they will not necessarily undermine team functioning by recruiting team members that are not spouse/kin but are associates or friends. This result supports the resource perspective, that teams with more expansive assets have higher levels of functioning.

Discussion

In this chapter, I tested hypotheses regarding status characteristics and status expectations on the ways in which assistance is given within entrepreneurial startup teams. Unlike many groups often studied in this field such as small groups in classrooms or social science laboratories, top management teams, or units within work organizations, the startup teams are self-selected with most members knowing one another prior to the startup activities. Therefore, the results did not always mirror those found in previous studies, given that I rejected several hypotheses, notably hypothesis 6 and 9. I did, however, find some evidence for status expectations within startup teams with regard to assistance contributions and recognition of such contributions. For example, men were less likely to credit women with providing information and women were less likely to find training in sex diverse teams.

Overall, I found modest support for my hypotheses regarding status expectations and the level of assistance given. Industry experience and gender appear to be important status characteristics that influence the ways in which assistance is given and recognized within startup teams, and occupational SEI and startup experience to somewhat lesser degrees. Given status construction theory's path of relevance principle, which states that statuses most closely connected to the task at hand are those that will be most important to individuals in their judgments of others, it is not surprising that industry experience by far is the most influential status characteristic in determining how team members were credited with contributing assistance (Cohen and Zhou 1991). Although gender does not necessarily have a direct connection to entrepreneurial activities relative to industry experience, gender has pervasive influence on interactions in mixed-sex settings (Ridgeway and Smith-Lovin 1999). Therefore, it follows that gender would influence how individuals perceive the contributions of themselves and others as well as the relationships between group composition and resource contributions. I did not find evidence of race/ethnically based status expectations with the exception that men were more likely to credit African Americans and Hispanics (whether themselves or others) with providing introductions. I found evidence that relationship strength also influenced assistance given. In terms of what teams provided the most assistance access, having team members with industry experience and teams with close ties increased the level of startup contributions.

My results also shed some insight into the relative importance of team resources and team processes, which will be discussed further in the next chapter. The results from hypothesis 4, that team status characteristics increase the level of startup contributions, does provide some support for the notion that teams with more resources have advantages of teams with status/resource constraint. In addition, diversity's effects on startup contributions were contingent on respondent gender and the nature of the status diversity.

Notably, gender diversity decreased the number of contributions provided per team member among women respondents. Some status diversity characteristics increased the odds of provisions of certain types of contributions and decreased the odds of provisions of other types of contributions. Given these mixed effects, the finding that diversity characteristics did not decrease the overall measures of startup contributions was not surprising. These results supported previous research which indicated that diversity can be advantageous to groups or teams because of the increased level of potential resources except in instances where diversity in certain types of characteristics undermines group processes such as communication and trust. Finally, the results regarding how relationships influence contributions to startup activities suggested the importance of group processes over group resources because stronger ties were positively associated with several measures of startup contributions and weak ties never appeared to generate advantages despite their potential for having greater diversity of resources.

The results may provide some interesting insights into individuals looking to start businesses with others that have not yet formed their startup teams. First, achieved characteristics such as industry experience positively influence a startup team's access to contributions by team members. Second, gender expectations do influence resource contributions or the perceptions of resource contributions so individuals should be wary of the potential obstacles to effective team interactions in sex diverse teams, particularly if they are on teams with low levels of achieved status or on teams with weak relationships. Finally, strong tie teams tend to provide more resources than weak tie teams although weak tie teams would in theory have more diverse and wide-ranging resources at their disposal. Therefore, an individual seeking to maximize resource contributions within a potential startup team should seek members who have high achieved status and strong ties.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL OUTCOMES

In this chapter, I focus on how status characteristics of individuals and teams, team functioning, and team relational composition influence whether nascent entrepreneurs abandon startup activities, establish operational businesses, or remain active in entrepreneurship. Variations in entrepreneurial outcomes influence individuals' life chances, social stratification, and the organizational landscape. Exiting nascent entrepreneurship or business ownership does not necessarily indicate diminished economic well-being. Some may sell their organizations or startup for financial gain; others may be lured away from entrepreneurship by well-compensated wage and salary jobs (Bates 2005). However, individuals may leave entrepreneurship because they lack financial resources, time, or human capital to pursue entrepreneurship further, perhaps resulting from low status. These individuals can experience downward mobility if they seek to become employees in organizations (Williams 2004). The proportions of nascent entrepreneurs who become business owners or leave entrepreneurship with either financial gain or financial loss answers the "who" question of social stratification: who gets what and why?

Individuals who start operational businesses or alternatively leave entrepreneurship shape the organizational landscape by the organizations that they establish or by the absence of the organizations not established. New organizations can be a source of innovation, although most organizations reproduce existing organizations (Aldrich 1999). The extent to which status and team processes influence entrepreneurial outcomes, therefore, not only influences the life chances of entrepreneurs, but influences potential consumers, employees, and other organizations that would have encountered the organizations.

I found empirical support for some of my hypotheses, but not others. Taken in their entirety, my results do provide insight into why certain nascent entrepreneurs achieve more favorable outcomes than others. My results suggest that selection pressures for nascent entrepreneurs on teams vary substantially from those for solitary entrepreneurs. Solitary entrepreneurs were more dependent on their own ascribed and achieved status characteristics for success. Nascent entrepreneurs on teams also benefited from status, but the status could come from either themselves or their team members. In addition, the success of startups for nascent entrepreneurs on teams also depended on the quality of interaction among team members. These results highlight the importance of accounting for teams in studies of business owners and entrepreneurs rather than assuming entrepreneurs are solitary owners.

Plan of the Chapter

I present and discuss the analyses testing my hypotheses on entrepreneurial outcomes. At the beginning of each section, I include any methodological notes. Each table presents the coefficients for the three dependent variables: abandoned startup activities, established operational businesses, and remained active in entrepreneurship. The tables also have multiple models, in which respondents are either separated according to gender or team characteristics, and they will be referred to by column number. Before discussing the individual coefficients, I summarize how often particular variables influenced entrepreneurial outcomes. When interpreting odds ratios, I link the results back to the theory and offer explanations for unexpected findings. At the end of each section, I review the findings and discuss their theoretical implications.

Hypothesis 1: Table 5.1

I first hypothesized that individuals with high achieved and ascribed status characteristics would be more likely to have established businesses and/or to have continued participation in entrepreneurship and would be less likely to abandon startup activities. Research has shown that status characteristics tend to improve the outcomes of entrepreneurs and business owners (for examples, see Bates 2002, Robb 2002). However, until this point, research had not demonstrated the effects of status characteristics on the outcomes of a nationally representative sample of nascent entrepreneurs. To test this hypothesis, I first ran only the seven status characteristics that were also available for the team members (those used in Chapter 4): age, race, gender, startup experience, industry experience, occupational SEI, and occupational sex composition. These coefficients are displayed in "Model 1", columns 1, 3, and 5 in pages 1, 2, and 3 of Table 5.1. Overall, I found little support for Hypothesis 1 in my Model 1 analyses. Significant coefficients included race, occupational SEI, age, and industry experience.

Model 1

African American and Hispanic men were less likely to both abandon startup activities and establish operational businesses twelve months after the initial interview ($p<.1$ in both instances). In each instance, African American and Hispanic men were approximately half as likely as Asian and Caucasian men to either establish operational businesses or abandon startup activities, net of other characteristics.[1] Status characteristics theory would suggest that African Americans and Hispanics would be less likely to establish operational businesses because their relatively low status would cause them to encounter more obstacles to business establishment than Caucasians and Asians, consistent with the results. However, status characteristics theory would also suggest that their diminished status would increase their odds of abandoning startup activities, contrary to the results. The contrary results may reflect that, given racial status differences, African Americans and Hispanics are more likely to continue to participate in nascent entrepreneurship because of relatively limited opportunities in the wage and salary market. PSED shows that African Americans and Hispanics participate in nascent entrepreneurship at higher rates than do Caucasians and Asians (Reynolds et al .2002). Racial minorities with limited wage and salary employment opportunities may more often seek nascent entrepreneurship and remain in nascent entrepreneurship, often referred to as low quality or necessity entrepreneurship, as their only alternative to unemployment (McManus 2000, Reynolds et al. 2003).

Occupational SEI significantly increased the odds of women establishing operational businesses (refer to column 3 in page 2 of Table 5.1). A woman with an occupational SEI of 50 was almost twice as likely as a woman with an occupational SEI of zero to establish an operational business.[2] Occupational SEI was not significant in predicting whether women abandoned startup activities or remained active in entrepreneurship, nor did it significantly predict entrepreneurial outcomes for men in any

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[1] For abandoning startup activities, refer to column 5 in page 1 of Table 5.1 0.49=exp(-0.71). For establishing operational businesses, refer to column 5 in page 2 of Table 5.1. 0.47=exp(-0.76).

[2] 1.93 =exp(50*0.01)

instance. These results suggest that achieved status was important for women in order for them to transition from nascent entrepreneurs to business owners. A related interpretation is that women may achieve the most success in terms of business establishment rates in industries related to white-collar (such as service or professional) work rather than those related to manual labor such as construction or manufacturing (Bates 1995, see also Weiler and Bernasek 2001).

Age significantly increased men's odds of establishing operational businesses (refer to column 5 in page 2 of Table 5.1). Men 40 years of age were 1.34 times as likely as 30 year old men to establish operational businesses.[3] The apparent advantage of age was surprising given that age was often negatively associated with startup contributions in Chapter 4. In fact, I reasoned that older persons experienced ageism or age discrimination in small teams, with team members devaluing the contributions of older individuals, net of their achieved status characteristics. The effect of age was not particularly large, but it suggests that age provided men with some advantages in establishing operational businesses, perhaps through status. Although age tended to be devalued in small teams, it may have a higher value in other settings. Age might provide many status-based advantages to men that are not measured here, such as more expansive networks or deferential treatment from outside organizations important for business establishment including banks, suppliers, or vendors.

In the entire sample, industry experience increased the odds of respondents remaining active in entrepreneurship (refer to column 1 in page 3 of Table 5.1). Respondents with one log year of industry experience were slightly more likely than

[3] 1.34=exp(10*0.03).

those with no industry experience to remain entrepreneurially active.[4] As was often the case in Chapter 4, the substantive significance of industry experience was small. The magnitude of the coefficient was approximately the same in the analysis of men and women respondents, but those coefficients do not have significant t-scores. The results suggest that any advantages gained through industry experience accumulate over several years, with small amounts of experience failing to produce noticeable returns.

The results from Model 1 fail to provide sufficient support for Hypothesis 1, which supposed that high status characteristics increased the odds of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes. Race significantly influenced two of the three outcomes for men and occupational SEI, age, and industry experience significantly influenced one measure of entrepreneurial success each for certain respondents. However, gender, startup experience, and occupational sex composition failed to significantly influence any entrepreneurial outcomes in Model 1 analyses. In other words, the results from Hypothesis 1 only produced 5 out of 63 possible significant coefficients, or less than 10 percent support.

Model 2

Next, I added additional achieved status variables such as whether a person held at least a bachelor's degree, the continuity of labor force participation over the last twelve years, and whether they had financial and/or accounting education and experience (see "Model 2" in Table 5.1, coefficients under "Supplemental Status Characteristics"). These variables did not significantly influence the odds of whether respondents *abandoned* startup activities in any instance (page 1 in Table 5.1). The Model 2 variables significantly influenced whether respondents in the mixed-gender analysis *established*

[4] 1.05=exp(0.05).

operational businesses in two of seven instances, but one was contrary to expectations (column 2 in page 2 of Table 5.1). In four of seven instances, Model 2 status variables significantly influenced the odds of women establishing operational businesses, but two were in the opposite direction as hypothesized (column 4 in page 2 in Table 5.1). Finally, in only one out of 21 instances did a variable added in Model 2 significantly influence whether respondents *remained active* in entrepreneurship (page 3 in Table 5.1).

In the entire sample, achieved status related to accounting human capital produced mixed effects on entrepreneurial outcomes. Accounting education increased the odds of business establishment, but accounting experience lowered them (see column 2 in page 2 of Table 5.1). Specifically, accounting education nearly doubled the odds of success (1.9=exp(0.64)) but accounting experience nearly cut the odds of success in half (0.56=exp(-0.59)). Learning accounting principles in a classroom setting seems to have helped nascent entrepreneurs establish businesses through enhanced status or acquisition of skills. Thus, the negative effects of accounting experience are puzzling. Perhaps, they reflect the heightened opportunity costs of entrepreneurship associated with high achieved status. That is, individuals with employment experience in accounting, a prestigious occupation, may be pulled away from entrepreneurship by lucrative job opportunities. Alternatively, their accounting experience may make them more risk averse and hesitant to put forth the resources necessary for business establishment. In addition, these individuals may have higher performance thresholds and thus choose to become an employee rather than establish a business that did not meet their performance expectations (Gimeno et al. 1997). The positive effect of accounting education was not robust enough to remain significant when men and women were analyzed separately, and the negative effect of accounting experience was only significant for women.

When I analyzed data separately for men and women, I found that women did not benefit from either business education or accounting experience, contrary to Hypothesis 1. Women respondents with one type of business education were only 0.76 times as likely as those without any business education to establish operational businesses and those with all eight types of business education were only 0.12 times as likely to establish operational businesses.[5] Women with accounting experience were only 0.33 times as likely as those without accounting experience to establish operational businesses.[6] These results are surprising given the human capital and status advantages women entrepreneurs likely accrue through business education and accounting experience.[7] The most plausible explanation is that women with high achieved status in these areas have high opportunity costs associated with entrepreneurship compared to women with limited business-related achieved status. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was rejected with regard to business education and accounting experience. Women with business education and accounting experience have lower levels of business establishment, which is one specific indicator of economic well-being. These women are unlikely to have significantly worse economic outcomes overall compared to women lacking this sort of achieved status. Therefore these results

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[5] Refer to Column 4 under Operating Businesses. 0.76=exp(-0.27), 0.12=exp(-0.27*8)

[6] 0.33=exp(-1.11)

[7] Other researchers have found surprising findings with regard to women's achieved status or human capital and labor force outcomes. For example, Yoon and Waite (1994) found that the relationship between education and rapid return to the labor force after childbirth was influenced by race, with education having a stronger positive relationship on African American women's return than Caucasians' return. Desai and Waite (1991) found no relationship between education and women returning to work within three months of childbirth. They argued, citing Haaga (1989) that because college educated women are more likely to breastfeed, they were not more likely to return to work within three months. However, they were more likely to return to work between 3 and 11 months of childbirth.

do not help illuminate the relationship of status with economic inequality overall but do have important consequences for the organizational landscape. According to my findings, a disproportionately small number of organizations are started by women with accounting experience and business education.

Business experience was associated with an increase in the log odds of women establishing businesses and spending any time in the last 12 years out of the full-time labor force was negatively associated with the log odds of establishing operational businesses, consistent with expectations.[8] Women with one type of business experience were 1.24 times as likely as those without any business experience to establish operational businesses and those with all eight types of business experience were more than 5.62 times as likely as women without any business experience to establish operational businesses.[9] Women who had left the full-time labor force in the previous 12 years were only 0.43 times as likely as those with continuous labor force experience to establish operational businesses (0.43=exp (-0.85). In Model 2, the coefficient for occupational SEI became insignificant, suggesting that occupational SEI was beneficial only to the extent that it was associated with labor force continuity and business experience. In addition, women out of the full-time labor force were only 0.3 times as likely as those with continuous full-time labor force experience over the last 12 years to have an active startup or operational business twelve months after the initial interview (see column 4 in page 3 of Table 5.1, 0.3=exp(-1.19)). These results indicate that, to the

[8] Time out of the labor force was also negatively associated for women with participating in entrepreneurship, consistent with expectations. In Model 1 for participating in entrepreneurship, having a child under six was negatively associated with participating in entrepreneurship for women. Therefore, having young children only reduced women's log odds of participating in entrepreneurship 12 months after the initial interview to the extent that they do not work full-time.

[9] See column 4, page 2. 1.24=exp(0.22), 5.62=exp(8*0.22)

extent that women lack business experience and labor force continuity, perhaps due to occupational sex segregation and work-family conflict, they were less likely to establish operational businesses. At the same time, the results show that women do not have a net disadvantage with regard to entrepreneurial outcomes (given that the coefficient for gender was insignificant and shows a slight female advantage), suggesting that women with certain types of high achieved status were able to achieve business establishment.

Once the supplemental status characteristics were added in Model 2, a few of the status characteristics in Model 1 became significant. In the entire sample, African Americans and Hispanics were about half as likely as Caucasians and Asians to abandon startup activities in Model 2 (see column 2 of page 1 in Table 5.1, 0.57=exp(-0.56)). Among male respondents, African American and Hispanic respondents were only 0.41 times as likely as Caucasians and Asians to abandon startup activities net of other status characteristics (see column 6 of page 1 in Table 5.1, 0.41=exp(-0.89)). As stated above, this effect likely reflects minority men more often staying in entrepreneurial pursuits because they lack abundant employment opportunities. Age was negatively related to the odds of women abandoning startup activities (see column 4 of page 1 in Table 5.1). Women 40 years of age were only 0.13 times as likely as 30 year old women to abandon startup activities (0.13=exp(10*-0.21)). This result makes sense given that Lerner et al. (1997) found that women often pursued entrepreneurship after their children became teenagers, suggesting that older women's status is seen as more compatible with the role of entrepreneur than younger women's status. Men in female-typed occupations were three times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active than men in mixed-sex or male-typed occupations (refer to column 6 in page 3 of Table 5.1).[10] This result is unexpected, given that occupations with high concentrations of women are lower status than other occupations and often do not produce skills relevant to entrepreneurship. However, this may reflect limited employment opportunities for men in these types of occupations.

Overall, Model 2 added virtually no explanatory power to understanding variations in startup outcomes among nascent entrepreneurs. Status characteristics appeared to have little effect on the condition of respondents' startups twelve months after their initial interviews, producing significant coefficients in only eight out of a possible 108 instances.

Several control variables significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes. The amount of money invested in the startup, the respondents' wealth and income, as well as the nature of the startup (technology and industry) significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes. Interestingly, marriage increased the log odds of men abandoning startup activities twelve months after their initial interview. This result lends support to others' assertions that although marriage often increases the economic well-being of men, the effect is highly contingent on the nature of spouses' employment and entrepreneurial activities (Bellas 1992, Brayfield 1995, Pavalko and Elder 1993). Men typically benefit from marriage when their spouses' employment situation allows them to devote time to supporting the men's career directly or indirectly. These results also suggest that, unlike married women who may be able to pursue nascent entrepreneurship with the security of their spouses' income and benefits to support the family while they

[10] 3.06=exp(1.12).

pursue the business, marriage does not increase men's odds of having such a financial cushion (Aldrich and Cliff 2003). [11]

The Chi-squares rarely reached a level of significance, and given that many of the control variables help explain the variation in entrepreneurial outcomes, I did not find sufficient support for Hypothesis 1. Therefore, individuals' high status characteristics do not provide substantial explanatory power to the variation in outcomes in nascent entrepreneurs' startups. I reject Hypothesis 1.

My rejection of Hypothesis 1 is surprising, given the significant effects of status on group interactions found in Chapter 4. Therefore, I now turn to considering how contribution levels and group status characteristics influenced entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 3: Tables 5.2 and 5.3

Hypothesis 3 was my next hypothesis concerning entrepreneurial outcomes, and I predicted that the extent to which team members provided contributions would increase odds of respondents participating in entrepreneurship and establishing operational businesses and decrease odds of respondents abandoning startup activities. To test this hypothesis, I ran Model 2 from Hypothesis 1 with the inclusion of team size and either the number of different assistance types given (from zero to eight, Table 5.2) or the average number of assistance types (from zero to eight, Table 5.3) provided per team member. These measures overlap, but whereas a team in which one person contributed eight assistance types but no others contributed assistance would receive a low score for

[11] In analysis not shown here, I ran results with several startup-related control measures absent from the model. This did not substantially alter the status coefficients. In addition, I ran the results separately for startups in the service and retail industries and those in all other industries. I did find that several of the status variables were significant in the expected directions for predicting the log odds of abandoning startup activities for businesses not in services or retail. This suggests that the effect of status on entrepreneurial outcomes varies by industry (Bates 1995, Boden and Nucci 2000). However, the limitations of this sample prevent further analyses, such as examining individual industries by gender.

the average number of assistance types given, they would receive a high score for the number of unique assistance types given. Thus, Table 5.2 considers the effect of a respondent having access to different types of assistance through their team on entrepreneurial outcomes and Table 5.3 considers the effect of a respondent belonging to a team in which team members overall contribute high levels of assistance on entrepreneurial outcomes.

Unique Assistance Types: Table 5.2

The number of different types of assistance a team contributed significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in seven of nine instances. It did not predict whether men left startup activities or remained entrepreneurially active. Respondents on teams contributing four unique assistance types were only about half as likely as solo entrepreneurs or respondents on teams contributing zero assistance types to abandon startup activities (refer to column 1 in Table 5.2 under Team Variables. 0.54 =exp(4*-0.15)). Similarly, those on teams contributing four assistance types were 2.6 times as likely as solo entrepreneurs or respondents on teams contributing zero assistance types to establish operational businesses (see column 4 in Table 5.2 under Team variables. 2.56=exp(4*0.23)). Finally, those on teams contributing four assistance types were 1.64 times as likely as solo entrepreneurs or teams providing zero assistance types to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 7 in Table 5.2 under Team Variables. 1.64=exp(4*0.12)). Therefore, teams that manage their resources by contributing assistance and recognizing contributions have more favorable outcomes than solo entrepreneurs or teams in which assistance is either not provided or unrecognized.

Team size decreased the odds of successful entrepreneurial outcomes for women respondents. Women on teams with two persons were more than twice as likely to abandon startup activities as those pursuing entrepreneurship alone, net of other characteristics (refer to column 2 in Table 5.2. 2.54=exp(0.94)). Women on two-person teams were only half as likely as solo women to establish operational businesses or remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 5 in Table 5.2. 0.49=exp(-0.70); column 8 in Table 5.2. 0.49=exp(-0.72)). Women nascent entrepreneurs, net of other factors, were better off working independently than on teams with low levels of contributions. This finding makes logical sense given that collaborative work involves costs and complexities not present in solitary work (Allen et al. 2003, Chatman et al 1998). Therefore, net of the contributions that team members make to women starting businesses, the costs associated with coordinating efforts undermine women's chances of entrepreneurial success.

Average Contributions. Table 5.3

With the exception of failing to predict the odds of men abandoning startup activities (column 3), the average number of contributions significantly predicted entrepreneurial outcomes in the expected directions. For example, an individual on a team in which team members (including the respondent) gave an average of four contributions was only half as likely to abandon startup activities twelve months after the initial interview compared to someone who received an average of zero contributions.[12] Similarly, an individual on a team in which contributions averaged four per person was more than twice as likely to have an established business that someone who received no

[12]Refer to column 1 in Table 5.3 under "Team Characteristics". I calculated this odds ratio by multiplying the coefficient by 4 and exponentiating it. 0.46=exp(-0.19*4).

contributions.[13] Compared to how seldom individual status characteristics influenced the odds of business success in Hypothesis 1, these results show that team processes are highly influential in predicting business success or failure for nascent entrepreneurs. Not only do high-functioning teams outperform low-functioning teams, but they outperform those starting businesses alone as well. Teams that are able to develop the trust, communication skills, and sense of collective efficacy that lead to high levels of contributions have considerable advantages in their business efforts.

As was the case in Table 5.2 testing for the effects of total number of unique contributions, team size increased the odds of women abandoning startup activities and decreased the odds of women's continued entrepreneurial participation, suggesting that net of the level of contributions provided, teams hurt women's entrepreneurial outcomes. A woman on a two-person team, net of other characteristics, was about twice as likely as a woman working on entrepreneurship on her own to abandon startup activities.[14] A woman on a two-person team was only about half as likely as a woman working alone to remain active in entrepreneurship.[15]

Summary of Hypothesis 3

Overall, I have strong support for my hypothesis that teams with high levels of contributions, a measure of team functioning, have superior startup outcomes relative to teams with low levels of contributions and solitary nascent entrepreneurs. High average number of contributions appeared to be more influential than simply the number of unique assistance types given. Therefore, teams in which one individual gives four

[13]Refer to column 4 in Table 5.3 under "Team Characteristics". 2.73=exp(0.25*4).

[14] Refer to column 2 in Table 5.3 under "Team Characteristics". 2.19=exp(-0.78).

[15] Refer to column 8 in Table 5.3 under "Team Characteristics." 0.55=exp(-0.6).

contributions and the remaining members give zero assistance types will be less likely than a team in which each team member provides four assistance types to increase the odds of men remaining entrepreneurially active. Further, a four-person team was more likely to be successful when each person contributes four contributions (even if they were the same contributions) than a four-person team in which each individual contributes one unique contribution. This result suggests that accessing different contributions was important for improving entrepreneurial outcomes, but even more important was having a team in which members were willing and able to be highly contributory.

Thus, the mere presence of team members as potential reservoirs of resources was not sufficient to improve the fates of startups for nascent entrepreneurs in the United States (explaining the negative coefficients for team size). I failed to find consistent evidence that individuals' status characteristics provide them with enhanced entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 1). I did find that the level of contributions respondents reported their team members providing to startup activities (which, referring back to Chapter 4, were influenced by team members' status characteristics) significantly improved entrepreneurial outcomes. When team members are able to activate and effectively manage their pooled resources including status, they are more likely to experience business establishment and less likely to abandon startup activities relative to solitary nascent entrepreneurs or entrepreneurs on teams lacking or unable to activate resources.

Hypothesis 5

My next group of hypotheses (hypotheses 5a-5c) considered the influence of group status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes. I first predicted that high values for average status characteristics would improve chances for successful outcomes (Hypothesis 5a). Then, I hypothesized that teams with high values for maximum status characteristics (meaning having one high-status team member) would increase chances of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 5b). Given that maximum and average team status characteristics significantly influenced startup contributions in the previous chapter, I also wanted to determine if any effects of team status characteristics were mediated through startup contributions. I found that selected average status characteristics increased the odds of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes and decreased the odds of unfavorable outcomes and that average status was not simply mediated through startup contributions. I found less support that maximum status improved entrepreneurial outcomes, and my results suggest that the effects of maximum status were sometimes mediated through startup contributions. Finally, I hypothesized that status characteristics would be more beneficial for high-contributing rather than low-contributing teams, an interaction effect (Hypothesis 5c). While I found that the influence of status characteristics did vary depending on the level of contributions provided by teams, the influence of contributions was magnifying in some instances and suppressing in others.

Hypothesis 5a: Table 5.4

First, I wanted to determine if average status characteristics influenced the fates of startups. Given the results from Chapter 4, which showed that particular status characteristics significantly influenced the levels of contributions team members provided, and the results from Hypothesis 3 in this chapter, which showed that startup contributions improved entrepreneurial outcomes for respondents, team status characteristics should improve entrepreneurial outcomes, even if only through their effect on startup contributions. In other words, if status increases contributions and contributions improve entrepreneurial outcomes, then status should improve entrepreneurial outcomes when contributions were excluded from the models.

Unlike in Chapter 4, where I only included respondents starting businesses in teams, my analysis for Chapter 5 included both isolates and team members. There are multiple ways of assigning average status characteristics values to isolates, and these methods have consequences for the multivariate analysis of entrepreneurial outcomes. First, I can assign values of zero for the average (as well as maximum status) characteristics of team members. For startup contributions (Hypothesis 3), diversity (Hypothesis 7) and relationships (hypotheses 11 and 12), values of zero are justifiable for isolates. A one-person group cannot have startup experience diversity or a spouse relationship, for example. Second, I can assign the respondents' status characteristics for the average and maximum status characteristics. Third, I can assign the respondents' status characteristics and exclude the measures of respondent characteristics from the multivariate analysis, given that respondents' status characteristics are included in some way in the average status characteristics measures. Fourth and finally, I can exclude isolates from the analysis.

I briefly review the results from each technique and highlight points of divergence and convergence and then argue why I chose the technique I did for my final models. I provide a more in depth statistical interpretation of the results for average status in which isolates were included and their respondent characteristics appeared as both respondent characteristics and average team characteristics.

Method 1

When isolates were assigned zero for average status characteristics, the results provided little support for Hypothesis 5a. In only nine out of 63 possible instances did average team status characteristics significantly influence entrepreneurial outcomes (7 independent variables, 9 models). The proportion of African Americans and Hispanics on teams tended to worsen entrepreneurial outcomes, particularly for women. The proportion of women on men's teams decreased the odds of men abandoning startup activities. Average occupational SEI increased the odds of respondents, particularly women, remaining entrepreneurially active. Finally, average age decreased the odds of entrepreneurs, particularly women, abandoning startup activities, and increased the odds of business establishment. Industry experience, which consistently influenced startup contributions in Chapter 4 (although the magnitude was small), did not significantly influence entrepreneurial outcomes in any of the nine models. In addition, occupational sex composition and proportion with startup experience had no effect on any entrepreneurial outcome.

I controlled for team size. As was the case in the results for Hypothesis 3, team size increased women's odds of abandonment and decreased their odds of establishment, suggesting that net of other factors, women nascent entrepreneurs achieved more favorable outcomes when they started businesses on their own.

Assigning isolates values of zero for average status characteristics may not be justified given that solitary entrepreneurs can be considered one-person teams in which the average status characteristics would be composed of their own characteristics (their own gender, race, industry experience, startup experience, age, and occupational characteristics). Therefore, I also tested Hypothesis 5 using the same model as above but substituted the values for average status characteristics with respondents' own status characteristics for isolates. In this model, isolates' status characteristics appeared twice, under respondent characteristics and under team characteristics.

Method 2

The differences between this analysis and the one described above are first demonstrated by an increase in the number of significant coefficients from 9 of 63 to 16 of 63. In addition, closer inspection of the significant coefficients shows that analyses run this way produced results that would more logically follow from results displayed in Chapter 4 and Hypothesis 3 in Chapter 5.

When solo nascent entrepreneurs were assigned their own status characteristics for average status, industry experience significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in each of the nine models in the expected directions. Therefore, it reduced men's and women's odds of abandoning activities, increased their odds of business establishment, and increased their odds of remaining entrepreneurially active. In addition, gender composition significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in three instances.

Average occupational SEI increased men's odds (at the $p<.1$ level) of remaining entrepreneurially active. The proportion of team members in female-typed occupations significantly increased the odds of men and women (women at the $p<.1$ level) remaining entrepreneurially active. These results, showing that industry experience, gender, and occupational characteristics significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes, were more consistent with the analysis from Chapter 4 which showed that gender and achieved status significantly influenced contributions and contribution recognitions.

Next, I considered whether the effects of average status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes were mediated through contributions or if they had independent influences. Results from the previous chapter showed that certain status characteristics significantly influenced contribution levels or recognition of contribution levels within startup teams. However, the effect of status characteristics may not be confined to within-team interactions. Advantages of high status are also likely to occur in interactions with those outside the startup team such as bankers, investors, customers, employees, suppliers, vendors, or other business partners. Such individuals may treat those with high status characteristics with more deference than those with low status characteristics, perhaps giving them more favorable terms on business exchanges. These advantages might then be reflected in variations in establishment and abandonment odds among nascent entrepreneurs. Alternatively, high status may only improve entrepreneurial outcomes to the extent that they increase provisions of assistance by team members.

To consider mediating effects, I included a measure of startup contributions in the model run above. I ran the analysis including the average number of contributions, which significantly influenced outcomes in 8 of 9 models in analysis shown in Table 5.3, and with the number of different contributions, which significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in 7 of 9 models in analysis shown in Table 5.2 testing Hypothesis 3. In the 18 models, I found almost no evidence of mediating effects. The significant coefficients listed in the previous paragraph remained significant and did not substantially change in magnitude. In some instances, the measures for contributions were insignificant.

Therefore, status influenced both startup contributions and entrepreneurial outcomes, and status effects were not mediated through contributions.[16]

Method 3

I ran my analysis testing Hypothesis 5a one additional way, excluding the measures of respondent characteristics. Respondent characteristics of both team members and isolates were included in the measures of average status characteristics. Running the analysis this way produced eight differences from the previous method. Average industry experience remained significant in most instances, but the significance level was reduced to $p<.1$ in predicting women abandoning startup activities and establishing operational business (columns 3 and 5) and was insignificant in predicting whether men remained entrepreneurially active (column 9). In addition, gender became insignificant in the analysis predicting whether women abandoned startup activities (column 2). Race became significant in the model predicting whether women established operational business, with proportion of minorities increasing women's odds of establishing operational businesses. The proportion of African Americans and Hispanics became significant and negative in the model predicting whether men established operational businesses. The proportion of teammates in a female-typed occupation became insignificant in the model predicting whether respondents remained entrepreneurially active (for the entire sample, women, and men). Finally, average occupational SEI became insignificant in predicting whether men remained entrepreneurially active. In

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[16] In analysis not shown here, I also ran the models only with team members, excluding isolates. I deemed this necessary to rule out the possibility that the lack of mediating effects was due to isolates' inclusion, given that they vary in status but all have values of zero for contributions. My analysis showed that when only team members are included, average industry experience remains significant in the mixed-gender models with the inclusion of startup contributions and therefore was not mediated through startup contributions. When isolates are excluded, there was not a sufficient number of cases to run analyses separately for men and women.

total, status characteristics significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in 13 out of 63 possible instances.

I found some evidence that average team status characteristics' effects on entrepreneurial outcomes were partially mediated by startup contributions in the analysis in which respondent characteristics variables were excluded from the analysis. Race became negative (rather than positive) in the model predicting whether women established operational businesses (column 5) when average contributions were included in the model (but remained significant and positive when total number of unique contributions were included). Average occupational SEI became significant and positive ($p<.1$) when either average contributions or total number of unique contributions were included. Finally, the proportion of team members in a female-typed occupation became significant and positive ($p<.1$) when total number of unique contributions was included.

Detailed Discussion of Average Status and Occupational Outcomes: Table 5.4

I used the analysis in which isolates were included, given their own status characteristics for team average status characteristics, and respondent traits were also included as my final model, Method 2. This final model allowed me to consider the effects of a respondent being on a team in which the average status was different from their own status, to compare single and multi-person teams, and to run models separately for men and women respondents, to discover any important gender differences.

Mixed Gender Abandonment, Column 1. Only average industry experience significantly influenced the odds of abandonment in the mixed-gender analysis. A respondent on a team with an average industry experience of one log year was only 0.73 times as likely as a respondent on a team with an average industry experience of zero to abandon startup activities (refer to column 1, 0.73=exp(-0.32). However, in this model, the respondent's industry experience increased the odds of abandoning startup activities. Therefore, respondents on teams with an average industry experience of one year (or isolates, who by definition have identical values for respondent and team status traits) were 0.89 times as likely as those on teams with no industry experience to abandon startup activities (refer to column 1, 0.89=exp(-0.32+0.2)). This odds ratio was approximately the same as when respondent characteristics were excluded from the model, (Method 3). In other words, according to this analysis, respondents experienced the greatest reduction in the odds of abandoning startup activities when their own industry experience was low but their teams' average industry experience was high. Similarly, respondents experienced the greatest increase in the odds of abandoning startup activities when their own industry experience was high but their teams' average industry experience was low. More experienced team members may become dissatisfied with the rate of progress of the startups and abandon activities in search of other opportunities whereas less experienced members are likely to remain committed to startup efforts as a way to achieve financial success they may not experience otherwise, given their achieved status. No other average status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of respondents abandoning startup activities in the mixed-gender analysis.

Women Only Abandonment, Column 2. The results predicting women's odds of abandoning startup activities differed from the mixed-gender analysis. For women, the odds of abandoning startup activities were also influenced by team size and the proportion of women on a team. Net of other status characteristics, women on two-person teams were more than twice as likely as women pursuing nascent entrepreneurship alone to abandon startup activities (refer to column 2, 2.26=exp(0.82)). The proportion of women also significantly increased the odds of women abandoning startup activities. Net of other characteristics, women on teams with all women (including one-person female "teams") were almost 5 times as likely as women on teams with men as half of the team (such as spouse teams) to abandon startup activities.[17] So far, this is the first result suggesting that gendered status expectations hurt women's entrepreneurial outcomes and that women can increase their chances of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes by forming teams with men. In some ways, this result is surprising given that, in Chapter 4, mixed-sex teams tended to have gendered division of contributions and fewer exchanges of information and training. In addition, the coefficient for *respondent* industry experience was insignificant (although approximately the same size as in the mixed-gender analysis) meaning that women with high levels of industry experience did not increase their odds of abandoning startup activities by joining teams with low industry experience significantly more than women with low levels of industry experience. Expressed differently, belonging to a team with high average levels of industry experience reduced the odds of abandoning startup activities equally for women of varying levels of industry experience. Therefore, women minimized their odds of discontinuing entrepreneurial activities when they belonged to two-person teams with a male alter with considerable industry experience.

Men Only Abandonment, Column 3. In the model predicting whether men abandoned startup activities, average industry experience decreased the odds of

[17] Refer to column 2. All women teams=24.29=exp(3.19). Equal proportion of men and women on teams=4.93=exp(0.5*3.19). 24.29/4.93=4.93.

abandonment, with respondents' industry experience increasing the odds of abandonment. The proportion of women on the team also significantly decreased the odds of abandonment.

Men were more likely to discontinue entrepreneurial activities when their own industry experience exceeds that of their teams', perhaps in search of well-compensated employee positions in that industry. For men on teams in which their own industry experience was equal to that of their team's average experience (including isolates), the effect of industry experience was not large, but was significant. A man with an industry experience of one log year on a team with an average industry experience of one log year was 0.87 times as likely as a man with no experience on a team with no experience to abandon startup activities (refer to column 1. 0.87=exp(-0.39+0.26)). Men with the highest odds of abandonment were those with high levels of industry experience on teams with low average levels of experience and men with the lowest odds of abandonment were those with low levels of experience on teams with high average levels of experience.

In the previous analysis (column 2), women benefited by having men on their teams but were negatively affected by having other women on their teams in terms of the odds of abandoning startup activities. For men, having women on their teams decreased their odds of startup abandonment. Men on teams in which half of the members were women (such as two-person spouse teams) were only 0.37 times as likely to abandon startup activities relative to men on all-male teams (including one-person "teams") (refer to column 3. 0.37=exp(0.5*-1.99)). Therefore, although team interactions revealed expectations on the part of men and women that women had lower status within entrepreneurship than men, women's presence on startup teams improved men's entrepreneurial outcomes. Although women did not always receive credit for their contributions, they provided advantages to men on startup teams.

Combined with the results from the women's analysis, respondents were less likely to abandon startup activities when they were on teams with members of the opposite gender, net of other characteristics. This result was contrary to status-based expectations regarding women having low status in business and entrepreneurship. In Chapter 4, the results showed evidence of gendered expectations with regard to business activities in that women were less likely to be credited by men with providing information and women were more likely to credit themselves with providing personal services. These opposite-sex teams are mostly spouse teams (Ruef et al. 2003) and therefore spouse teams are apparently less willing to discontinue startup efforts within twelve months relative to other types of teams.

Interestingly, the coefficient for married was strong and positive; suggesting that, net of men having women on their team (sometimes their wives), marriage substantially increased their odds of abandoning startup activities. In other words, married male nascent entrepreneurs may fare better if their spouses are members of their startup teams as opposed to being informally involved. Married men whose spouses are not on the startup teams may be encouraged to discontinue startup activities in favor of more predictable income as employees whereas unmarried men have fewer financial obligations and therefore are less likely to abandon their startup activities.

Mixed Gender Business Establishment, Column 4. Next, I considered how average team status characteristics influenced whether respondents established operational businesses. Five average status characteristics had no effect, but team's average industry experience increased the odds of business establishment as did the proportion of members in a female-typed occupation ($p<.1$).

Respondents with the greatest odds of establishing businesses were those with little industry experience on teams with high average levels of experience. Those with the smallest odds of establishing operational businesses were respondents with high levels of industry experience on teams with low average levels of industry experience. Respondents on teams with an average industry experience of one log year with one log year of industry experience themselves (including one-person teams) were 1.13 times as likely as those without any industry experience on teams with no average industry experience to establish operational businesses (refer to column 4. 1.13=exp(0.25+-0.13)). Those on teams with one log year of average industry experience without any such experience themselves were 1.28 times as likely as those on teams with no industry experience without any experience themselves to establish operational businesses (refer to column 4. 1.28=exp(0.25)). The results were similar to those for abandoning startup activities. They suggest that industry experience of both respondents and their team members influenced the fates of business startups and that high-status individuals' business success can be impeded by lower status individuals.

In addition, those on teams in which all team members had occupations with high proportions of women were almost twice as likely as those on teams with no members in female-typed occupations to establish operational businesses (refer to column 4, 1.97=exp(0.68)). The coefficient for respondents' occupational sex composition was insignificant. I was surprised by this result, given that female-typed occupations are typically lower status and less likely to provide skills relevant to business ownership. An explanation for this contrary finding is that teams with high proportions of members in female-typed occupations are mixed-gender spouse teams (note that the coefficient for gender composition is insignificant for this particular equation).

Women Only Establishment, Column 5. Only average industry experience significantly influenced women's odds of establishment. Respondents' own industry experience did not significantly influence the odds of establishment, meaning that the effects of team average industry experience were the same for women of different experience levels. Women on teams with an average industry experience of one log year were 1.34 times as likely as women on teams without any average industry experience to establish operational businesses, net of other characteristics (refer to column 5, 1.34=exp(0.30)). These results reinforce the notion that industry experience is a highly relevant status characteristic with regard to entrepreneurship, influencing not only group interactions but entrepreneurial outcomes.

Men Only Establishment, Column 6. Only industry experience significantly influenced men's odds of establishing operational businesses. Men's own industry experience as well as their team's average industry experience significantly influenced their odds of establishing operational businesses. Men with one log year of industry experience and an average of one log year from their team (including isolates) were 1.15 times as likely as men with no industry experience on teams with no average industry experience to establish operational businesses (refer to column 6, 1.15=exp(0.35-0.20)). The coefficient for respondents' industry experience was negative and the coefficient for teams' industry experience was positive, meaning that men were most advantaged when the average status, in terms of industry experience, exceeded their own and were most disadvantaged when their industry experience was higher than that of their team members' average.

Mixed Gender Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 7. Two status characteristics significantly influenced whether respondents remained entrepreneurially active: occupational sex composition and industry experience. Both had negative coefficients for respondent traits and positive coefficients for team average traits, as has been the case many times in the results for Hypothesis 5a. Respondents without industry experience on teams with one log year of industry experience were 1.34 times as likely as those without industry experience on teams without industry experience to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 7, 1.34=exp(0.29)). Those with both one log year of industry experience on teams with an average of one log year of industry experience (including isolates) were 1.15 times as likely as those without industry experience on teams without industry experience to remain entrepreneurially active (1.15=exp(0.29+-0.15)). Finally, those with one log year of industry experience on teams with an average of 0.2 years of industry experience (the minimum average experience possible for a respondent on a five-person team in which all other members lacked industry experience) were 0.91 as likely as those on teams without industry experience with no industry experience themselves to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 7, 0.91=exp(-0.15+0.02*0.29)). Therefore, respondents were most likely to remain entrepreneurially active when they had less experience than their team and were least likely to remain active when they had more experience than their team.

Respondents on teams with all members holding female-typed occupations (and therefore must also hold such an occupation themselves) were 1.32 times as likely as those not in female-typed occupations on teams with no members in a female-typed occupation to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 7, 1.32=exp(0.90-0.62)). Respondents without female-typed occupations on teams with four alters in female-typed occupations were twice as likely as those who were not in female-typed occupations with no members in female-typed occupations to remain entrepreneurially active (2.06=exp(0.8*0.90)). Finally, those with female-typed occupations in which they were the only members (out of 5) to have such an occupation were only 0.65 times as likely as those without a female-typed occupation on teams with no members in a female-typed occupation to remain entrepreneurially active (0.65=exp(0.90*0.2+-0.62)). Therefore, respondents were least likely to remain entrepreneurially active when they had female-typed occupations but their teammates did not and were most likely to remain entrepreneurially active when their colleagues had female-typed occupations but they did not. Again, this is a surprising finding given that female-typed occupations such as nursing, teaching, and clerical work are not considered to provide skills helpful to entrepreneurship. As was the case for mixed-gender business establishment (column 4), the coefficient for gender composition is insignificant and therefore the results may reflect the benefits of mixed-gender teams.

Women Only Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 8. The coefficients in this analysis for team industry experience and occupational sex composition were very similar to those in the mixed-gender analysis presented in column 7 and do not warrant interpretation of individual odds ratios. However, given that the variable for respondent's occupational sex typing was not significant, the effect of having team members in female-typed occupations was the same for women regardless of the sex typing of their own occupation. In addition, team size and the proportion of women on their team each decreased their odds of remaining entrepreneurially active, as was the case in column 2 predicting abandoning startup activities. Net of other characteristics, women on two-person teams were only 0.5 times as likely as women pursuing nascent entrepreneurship alone to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 8, 0.5=exp(-0.70)). Women on teams with 50 percent men (such as spouse teams) were 3.46 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active as women on all-women teams (including solos).[18] Therefore, whether women remain entrepreneurially active depends on their teams' size, gender composition, occupational sex composition, and their teams' average as well as their own industry experience. The results appear to suggest that women achieve the best outcomes when they form teams with men, preferably spouses, with high levels of industry experience.

Men Only Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 9. For men, industry experience, occupational SEI, and occupational sex typing characteristics of respondents and team members significantly influenced the odds of whether respondents remained entrepreneurially active. As has been the case in the other eight instances, teams' average industry experience improved the odds of a favorable entrepreneurial outcome only slightly more than respondent's own industry experience decreased the odds of a favorable entrepreneurial outcome. Therefore, respondents fared best when their industry experience was less than that of their teams' average.

[18] Refer to column 8. 50 percent women=0.29=exp(0.5*-2.48). 100 percent women=0.08=exp(-2.48). 0.29/0.08=3.46.

For the occupational characteristics, the negative effects of the respondent's own characteristics were greater than the positive effects of the team's average characteristics. A respondent with a female-typed occupation who was the only member of a five-person team with a female-typed occupation was only 0.14 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active as a respondent without a female-typed occupation in which no team members have a female-typed occupation (refer to column 9, 0.14=exp(-2.32+.2*1.72)). A respondent in which all members, including himself, were in a female-typed occupation was only 0.55 times as likely as a respondent not in a female-typed occupation with no members in female-typed occupations to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 9. 0.55=exp(-2.32+1.72)). A respondent on a five-person team in which all members but him were in a female-typed occupation was almost four times as likely as a respondent without a female-typed occupation on a team with no members in a female-typed occupation to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 9, 3.95=exp(1.72*0.8)).

One interpretation of the surprising effects of female-typed occupation is that the teams most likely to remain active are mixed-gender teams with members having occupations more or less typical for their sex. This interpretation helps explain both the negative effect of proportion women for women respondents and the negative influence of respondents' female-typed job for men. Women fared best when they had male team members and had some members in female-typed occupations. For women, having a female-typed occupation did not decrease their chances of continued entrepreneurial activity. Men fared best when a member of their team besides themselves had a female-typed occupation.

The results show that men were most likely to remain entrepreneurially active when their teams' average SEI exceeded their own. A respondent with the greatest odds of remaining entrepreneurially active (mathematically) would be one with an SEI of zero on a team with 4 members with an SEI of 100 (average of 80). This individual would be almost 13 times as likely as a respondent with an SEI of zero and a team average SEI of zero to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 9, 12.93=exp(80*0.03)). An individual with the smallest odds of remaining entrepreneurially active would have an SEI of 100 with four team members with an SEI of zero (average of 20). They would be only 0.03 times as likely as an individual in which team average SEI and their own SEI were zero to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 9, 0.03=exp(100*-0.041+0.03*0.20)). Therefore, men were most likely to remain entrepreneurially active when their team's experience and occupational SEI exceeded their own and when their alters, but not themselves, had female-typed occupations.

*Summary of the Results from Hypothesis 5a, Table 5.4***.**

I found that selected average status characteristics, especially industry experience, occupational SEI, occupational sex composition, and gender composition influenced entrepreneurial outcomes in expected directions, with high-status characteristics leading to better entrepreneurial outcomes than low-status characteristics. In many instances, respondent's own status characteristics had a net negative effect on entrepreneurial outcomes, meaning respondents improved their entrepreneurial outcomes by joining teams with members of higher status than themselves and worsened their entrepreneurial chances by forming teams with low-status alters. My findings also suggest that the most favorable entrepreneurial outcomes occur when respondents form teams with members of the opposite sex with occupations typical for their sex.

Hypothesis 5b

In Hypothesis 5a, I argued that having a team with overall high status characteristics, high average status, would improve the outcomes of nascent entrepreneurs. In Hypothesis 5b, I argued that perhaps having only one high-status individual would be sufficient to increase chances of successful entrepreneurial outcomes. If the first instance was primarily true but the second was not, it would suggest that low-status team members are liabilities to high-status team members. In other words, if average status improved entrepreneurial outcomes but maximum status did not, then high-status entrepreneurs should avoid low-status entrepreneurs as team members because those individuals would diminish high-status individuals' ability to capitalize on their status. By contrast, if there were support for both Hypothesis 5a and 5b, it would suggest that low-status team members are not detrimental to the business efforts of high-status individuals, meaning that high-status individuals improve the entrepreneurial outcomes of low-status individuals but that low-status individuals do not worsen entrepreneurial outcomes of high-status individuals.

These results had some similarities with average status, but also had important differences. I proceed by briefly discussing differences in significant coefficients, depending on how isolates and respondent characteristics were handled in the analysis. As was the case for Hypothesis 5a, I provide a more detailed interpretation of the model in which isolates were included with their own values as the maximum status values and respondent characteristics were included. These coefficients are presented in Table 5.5.

Method 1

When isolates' maximum status was coded as 0, 9 of 63 coefficients were significant. No maximum status variables significantly influenced the odds of abandoning startup activities in the mixed-gender or men's analyses. The odds of women abandoning startup activities were significantly reduced by having at least one team member in a male-typed occupation. In the mixed-gender analysis predicting operational status, maximum age and having a team member in a male-type occupation both significantly increased the odds of operational status. For women, having a male on their team odds of establishment and having a person in a male-typed occupation increased odds of business establishment. For men, only maximum age significantly increased the odds of business establishment. No maximum status variable significantly predicted the odds of remaining entrepreneurially active in the mixed-gender analysis.

For women, maximum occupational SEI and having a team member in a male-typed occupation significantly increased the odds of women remaining entrepreneurially active. Finally, having any male in a team (remember that for this analysis, men isolates were coded as zero for this variable) was negatively related to remaining entrepreneurially active. In other words, teams worsened men's entrepreneurial outcomes unless they were in teams with no other men. These results suggest that having a team member in a male-typed occupation is important for entrepreneurial outcomes, and is particularly consequential for the outcomes of women.

Method 2

Next, I coded isolates' maximum status as their own status characteristics rather than zero. The results differed a great deal from those discussed in the previous paragraph. First, whereas industry experience never significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes when isolates' team traits were coded as 0, maximum industry experience influenced startup outcomes in predicted directions in 6 of 9 instances: mixed-gender abandonment, women-only abandonment, mixed-gender establishment, women-only establishment, mixed-gender entrepreneurially active, and women-only entrepreneurially active. In other words, maximum industry experience never significantly influenced men's entrepreneurial outcomes. Second, I found ten out of 63 significant coefficients, rather than nine out of 63.

Having a team member in a male-typed occupation only improved entrepreneurial outcomes in two instances rather than four. Having a team member with a male-typed occupation significantly improved women's odds of business establishment and continuance, but did not significantly decrease women's odds of abandonment or significantly increase the odds of establishment in the entire sample.

Maximum age was negatively associated ($p<.1$) with men abandoning startup activities (column 3) and positively associated ($p<.1$) with women's establishment. Maximum age became insignificant in the model predicting establishment for both men and women and in the model predicting establishment for men.

Maximum SEI became insignificant in the model predicting women remaining in entrepreneurial activities but became significant ($p<.1$) in predicting men remaining in entrepreneurial activities.

Finally, having any male on a team became insignificant in predicting men remaining in entrepreneurial activities. I selected this to be my final model and the coefficients appear in Table 5.5.

Next, I checked for mediating effects of startup contributions on the relationship between maximum status and entrepreneurial outcomes. I found some evidence that the inclusion of startup contributions altered the relationship between maximum status and entrepreneurial outcomes, but not all changes reflect true mediating effects. True mediating effects would require that a status characteristic was significantly related to startup contributions and to entrepreneurial outcomes but was not significantly related to entrepreneurial outcomes when startup contributions were included in the model. Some differences I found in the significance of status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes depending on whether contributions were included were either not significantly related to contributions or contributions were not significantly related to entrepreneurial outcomes. I highlight the differences between including and excluding contributions for the significance of particular status characteristics and explain whether there are mediating effects.

First, in the model predicting whether men abandoned activities, the direction of the coefficient for maximum age changed from negative to positive (both at $p<.1$ level) and having anyone with a male-typed occupation became significant and positive ($p<.1$) when either average help or total number of contributions was included in the model. Maximum age was negatively associated with the number of unique contributions teams provided in the mixed-gender analysis (refer to column 1 in Table 4.11), but the number of unique contributions did not significantly influence whether men abandoned startup activities (refer to column 3 in Table 5.2). Therefore, the change in the sign for the age coefficient was not an example of a mediating effect.

There was evidence of a mediating effect with industry experience. Maximum industry experience became insignificant in the model predicting whether men and women established operational businesses. Maximum industry experience increased both the average number and total number of unique contributions in Chapter 4 (Table 4.11) and the average and unique number of contributions significantly influenced the odds of respondents establishing businesses (Tables 5.2 and 5.3). Industry experience also became insignificant in the model for women's establishment when either the total number of unique contributions or average contributions was included. Industry experience also became insignificant when predicting whether all respondents (mixed-gender) remained entrepreneurially active when the average contributions measure was included in the model and reduced its level of significance when the unique contributions measure was included in the model. Therefore, the advantages of having one highly experienced team member on a respondent's startup team were largely mediated through their ability to contribute more assistance types to the startup team.

The positive effect of having anyone with a male-typed occupation on women's continued entrepreneurial activity became insignificant when either contribution measure was included. In Table 4.11, having someone with a male-typed occupation increased average and total unique contributions for the entire sample. In Tables 5.2 and 5.3, average and total contributions increased the odds of women remaining entrepreneurially active. Therefore, I have evidence that the positive effect for women remaining entrepreneurially active by having at least one team member in a male-typed occupation was largely mediated through its association with increased startup contributions.

Once contributions were taken into account, the presence of men on teams reduced women's odds of business establishment ($p<.1$). However, the presence of men members was negatively associated with total unique contributions for women (Table 4.11, column 5). I do not, then, have evidence of a mediating effect.

Finally, maximum occupational SEI became insignificant in predicting men's persistence in entrepreneurial activity once either average contributions or total number of contributions were included. However, because maximum SEI did not significantly increase contribution levels in men's teams (Table 4.11), I do not have evidence of a mediating effect.[19]

Method 3

I then ran the analysis excluding respondent status characteristics from the models. Industry experience was significant in the predicted directions in six of nine instances: mixed gender and women's abandonment, mixed-gender and women's establishment, and mixed-gender and women's entrepreneurial participation as was the case when respondent characteristics were included. Startup experience no longer significantly decreased ($p<.1$) women's odds of abandonment. Age no longer significantly decreased men's odds of abandonment or the odds of establishment for women. Maximum occupational SEI became significant ($p<.1$) and positive for predicting women's establishment. Having a Caucasian on the team significantly increased men's odds of establishment ($p<.1$). Startup experience became significant and positive ($p<.1$) for predicting women remaining in entrepreneurship. Finally, no

[19] I also ran this analysis excluding isolates. In this analysis, all status characteristics were insignificant with the exception of maximum age increasing odds of business establishment. The results for status characteristics were the same when contributions are included, so there was no evidence of mediating effects.

maximum status characteristics significantly influenced men's odds of remaining active, including maximum occupational SEI. When the analysis was run this way, the only evidence of mediating effects was that, in the mixed-gender model predicting abandonment, industry experience became insignificant when contributions were included in the model.[20]

Detailed Interpretation of Results from Hypothesis 5b: Table 5.5

Mixed Gender Abandonment, Column 1. Only maximum industry experience significantly influenced the odds of respondents leaving nascent entrepreneurship. Given that the coefficient for respondent industry experience was insignificant, the benefit of having a team member with a high level of industry experience was relatively the same regardless of respondents' own experience. Respondents on teams with the maximum industry experience of one log year were only 0.84 times as likely as those on teams with no industry experience to abandon startup activities (0.84=exp(-0.18)). As I noted above, this effect remains significant when contributions were accounted for, and therefore was not completely mediated through startup contributions. Therefore, industry experience is relevant not only in team interactions, but in startup outcomes. Nascent entrepreneurs need only one experienced team member to reduce their teams' chances of abandonment.

Women Only Abandonment, Column 2. Two maximum status characteristics, along with team size, significantly influenced women's odds of discontinuing startup activities. Women on teams with a maximum of one log year of industry experience were only 0.76 times as likely as women on teams without industry experience to abandon

[20] I ran this analysis excluding the isolates. I found that for predicting establishment and remaining entrepreneurially active, only having a Caucasian was significant ($p<.1$). The coefficient remained significant when "average contributions" was included but not when "unique number of contributions" was included. None of the other status characteristics were significant for predicting abandonment, whether contributions were included or not.

startup activities (0.76=exp(0.26)). In addition, startup experience significantly influenced women's odds of abandoning startup activities, but only for women without startup experience ($p<.1$). That is, women on teams with a member who had started a business before were only 0.24 times as likely as women without any team members with prior startup experience to abandon startup activities (0.24=exp(-1.41)). However, for women with startup experience, their odds of abandoning startup activities were 0.94 relative to women in which no team members had prior startup experience (0.94=exp(-1.41+1.34)). Therefore, women were least likely to quit startup activities when they were on teams in which members had high levels of industry experience and members other than themselves had prior startup experience.

In this model, team size increased the odds of women abandoning startup activities. Net of other factors, a woman on a two-person team was more than twice as likely as a woman working alone to abandon startup activities (2.17=exp(0.78)). In other words, women can gain advantages from team-based entrepreneurship, particularly for women that have not started businesses before and form teams with individuals of high achieved status, but teams can also increase women's odds of leaving nascent entrepreneurship.

Men Only Abandonment, Column 3. For men, industry experience did not significantly influence their odds of abandoning startup activities. Instead, only maximum age ($p<.1$) significantly increased their odds of abandoning startup activities. A man on a team with a maximum age of 40 was 1.68 times as likely to leave nascent entrepreneurship relative to a man on a team with a maximum age of 30 (1.68=exp(10*0.05)). Men's own age or age-squared did not significantly influence abandonment odds. Therefore, although age increased men's odds of business establishment in Hypothesis 1 (Table 5.1), maximum age can also increase odds of abandonment. Given that age was negatively associated with credits for contributions, the negative effect of age on entrepreneurial outcomes may reflect that teams with older members had lower levels of team functioning.

Mixed Gender Establishment, Column 4. The results from this equation suggest that the path of relevance principle that influences the ways in which group .members interpret the contributions of their team members can have an indirect effect on whether respondents launch operational businesses. Only maximum industry experience significantly increased respondents' odds of business establishment. Respondents on teams with a maximum industry experience of one log year were 1.15 times as likely as those with a maximum industry experience of zero log years to establish operational businesses (1.15=exp(0.14)). Respondents' own industry experience was not statistically significant in influencing establishment. Recall that industry experience was the most consistently significant status characteristic in predicting contributions from Chapter 4. In addition, the effect of industry on establishment was largely mediated through startup contributions. Therefore, having one team member with high levels of experience in the industry of the startup increased the chances of establishment because of such team members' positive influence on team contribution levels.

Women Only Establishment, Column 5. Three maximum status characteristics significantly influenced women's odds of establishing operational businesses. Maximum industry experience, having a team member in a male-typed occupation, and maximum age all increased women's odds of establishing operational businesses.

As was the case for the analysis for the entire sample, these results demonstrate the relevance of industry experience to entrepreneurs not only in group interactions but also in entrepreneurial outcomes. Women on teams with maximum industry experience of one log year were 1.19 times as likely as those with maximum experience of zero years to establish operational businesses (1.19=exp(0.18)). Women's own industry experience was not significantly related to establishment, and therefore the benefit of maximum experience was approximately the same for women of different levels of experience.

Women on teams with a member in a male-typed occupation were over 5 times as likely as women without someone in a male-typed occupation to establish operational businesses (5.0=exp(1.61)). Although this result is highly consistent with status characteristics theory, I was surprised how seldom occupational sex composition influenced team processes and entrepreneurial outcomes up to this point. These results show that women indeed benefited from either themselves or a team member having an occupation in which most job holders are male, net of other characteristics such as business education and experience or occupational SEI. Such occupations appear to provide status advantages to women who are underrepresented in entrepreneurship, and these women apparently convert these status advantages into business establishment. These results are also intriguing in light of how having a high proportion of members in a female-typed occupation often improved outcomes in the analyses for Hypothesis 5a. Perhaps, as I have stated earlier, women perform best in mixed-sex teams in which each member has an occupation typical for their sex.

Team maximum age was significant and positive, but was smaller than the negative effect *respondents'* age had on establishment. In other words, women were most likely to establish operational businesses when they were much younger than their oldest team member. The negative effect of respondent age suggests that women who pursue entrepreneurship after raising children may face age discrimination, perhaps because their human capital has depreciated (Groot et al. 1990). These results contrast with those for Hypothesis 1, in which older women were less likely to abandon startup activities. They demonstrate that the way entrepreneurial outcomes are measured influence the effects between status and outcomes. These results are not unlike those for race, which showed that African Americans were both less likely to abandon startup activities and less likely to establish operational businesses.

The positive effect of maximum age suggests that young women can maximize opportunities for business establishment by joining teams with older, higher status men. Recall that, in the results from Hypothesis 1, men's age was positively associated with business establishment. Therefore, age may have divergent effects for the abandonment odds of men and women.

Men Only Establishment, Column 6. No maximum characteristics significantly influenced men's odds of establishing operational businesses. In fact, no respondent status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of business establishment for men. The only theoretically interesting finding from this equation is, as was the case in prior equations, marriage negatively influenced men's entrepreneurial outcomes. For married men, the roles associated with provider may conflict with the roles associated with entrepreneur, given that entrepreneurship has a high failure rate.

Mixed Gender Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 7. Only maximum industry experience significantly influenced whether respondents remained entrepreneurially active in the analyses of the entire sample. Respondents on teams with a maximum industry experience of one log year were 1.14 times as likely as those with a maximum industry experience of zero years to remain entrepreneurially active, regardless of their own industry experience (1.14=exp(0.13)). These results provide additional support to the notion that industry experience is relevant to both entrepreneurial team processes and the outcomes of startup teams.

Women Only Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 8. Maximum industry experience and having a team member in a male-typed occupation ($p<.1$) significantly increased women's odds of continued entrepreneurial participation. These results were similar to those predicting women's business establishment. Women on teams with maximum of one log year of industry experience were 1.23 times as likely as those with maximum industry experience of zero to remain entrepreneurially active (1.23=exp(0.21)). Women on teams with at least one member in a male-typed occupation were 2.7 times as likely as those on teams without a person in a male-typed occupation to remain entrepreneurially active (2.7=exp(1.0)). As was the case for predicting women's establishment, the results are as predicted but provocative. Given that this coefficient is net of the respondents' achieved status and the team's maximum occupational SEI, male-typed occupations provide advantages to women in entrepreneurial startup teams that keep them active in entrepreneurial activities. Team size again reduced women's odds of remaining entrepreneurially active, suggesting that, net of other factors, women do better in solitary startup endeavors.

Men Only Continued Entrepreneurial Activity, Column 9. Only maximum occupational SEI significantly influenced men's odds of remaining entrepreneurially active. However, this effect was obliterated by the negative effect of men's own occupational SEI. In other words, men benefit when their own occupational SEI was much lower than that of the team member with the highest SEI. For example, a man with no occupation on a team with the highest occupational SEI of 50 was more than four times as likely as a man in which no team members had an occupational SEI above zero to remain entrepreneurially active (4.48=exp(0.03)). However, a man with an occupational SEI of 50 who has the highest SEI on his team was only half as likely to remain entrepreneurially active as a man on a team with a maximum SEI of zero (0.50=exp(50*-0.04+50*0.03)). In other words, men on teams in which they have the highest SEI (either much higher or the same as their teammates) were less likely to remain entrepreneurially active, perhaps in favor of opportunities in lucrative employee positions, than were men on teams with members of higher occupational statuses than their own. This result also holds for solitary nascent entrepreneurs, who may seek employee positions rather than continue pursing entrepreneurship for more than twelve months. By contrast, an individual on a team with individuals of higher achieved status may decide that continuing to pursue business ownership is the most likely way for them to achieve favorable economic rewards.

Summary of Hypothesis 5b

Overall, I found that industry experience often significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes, but these effects were sometimes mediated through startup contributions. I also found that other selected team characteristics significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes, including startup experience, age, and occupational characteristics. I found significant differences between how status influenced the outcomes of men and women. Maximum status characteristics almost never significantly influenced the outcomes of men, but women often benefited by the presence of a team member with a male-typed occupation. Some of the most interesting and persistent gender differences in these models (and those from Hypothesis 5a) did not concern status characteristics of respondents or team members. For men, net of other characteristics, marriage worsened entrepreneurial outcomes. I interpret this coefficient to mean that, unless women were part of men's teams, marriage hurt men's entrepreneurial outcomes. For women, net of other characteristics, team size worsened entrepreneurial outcomes. In other words, net of the contributions team members provide and the advantages they provide through their status, women achieved more entrepreneurial success on their own than they did in teams.

Hypothesis 5c: Interaction Effects

Next, I hypothesized a possible interaction effect in which team status characteristics would have a greater effect on entrepreneurial outcomes to the extent that teams contributed assistance. Support for Hypothesis 5c varies depending on how I measured the status characteristics of isolates. However, I do not discuss each of the models. Instead, I discuss the difference between how status influenced entrepreneurial outcomes for 3 groups: teams that contributed at high levels, a combination of isolates and low-contributing teams, and then low-contributing teams only. For isolates, I examined their maximum and average status characteristics given the value of their own status characteristics.

Average Status: Table 5.6

Abandonment: Columns 1-3. Average industry experience was negatively related to abandoning startup activities, but the magnitude varied depending on levels of team contributions. Industry experience had a greater negative influence on low-contributing teams than high-contributing teams, contrary to expectations. For high-contributing teams, the positive effect that respondents' industry experience had on abandoning activities exceeded the negative effect average industry experience had on abandoning startup activities.[21] In other words, respondents on high-contributing teams did best when their industry experience was below the average of their team. In contrast, for the model including low-contributing teams and isolates, the coefficient for average experience was -0.283 (an odds ratio of 0.754) and the coefficient for respondent's experience was insignificant.[22] When isolates were excluded, the coefficient for teams' average industry experience was -0.51 and the coefficient for individuals' industry experience was 0.3, meaning that those on teams where their own experience was the average of the team had a net coefficient of -0.22 (an odds ratio of 0.803).[23] Therefore, average industry experience was more beneficial in teams with low levels of contributions (or for isolates) than in high-contributing teams. Rather than my results showing that high-contributing teams are best able to capitalize on their teams' status, they show that industry experience status is most important for low-contributing teams. Seen another way, high-functioning teams with inexperienced members are not more likely to abandon startup activities, so

[21] Refer to Column 1 "High-Contributing Teams" in Table 5.6 under Respondent and Team Characteristics.

[22] Refer to Column 2 "Everyone Else" in Table 5.6 under "Team Characteristics".

[23] Refer to Column 3 "Low-Contributing Teams (no isolates)" in Table 5.6 under Respondent and Team Characteristics.

teams can compensate for a lack of achieved status to the extent that members contribute at high levels and recognize the assistance contributions of others.

The proportion with startup experience negatively influenced abandonment in high-contributing teams but was insignificant for low-contributing teams and for isolates, consistent with Hypothesis 5c. Respondents' own startup experience increased odds of abandoning startup activities in high-contributing teams. Therefore, respondents on high-contributing teams with all members having startup experience were only 0.39 times as likely as respondents on high-contributing teams with no team members having prior experience to abandon startup activities (0.39=exp(-4.43+3.48), see column 1). A respondent on a high-contributing team would have the lowest odds of abandoning activities when they were on a five-person team in which four members had prior experience but they did not. Such an individual would have only a 0.03 chance of abandoning activities relative to someone on a high-contributing team with no members with prior startup experience (0.03=exp(-4.43*0.8)). For low-contributing teams and isolates, having members who had started businesses before neither significantly increased or decreased odds of abandonment. Therefore, the status and skills team members gain through entrepreneurial experience are only realized on teams in which members are highly contributory. I find these results interesting given the relationship between startup experience and contributions in Chapter 4, notably that respondents more often valued their own startup experience than the startup experience of others. Startup experience interacted with startup contributions consistent with Hypothesis 5c, that high status was most beneficial when combined with high-functioning or contributing teams.

The final result of note from the analysis of whether respondents abandoned startup activities was that race was not significant for high-contributing teams or for the analysis of low-contributing teams and isolates. However, for low-contributing teams *only*, the proportion of minorities significantly increased the odds of respondents abandoning startup activities. Net of other characteristics, a respondent on a low-contributing team in which all members were African American or Hispanic was 67 times as likely as a respondent on a low-contributing team with all Caucasian or Asian members to abandon startup activities (67=exp(4.21), refer to column 3). This coefficient is large, and its magnitude should be interpreted with caution. The magnitude is a result of the small number of all-minority teams in the sample and the stronger bivariate relationship between contributions and abandoning startup activities among all-minority teams compared to teams without African Americans and Hispanics.[24] Respondents' own race did not significantly influence odds of abandonment. Therefore, racial differences in entrepreneurial outcomes were only apparent in low-contributing teams. Low-status characteristics were most detrimental in low-contributing teams and became inconsequential in high-contributing teams, consistent with Hypothesis 5c.

Establishment: Columns 4-6. My results for establishment suggest that team status characteristics and team functioning do have interaction effects on startup outcomes, but that the nature of the interaction is often contrary to expectations. First, the disadvantages associated with minority status were confined to high-contributing rather than low-contributing teams. Second, team size hurt high-functioning teams but not low-

[24] Twelve percent of all-minority teams with above average contribution levels abandoned startup activities whereas 36 percent of all-minority teams with below average contribution levels abandoned startup activities. For teams with no African Americans and Hispanics, high-contributing teams abandoned 14 percent of the time whereas low-contributing teams abandoned 20 percent of the time.

functioning teams. Third, female-typed occupation was beneficial to high-contributing teams, when status characteristics theory would have predicted female-typed occupation to have little effect on high-contributing teams and a negative effect on low-contributing teams. Finally, industry experience increased chances of establishment only for low-contributing teams. That is, achieved status was more important for low-contributing teams rather than teams making the best use of their teams' achieved status only when they function at high levels. In other words, teams with high levels of functioning can have favorable outcomes regardless of achieved status and teams with low levels of team functioning are more dependent on the pooled status of their members.

In teams with high levels of contributions, team size ($p<.1$) and proportion minorities were negatively associated with the odds of establishing businesses. Net of other factors, a three- person team was only 0.54 times as likely as two-person to establish operational businesses (0.54=exp(-0.62), see column 4). I was surprised by this result but reason that larger teams, net of contribution levels, have more difficulty with coordination and thus they may take longer to establish operational businesses (Allen et al. 2003, Chatman et al. 1998). Net of other factors, a team in which all members were African American or Hispanic were only 0.03 times as likely as a team with no African American or Hispanic members to establish operational businesses (0.03=exp(-3.68), see column 4).The magnitude of the coefficient can be attributed to the small number of minority teams, especially when the sample is divided into high- and low-contributing teams, and should be interpreted with caution. This result is contrary to the previous finding that minority status was only detrimental to entrepreneurial outcomes in low-contributing teams. Therefore, different entrepreneurial outcomes produced different results and the influence of minority status*team contributions interactions were sensitive to measurement decisions and the entrepreneurial outcome under investigation.

In addition, the proportion of team members in a female-typed occupation was positively associated with business establishment for high-contributing teams. The coefficient for respondents' having a female-typed occupation was significant and negative. Therefore, respondents in female-typed occupations in which all team members were in female-typed occupations were 24.17 times as likely to establish operational businesses as respondents on teams in which no members were in female-typed occupations (24.17=exp(5.65-2.46), refer to column 4). This large coefficient's magnitude should not necessarily be interpreted literally given that it is an artifact of the sample characteristics in which most respondents, both men and women, had no team members in a female-typed occupation. As I have suggested previously, the advantages of having a team member with a female-typed occupation may reflect the benefit of having a spouse team in which the woman of the pair had a female-typed occupation. Cross-tabulations indicate that spouse teams are more likely to have a member in a female-typed occupation than are other types of teams.

For the remainder of the sample (isolates and low-contributing teams—column 5,) average industry experience increased the odds of establishing operational businesses. Respondents' industry experience was significant ($p<.1$) and negative. Therefore, respondents with one log year of industry experience on teams with an average of one year of experience were 1.13 times as likely as those without experience on inexperienced teams to establish operational businesses (1.13=exp(0.29-0.16)). Industry experience was also important on low-contributing teams when isolates were excluded.

Industry experience was an example of an interaction effect in which status was important for low-contributing but not high-contributing teams, contrary to Hypothesis 5c. Similarly, occupational sex composition, race, and team size were significant for high-contributing teams but not low-contributing teams. Each of these results were contrary to expectations that team size would increase establishment odds on high-contributing teams, minority status would be less detrimental to high-contributing than low- contributing teams, and female-typed occupations would not be an advantage to high-contributing teams.

Continued Entrepreneurial Activity: Columns 7-9. The results predicting whether respondents remained active in entrepreneurial pursuits demonstrate that measurement decisions influence the level of support my hypotheses receive. That is, these results differed in some instances from the results for establishment. Race did not significantly influence odds of respondents remaining entrepreneurially active as it did for high-contributing teams for establishment and low-contributing teams for abandonment. Occupational SEI significantly influenced the odds of high-contributing teams remaining active but did not significantly influence establishment. Also, whereas industry experience only increased establishment odds for low-contributing teams, industry experience increased the odds of all respondents remaining entrepreneurially active. When isolates were included, I have no evidence of an interaction effect as high-contributing and low-contributing teams have approximately equal coefficients for industry experience. However, when I excluded isolates, the coefficient was larger for low-contributing than high-contributing teams. This result is contrary to expectations that high-contributing teams could best capitalize on team status characteristics but is similar to the results for establishment and abandonment.

On high-contributing teams, industry experience and the proportion of team members in female-typed occupations increased respondents' odds of remaining entrepreneurially active, as did average occupational SEI ($p<.1$). Respondents' industry experience and female-typed occupation were negatively associated with remaining entrepreneurially active. When both respondents and their team members had one year of industry experience, they were 1.2 times as likely as those without industry experience to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 7, 1.2=exp(-0.54+0.72)). Respondents on teams with all members in female-typed occupations were more than 25 times as likely as those on teams without any female-typed occupations to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 7; 25.7=exp(6.96-3.71)).[25] Teams with an average occupational SEI of 50 were 9.5 times as likely as respondents on teams with an average occupational SEI of zero to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 7; 9.5=exp(50*0.05)). On low-performing teams, industry experience was significant and positive, a similar sign and magnitude to the effect on high-contributing teams, thus not supporting an interaction effect. Respondents on teams with an average industry experience of one log year were 1.17 times as likely as respondents with average experience of zero to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 7; 1.17=exp(0.33-0.17)).

Apparently, high occupational SEI and having members with female-typed occupations only increased the odds of continued entrepreneurial activities for high-contributing teams. The advantages teams enjoyed from these status characteristics

[25] Because few respondents had team members in female-typed occupations, the magnitude of the coefficient is not reliable.

materialized only when team members exchanged assistance at high levels. Average occupational SEI and occupational sex typing did not significantly influence whether low-contributing teams remained active in entrepreneurship. These results are consistent with Hypothesis 5c that status is more beneficial to high-contributing than low-contributing teams.

The major difference between excluding isolates and including them among low-contributing teams is that the coefficient for respondents' industry experience became insignificant. In other words, for a person whose industry experience is equal to their team's average, their odds of continued entrepreneurial participation were greatest in a low-contributing team, net of other factors. However, because the coefficient for average industry experience is much larger for high-contributing teams, respondents with no industry experience were most likely to remain active in high-contributing teams. The odds ratio associated with an average of one average year of industry experience was 1.42 (1.42=exp(0.36) see column 9, p<.1).

Maximum Status: Table 5.7

Next, I considered how the effects of maximum status on entrepreneurial outcomes differed depending on team functioning. These results differed considerably from those for average experience, with average experience having more explanatory power than maximum experience.

Abandonment: Columns 1-3. No maximum status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of respondents abandoning startup activities on high-contributing teams (column 1). This result is contrary to expectations that status would most benefit high-contributing teams. On low-contributing teams, maximum age increased odds of team members abandoning startup activities and industry experience decreased odds of abandoning startup activities. Respondents on teams in which their age was equal to the maximum age were less likely than those on teams in which they were younger than some members to abandon startup activities because respondents' age was negatively associated ($p<.1$) with abandoning activities.[26] This result follows rather naturally from the results presented in Chapter 4. In Chapter 4, age was often negatively associated with team members receiving credit for assistance. Therefore, in low-contributing teams, the team members that are most likely to discontinue startup efforts are those older members who either receive little credit for their contributions or actually provide few contributions.

A team in which one member had a maximum industry experience of one log year was 0.787 times as likely as a respondent with no team members having industry experience to abandon startup activities (0.787=exp(-0.24), see column 2). Therefore, maximum industry experience was more important to low-contributing than high-contributing teams, contrary to Hypothesis 5c. Low-contributing teams must rely on the status from team members' prior industry experience to prevent discontinuance. Similarly, teams with limited achieved status do not experience disadvantages when team members provide adequate contributions.

When isolates were excluded (column 3), race, maximum age ($p<.1$), maximum industry experience ($p<.1$), and occupational sex composition significantly influenced the odds of abandonment. These results show that maximum status characteristics had a greater effect on the odds of abandonment for low-contributing teams than high-

[26] Refer to column 2. The coefficient for maximum age was 0.096 and the coefficient for respondent age was -0.18.

contributing teams, contrary to expectations. Teams with at least one Caucasian were only 0.02 times as likely as teams without a Caucasian to abandon startup activities (0.02=exp(-3.82).[27] Maximum age was significant, but respondent age was not. Therefore, teams with a maximum age of 40 were almost twice as likely to abandon startup activities as teams with a maximum age of 30 (1.99=exp(10*0.07)). These teams likely discontinue startup activities in part because of the negative effects age-based status expectations have on contribution levels.

Individuals with low-levels of achieved status relevant to entrepreneurship were less likely to leave low-functioning teams that had members with high achieved status. Teams in which the respondent was the most experienced (industry) team member were only slightly less likely to abandon startup activities relative to teams with no experience, given that respondents' industry experience increased the odds of abandonment almost as much as maximum experience decreased them. When both equal 1 log year, the odds were 0.97 relative to a team with no experience (0.97=exp(-0.26+0.23)). However, if the respondent had no industry experience and one team member had one log year, their odds relative to a team with no experience were 0.77. For individuals with limited industry experience, even a low-functioning team with high-status members may provide the best chances of favorable economic outcomes.

Finally, a low-contributing team in which a member had a male-typed occupation was almost six times as likely as a team without any members in a male-typed occupation to abandon startup activities (5.98=exp(1.79)). I was surprised that having a team member with a male-typed occupation would increase odds of abandoning startup

[27] The size of the coefficient can be attributed to sample characteristics. Most respondents have at least one Caucasian on their teams and most did not abandon startup activities.

activities, a measure of economic failure. However, given that individuals with male-typed occupations are more likely to have an advantaged position in the labor market relative to those in female-typed occupations, net of other characteristics, these individuals would logically leave dysfunctional teams more quickly than would individuals with limited alternatives (Gimeno et al. 1997). Stated another way, individuals on high-contributing teams are less likely to abandon entrepreneurship (and their team members) regardless of the attractiveness of alternatives in the labor market, which are determined by their status. Individuals on low-contributing teams are apparently more likely to pursue their individual interests. One way to interpret this finding is that the extent to which team members contribute increases the commitment of high-status team members (Van der Vegt et al. 2006).

Establishment: Columns 4-6. The results for high-contributing teams were surprising in one instance and expected in another. On high-contributing teams (column 4), team size reduced odds establishment ($p<.1$), contrary to expectations. Respondents on three-person teams were only about half as likely to establish operational businesses as respondents on two-person teams ($0.51=\exp(-0.67)$). This result is unexpected because high-functioning teams would seem to benefit from the additional raw materials from members such as labor, ideas, experience, networks, and status. However, this contrary finding may reflect that larger teams are more difficult to manage. Larger teams may take longer to reach consensus, for example, and have greater complexity (Allen et al. 2003, Chatman et al 1998). Net of other factors, (including contribution levels) a two-person team is more likely to achieve establishment within twelve months of the initial interview than a larger team. Respondents on teams with at least one team member in a male-typed occupation on high-contributing teams were almost six times as likely to establish operational businesses ($p<.1$; 5.98=exp(1.79)), consistent with expectations. This result bolsters the argument I made under *abandoning activities*, that those with male-typed occupations will remain in high functioning teams and achieve establishment but will abandon low-functioning teams for potentially better alternatives (Gimeno et al. 1997).

Race had an unexpected effect on establishment among low-contributing teams. On low-contributing teams (column 5), teams with a Caucasian member were three times as likely as those on teams with no Caucasians to establish operational businesses (3.16=exp(1.15)), contrary to expectations. This was also true when isolates were excluded (column 6), but the coefficient was much larger (632=exp(6.45)).[28] These results were similar to those for abandonment, with race significantly influencing low-contributing rather than high-contributing teams. In other words, low-contributing teams must rely on ascribed status whereas high-contributing teams' outcomes are not determined by factors they cannot change.

Continued Entrepreneurial Activity: Columns 7-9. The results for active further support the notion that those in male-typed occupations are far more likely to remain in high-functioning teams than low-functioning teams. On high-contributing teams (column 7), only having at least one team member in a male-typed occupation increased the odds of respondents remaining entrepreneurially active. Teams with at least one member in a male-typed occupation were 12 times as likely as high-contributing teams without a member in a male-typed occupation to remain entrepreneurially active (12=exp(2.49)),

[28] This large coefficient is an artifact of low cell counts and the magnitude is suspect. Only 33 teams have no Caucasian members in the analyses of entrepreneurial outcomes. Five all-minority teams with no Caucasian members established operational businesses on high-contributing teams, but only 2 on low-contributing teams. Twenty six all minority teams (13 high-contributing, 13 low-contributing) did not establish operational businesses.

consistent with Hypothesis 5c. For low-contributing teams (column 8), only industry experience significantly increased the odds of respondents remaining entrepreneurially active, contrary to Hypothesis 5c. A team with a maximum experience of one log year was 1.19 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active relative to teams with no experience (1.19=exp(0.17)). However, when isolates were excluded (column 9), no team characteristics significantly influenced the odds of respondents remaining entrepreneurially active. Therefore, high-contributing teams remained active most often when team members had male-typed occupations, isolates remained active most often when they had industry experience, and team maximum status did not influence whether respondents remained active on low-contributing teams.

Summary of Hypothesis 5c

My results showed that team-level status characteristics (resources) interacted with group processes. Status characteristics have differing effects on entrepreneurial outcomes among high- and low-contributing teams. In some instances, status only influenced the outcomes of high-contributing teams, suggesting that status is only useful when activated and effectively managed. In other instances, status characteristics are relatively unimportant for high-contributing teams and more consequential for low-contributing teams. Such results suggest that status can sometimes substitute for effective team processes.

My results also showed that the effect of particular status characteristics are not stable or robust. For example, in predicting abandoning activities or establishment, average industry experience was more important for low-contributing and isolates but average industry experience was more influential in predicting remaining entrepreneurially active for high-contributing teams. In other words, my results are highly sensitive to the entrepreneurial outcome under consideration as well as the measurement of team-level status (average versus maximum).

Summary of Results from Hypotheses 5a-5c

My results showed that teams with high levels of status had more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than did teams with lower levels of status. Average status characteristics predicted entrepreneurial outcomes better than did maximum status characteristics. Having at least one team member with high status characteristics tended to improve team functioning as measured by startup contributions (Chapter 4), but having only one team member with high status characteristics did not improve entrepreneurial outcomes for teams net of startup contributions. Therefore, teams benefited from having overall high status characteristics among the members and low-status team members can hurt the chances of business establishment of high-status team members. In fact, the results showed that respondents were most likely to achieve favorable outcomes when the status characteristics of the team were higher than their own characteristics. High-status individuals did not gain advantages through team-based entrepreneurship net of what they receive through startup contributions (Hypothesis 3), but low-status individuals did better on startup teams, particularly on teams with high-status individuals, than in solo entrepreneurial endeavors.

Hypothesis 7: Table 5.8

In my next hypothesis regarding entrepreneurial outcomes, I predicted that team diversity would negatively influence entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 7). In this analysis, I found it reasonable to assign values of zero for diversity characteristics of isolates. I found virtually no support for Hypothesis 7. My results suggest that diversity neither helps nor hurts entrepreneurial outcomes. Perhaps these results stem from the advantages of diversity—more raw materials such as ideas, networks, and expertise—offsetting the disadvantages—conflict and lack of trust.

Although ethnic diversity increased the log odds of women abandoning startup activities (column 2 in 5.8 under “Team Characteristics”, the odds ratio was 5.19, the coefficient was 1.65) and industry experience range decreased the log odds of individuals remaining active in entrepreneurship (refer to column 7, the odds ratio for one log year was 0.92, the coefficient was -.01) (both at $p<.1$), most diversity coefficients were either insignificant or produced results contrary to expectations. For example, gender diversity decreased the log odds of men leaving entrepreneurship. Men on gender diverse teams were only 0.32 times as likely as men on teams without gender diversity (or isolates) to abandon startup activities (see column 3, $0.32=\exp(-1.15)$). This finding lent more support to my previous assertion that men benefited from the presence of women on their teams, particularly when the men were married and the women were their spouses. In addition, startup experience diversity decreased odds of abandoning startup activities for women, contrary to expectations. Women on teams with some, but not all members having startup experience were only 0.31 times as likely as solo women or women on teams without startup diversity to abandon startup activities (refer to column 2, $0.31=\exp(-1.18)$).

I did not find support for Hypothesis 7 that diversity hurt entrepreneurial outcomes. Taken together with the results from Chapter 4, that diversity did not diminish startup contributions by teams, low-status individuals need not avoid seeking out team members with high status because of concerns that diversity will negatively influence their startup efforts.[29]

Hypothesis 7a: Table 5.9

I also hypothesized an interaction effect between team status diversity and startup contributions on entrepreneurial outcomes, predicting that the negative effect of diversity of entrepreneurial outcomes would be reduced on teams with high levels of contributions (Hypothesis 7a). In other words, I predicted that teams with high-contributing members would not suffer negative effects of diversity. I reasoned that any negative effects of diversity were likely to caused by communication and trust problems that high-contributing teams do not exhibit. Instead, high-contributing teams could potentially benefit from the increased pool of resources that diversity affords.

On teams with high levels of contributions, two diversity measures decreased the odds of abandoning activities, as predicted, three (ethnic diversity, startup experience diversity, and occupational sex typing diversity) had no effect, and two increased the odds of abandoning startup activities, contrary to expectations. High-contributing, gender-diverse teams were only 0.01 times as likely as high-contributing, gender-homogeneous teams to abandon startup activities (0.01=exp(-4.84)). This large coefficient should be interpreted with caution as it is the result of sample characteristics. In Chapter 4, I noted a few instances in which gendered status expectations appeared to undermine contributions (such as women in gender diverse teams less likely to report

[29] In analysis not shown here, I also ran models excluding isolates. These models produced significant results in 4 instances out of 63, two contrary to expectations. As was the case in the model above, startup diversity decreased women's odds of abandoning startup activities, contrary to expectations and gender diversity increased the odds of women remained entrepreneurially active (p<.1), contrary to expectations. The results that showed that diversity worsened outcomes were that age range reduced men's odds of establishment (p<.1) and industry experience range reduced women's odds of remaining entrepreneurially active (p<.1).

training and men in gender diverse teams less likely to report information). However, in the event that gender diverse teams can contribute at high levels, they were much less likely to abandon activities than single-gender teams. The coefficient was greatly reduced and insignificant for low-contributing teams, suggesting an interaction effect consistent with Hypothesis 7a.

Second, age range was negatively associated with abandoning startup activities in high-contributing teams. Teams with a ten-year age range were only 0.19 times as likely as teams with members of the same age to abandon activities among high-contributing teams (0.19=exp(-0.17*10)). The coefficient was positive and significant ($p<.1$) for low-contributing teams, suggesting an interaction effect consistent with Hypothesis 7a (refer to column 2, odds ratio for 10 years was 1.78, coefficient was 0.06)). Taken with the results from Chapter 4, age appears to be a relevant status characteristic in that, net of experience, team members were more likely to discount the contributions of older team members. However, when teams were able to contribute at high levels, age diversity reduced the odds of abandoning startup activities.

Diversity can also undermine the entrepreneurial outcomes of high-contributing teams, contrary to Hypothesis 7a. Net of other characteristics, high-contributing teams with an occupational SEI range of 50 were 25 times as likely to abandon startup activities relative to high-contributing teams with no occupational SEI range (refer to column 1, 25=exp(50*0.06.), $p<.1$). The coefficient was negative and insignificant in low-contributing teams. A possible explanation for this surprising finding is that persons with occupations which differ substantially with regard to SEI would contribute divergent, incompatible forms of assistance. They may have different ideas of how to achieve business success. These differences may cause conflict in which members of high-contributing diverse teams may choose to abandon activities more often than members of diverse teams in which assistance is not contributed at high levels. Perhaps low-contributing diverse teams are in fact highly specialized in which each member focuses on an area suited best to their status background. Similarly, high-contributing teams with one year log difference in industry experience were 1.62 times as likely as high-contributing teams without any industry experience range to abandon activities (column 1, 1.62=exp(0.48)). The coefficient was insignificant among low-contributing teams. Therefore, ascribed (age and sex) diversity can be effectively managed in high-contributing teams but achieved (occupational SEI and industry experience) status diversity was detrimental to high-contributing teams.

My analysis produced five other instances in which diversity's effects on entrepreneurial outcomes varied by contribution levels. Although age range in high-contributing teams reduced odds of team members abandoning startup activities, age range increased the odds of team members in low-contributing teams establishing operational businesses, an interaction effect contrary to expectations set out in Hypothesis 7a (refer to column 4). Age range was insignificant in predicting whether high-contributing teams established operational businesses. In low-contributing teams, those with an age range of 10 years were 1.75 times as likely as those with an age range of zero to establish operational businesses (1.75=exp(10*0.06)). Second, industry experience range was negatively associated with establishing operational businesses in low-contributing teams, which was consistent with Hypothesis 7a but different from the results for abandoning startup activities in which industry experience range was worse for high-contributing teams. Although industry experience was insignificant in high-contributing teams for predicting business establishment, a respondent on a low-contributing team with an industry range of one log year was only 0.83 times as likely to establish operational business relative to a team with no diversity of industry experience with low levels of contributions (refer to column 4, 0.83=exp(-0.18)). The results were similar for remaining entrepreneurially active (refer to column 6, 0.83=exp(-0.17). Fourth and fifth, occupational sex typing diversity increased the odds of establishment and continued entrepreneurial participation for high-contributing teams, but was insignificant and negative for low-contributing teams, consistent with Hypothesis 7a. Respondents on high-contributing teams with occupational sex typing diversity were 4.88 times as likely to establish operational businesses and almost 11 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active relative to high-contributing teams without occupational sex typing diversity (refer to columns 3 and 5, 4.88=exp(1.59) and column 5, 10.76=exp(2.376)).

Overall, diversity was significant in 10 out of 35 possible instances. In each case, diversity had a differing effect on high and low-contributing teams. However, the directions were contrary to predictions in two instances. Therefore, I have some support that diversity's effects on entrepreneurial outcomes were contingent on contribution levels and that, in many instances, teams that can effectively contribute assistance can also effectively manage diversity so that it does not undermine entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypotheses 11-12: Table 5.10

Next, I hypothesized that relational composition would influence entrepreneurial outcomes. I predicted that close ties would improve entrepreneurial outcomes and that having more than one relationship type per team would diminish entrepreneurial outcomes (hypotheses 11 and 12, respectively). I found little support for either hypothesis.

My results show that women achieved more favorable outcomes when they started business efforts with relatives and spouses, rather than strangers. These results have several possible sources. First, women's status in business is lower than men's, which was exhibited in many of the team interaction results from Chapter 4. Women may therefore find advantages in forming teams with close ties that are perhaps less likely to devalue their contributions. Tie strength decreased the log odds of women abandoning startup activities and increased their odds of remaining entrepreneurially active, consistent with expectations. Women on teams with spouses or kin were only 0.31 times as likely as those on stranger or non-person teams to abandon startup activities.[30] Women on teams with kin or spouse were more almost three times as likely as those on teams with strangers or non-persons to remain active in entrepreneurship.[31] Tie strength did not significantly influence any outcomes for the combined analysis of men and women, for men, or for whether women established operational businesses. In other words, tie strength was significant in two of nine instances.

Having more than one relationship type decreased the odds of remaining entrepreneurially active in the mixed-gender and men-only analyses (refer to columns 7 and 9 in Table 5.10). In the mixed-gender analysis, respondents on teams with more than

[30] Refer to column 2 in Table 5.10. The coefficient was -0.59. The odds ratio for stranger or non-person teams was 0.55=exp(-0.59). The odds ratio for spouse or kin teams was 0.16901=exp(3*-0.59). 0.17/0.55=0.31.

[31] Refer to column 8 in Table 5.10. The coefficient was 0.5109. The odds ratio for women on stranger or non-person teams was 1.667=exp(0.51). The odds ratio for women on kin or spouse teams was 4.63=exp(1*0.51). 4.63/1.67=2.78.

one type of relationship were only 0.38 times as likely as solo entrepreneurs or those on teams with only one type of relationship to remain entrepreneurially active (column 7; 0.38=exp(-0.96)). Men on teams with multiple relationships were only 0.21 times as likely as those on teams with only one relationship or solo owners to remain entrepreneurially active (column 9; 0.21=exp(-1.58)). A possible explanation is that men, particularly those with favorable labor market alternatives to entrepreneurship, are more inclined to pursue opportunities outside of entrepreneurship when their teams have relational asymmetry as opposed to teams with only one type of relationship. Neither tie strength nor the presence or absence of multiple relationships significantly influenced whether men or women established operational businesses. Therefore, the results suggest that tie strength and relational dynamics can influence entrepreneurial outcomes for certain types of respondents, and the significant coefficients suggest that entrepreneurs do best on teams with only one type of close relationship. However, the results show that tie strength was often inconsequential.

Hypothesis 11a and 12a: Table 5.11

I predicted that the positive effect of close ties on entrepreneurial outcomes would be lessened to the extent that contributions are made (Hypothesis 11a) and that the negative effect of multiple relationships on entrepreneurial outcomes would be reduced to the extent that contributions are made (Hypothesis 12a). I reasoned that close ties and symmetry of ties would aid in team functioning, such as contributions, which would then positively influence entrepreneurial outcomes. If weak-tie teams or teams with multiple relationships were able to provide high levels of resources to one another and work well together, then the net advantage of close ties and symmetrical ties would be diminished, particularly in the event that weak tie and/or asymmetrical teams would have access to more expansive resources. I found no support for either hypothesis in predicting abandoning startup activities or establishing operational businesses because neither coefficient was significant in the models for either the high-contributing teams or the other respondents.

In 11 out of 12 instances, the coefficients were insignificant. The results for predicting whether respondents remained entrepreneurial participants were contrary to expectations. In high-contributing teams, close-tie teams were 12 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active than those in weak-tie teams.[32] The coefficient became insignificant and negative for the remainder of the sample (solo entrepreneurs and low-contributing teams). These results suggest that close-tie teams were more likely to remain active in entrepreneurship only when contributions were made at high levels, rather than suggesting that close-tie teams automatically provide higher levels of contributions and that their advantages were completely mediated by contributions. Upon reflection, this result makes sense, particularly given the research on families and family businesses (Davis and Harveston 2001, Morris et al 1997). That is, family businesses often do well but not always. People related by marriage or blood do not always work well together and sometimes family conflicts can undermine business functions. However, when family members are able to work well together, they are able to capitalize on advantages derived through their close relationships such as trust and ease of communication. Therefore, Hypotheses 11a and 12a are rejected.

Hypothesis 13: Table 5.12

[32] Refer to Column 5 in Table 5.11. The coefficient was 1.2582. The odds ratio for close tie teams was 43.58=exp(3*1.26). The odds ratio for weak tie teams was 3.519=exp(1.26). 43.58/3.519=12.38.

Next, I hypothesized that the effect of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes would be lessened by the extent to which individuals were on teams (Hypothesis 13). Recall that I found no main effect of individual status on startup outcomes (Hypothesis 1, Table 5.1). To test this hypothesis, I ran the Model 2 from Hypothesis 1, separating team members from solo entrepreneurs. I found that status characteristics were more important for solo entrepreneurs than for team members in predicting entrepreneurial outcomes, particularly for predicting whether they were entrepreneurially active twelve months after the initial interview, consistent with Hypothesis 13.

I first provide a brief list of the significant coefficients, which will be described and explained in subsequent paragraphs under the headings for particular dependent variables. Gender was significant only in predicting whether solo owners remained entrepreneurially active (refer to column 6). Age was negatively associated with abandoning startup activities for solo owners and positively associated with solo owners remaining entrepreneurially active (columns 2 and 6). Race was negatively associated with solo owners abandoning startup activities and negatively associated with team members establishing operational businesses (columns 2 and 4). Industry experience was significantly associated with all three outcomes for solos in the expected directions (columns 2, 4, and 6). Startup experience increased odds of solos remaining active (column 6). Occupational SEI decreased odds of solos remaining entrepreneurially active (contrary to expectations, column 6). Occupational sex composition had no effect.

For the supplemental status characteristics, age-squared was significantly associated with abandoning and remaining active for solos (2 and 6). Managerial experience was never significant. Financial education was significant in predicting operational businesses for solo owners (column 4). Accounting education was significant for team owners (contrary to expectations, column 3). Business education was never significant. Financial experience was significant for solo owners remaining active (column 6). Accounting experience worsened entrepreneurial outcomes for team members (columns 1, 3, 5), contrary to expectations. Business experience was never significant. Bachelor's degree increased odds of abandonment for team members (column 1), contrary to expectations. Ever out of the labor force reduced odds of solos establishing or remaining entrepreneurially active (4 and 6), and ever out of the full-time labor force was never significant.

Abandonment: Columns 1 and 2

None of the first seven status characteristics (also asked of team members) significantly influenced the odds of team members abandoning startup activities. Only accounting experience and bachelor's degree were significant for team members, and each increased the odds of abandoning startup activities (refer to column 1, the coefficient for accounting experience was 1.78 for an odds ratio of 5.9, the coefficient for bachelor's degree was 1.2 for an odds ratio of 3.32.). In other words, individual high status characteristics did not have reduced odds of entrepreneurs on teams leaving entrepreneurship. Those with accounting experience and bachelor's degrees may more readily leave team-based entrepreneurship if they are dissatisfied with the progress of the team and want to seek jobs as employees in which they may have access to fringe benefits and less work overload. By contrast, three of the seven status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of isolates abandoning startup activities. Age (and age-squared) were significant. A respondent with the age of 40 was only 0.10 times as likely as a respondent aged 30 to abandon startup activities. (0.10=exp((10*-0.26)+100*0.004))). African Americans and Hispanics were significantly less likely than Caucasians and Asians to abandon startup activities. This result was one of the few results I found in testing Hypothesis 1 (Table 5.1) African Americans and Hispanics that were solo owners were only 0.25 times as likely as Caucasian or Asian solo owners to abandon startup activities (0.25=exp(-1.39)). The coefficient was insignificant for team members, so minority status only reduced the odds of abandoning startup activities for solos. Finally, solo respondents with one log year of industry experience were 0.89 times as likely to abandon startup activities relative to solo respondents without industry experience (0.89=exp(-0.12)). Therefore, respondents' ascribed and achieved status were more important when respondents were in solitary rather on teams with regard to abandoning startup activities, consistent with Hypothesis 13. In fact, high status was positively associated with abandoning startup activities for team members.

Establishment: Columns 3 and 4

Interestingly, status characteristics were just as important for predicting the operational status of team-based startups as they were for solo startups. Race was negatively associated with business establishment for respondents on teams only. Therefore, the results for Hypothesis 13 provide a qualifier for the results from Hypothesis 1. African Americans and Hispanics without teams were less likely to abandon startup activities but African Americans and Hispanics on teams were less likely to establish operational businesses. Referring to column 3, African Americans and Hispanics on teams were only about half as likely as Caucasians or Asians on teams to establish operational businesses (0.48=exp(-0.73)). As was the case for abandoning, industry experience improved the outcomes of solo owners but was insignificant in teams, consistent with Hypothesis 13. Respondents without teams with one log year of industry experience were 1.12 times as likely as solo respondents without one log year of industry experience to establish operational businesses. Solo respondents with financial education were more than 4 times as likely as solo respondents without financial education to establish operational businesses in one year (4.26=exp(1.45)). Financial education did not significantly influence the odds of team members establishing operational businesses. Accounting education increased the odds of respondents on teams establishing operational businesses, but not isolates (refer to column 3, 4.8=exp(1.57)). Finally, solo respondents that had ever been out of the labor force were 0.3 times as likely as solo respondents with continuous labor force experience to establish operational businesses (0.30=exp(-1.19)). Although these results do not provide as strong of support for Hypothesis 13 as do the results for abandoning startup activities, they do suggest that the ways in which status influences entrepreneurial outcomes depends on whether respondents were on teams or not.

Continued Entrepreneurial Activity: Columns 5 and 6

Status characteristics were far more influential in predicting whether solitary nascent entrepreneurs remained active compared to members of teams. Five of the seven status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of solo owners remaining entrepreneurially active (two contrary to expectations). None of these seven significantly influenced whether team-based respondents would remain entrepreneurially active. For the supplemental status characteristics, one was significant (and negative) for team members and three were significant (two if age-squared was excluded) for isolates. These results suggest that status characteristics were far more important in predicting whether solo owners remained entrepreneurially active than team owners.

Women were more than twice as likely as men (working alone) to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 6, 2.39=exp(0.87)). The gender coefficient was very interesting given that I initially suspected that teams might be a good way for those of low status, such as women with low achieved status to participate effectively in entrepreneurship. Instead, I found that women solo nascent entrepreneurs were more likely than men solo nascent entrepreneurs to remain in nascent entrepreneurship. A possible explanation of this effect is that women married to employed persons have more household financial resources at their disposal and thus were able to continue to pursue entrepreneurial activities even if their ventures were not generating positive cash flow (Aldrich and Cliff 2003).

Although age was often negatively associated with contributions in Chapter 4, indicating that older individuals had less status within startup teams, age benefited solitary entrepreneurs. Solitary respondents that were 40 were ten times as likely as respondents 30 years old to remain entrepreneurially active (9.87=exp((10*0.26)+(10*10*-0.004))). An alternative explanation for the positive effect of age is that, rather than age providing status-based advantages such as deferential treatment and favorable terms in lending agreements, older individuals may be more likely to remain in entrepreneurship because of life course factors. That is, older individuals may be able to continue to pursue entrepreneurship even if they fail to establish operational businesses if they have fewer financial obligations resulting from having paid off their mortgage or no longer having dependents to support. By contrast, younger individuals are more likely to have financial obligations such as dependent family members and mortgages (along with college loans and credit card debt) and therefore may more quickly return to wage and salary employment.

Achieved human capital specifically related to entrepreneurship increased the chances of solitary owners remaining active. Solitary respondents with one year of industry experience were 1.2 times as likely as solo respondents without experience to remain entrepreneurially active (refer to column 6, 1.2=exp(0.19)). Solo respondents with prior startup experience were twice as likely as those without experience to remain entrepreneurially active (2.16=exp(0.77), $p<.1$). Industry experience and startup experience were not significant for respondents on teams. Therefore, whether team members remains entrepreneurially active depends on the functioning of their team, which is influenced by the status characteristics of their team. Solo nascent entrepreneurs can depend only on their own status characteristics to sustain entrepreneurial activity.

Finally, respondents with an occupational SEI of 50 were only 0.38 times as likely as those with an occupational SEI of zero to remain entrepreneurially active, contrary to expectations (0.38=exp(50*-0.02)). The occupational SEI effect could be explained with an opportunity cost argument, in that a person not establishing an operational business in 12 months was less likely to continue to pursue entrepreneurship if they have access to a high-status occupation in the wage and salary market.

For the supplemental status characteristics, solo respondents with financial experience were 4.66 times as likely as those without financial experience to remain entrepreneurially active (4.66=exp(1.54)). Solo respondents that have ever been out of the labor force were only 0.33 times as likely as those with continuous labor force experience to remain entrepreneurially active (0.33=exp(-1.12)). These characteristics were insignificant for team members, who can rely on their team members to assist in startup activities. These results provide further evidence that those with high status characteristics can do well in solitary entrepreneurship settings, whereas those with low achieved status are more likely to continue entrepreneurial activities in team settings.

The bulk of these results suggest that achieved and ascribed status characteristics were far more important for solo owners than team-based owners. In other words, low-status nascent entrepreneurs were likely to have better outcomes on teams than by themselves. In fact, high achieved status can hurt team-based nascent entrepreneurs. Recall that for the results testing Hypothesis 5 in Tables 5.4-5.7, respondent status characteristics were often negatively associated with entrepreneurial outcomes. In the results testing Hypothesis 13 in Table 5.12, respondents on teams with accounting experience were only 0.31 times as likely to remain entrepreneurially active compared to team based nascent entrepreneurs without experience (0.31=exp(-1.16), refer to column 5). Such individuals are likely to pursue opportunities outside of team-based entrepreneurship, either as employees or possibly solo entrepreneurs.

Summary of Hypothesis 13

Each of the Chi-squares demonstrate that the status model was a much better fit for the solo entrepreneurs than for the team members. Although teams do not always improve entrepreneurial outcomes, as evidenced by the coefficients for team size in several of the models, individuals with lower status were less likely to experience negative outcomes if they joined teams in which contributions were made among team members.

Hypothesis 13a: Table 5.13

Finally, I hypothesized that the suppressing effect team membership would have on the relationship between status and startup outcomes would be influenced by the level of contributions (Hypothesis 13a). I reasoned that because teams do not always improve outcomes, they would only improve the outcomes of individuals with low status characteristics (for example) to the extent that they had high levels of team functioning as measured by contributions. Therefore, I ran status variables first for team members on teams with high levels of contributions and then for teams with low levels of contributions.

Many (eight) status characteristics had no effect on entrepreneurial outcomes of respondents, regardless of the level of team functioning. These included race, occupational SEI, occupational sex composition, managerial experience, financial education, accounting education, financial experience, and business experience. Gender was significant in two instances, predicting abandoning activities and remaining entrepreneurially active for high-contributing teams (columns 1 and 5). Age and age-squared were only significant for high-contributing teams in predicting abandoning startup activities (column 1). Industry experience was positively associated with remaining active for low-contributing teams and isolates (column 6). Startup experience was negatively associated with operational status in high-contributing teams. Business education was significant and negative in predicting operational status for low-contributing teams and isolates (column 4) and positive for high-contributing teams in remaining entrepreneurially active (column 5). Accounting experience reduced the odds that high- contributing teams remained entrepreneurially active (column 5). Bachelor's degree reduced the odds of abandonment in high-contributing teams and increased the odds of establishment in low- contributing teams and isolates (columns 1 and 4). Ever out of the labor force reduced the odds of establishment for low-contributing or isolate teams and remaining entrepreneurially active but increased the odds of remaining entrepreneurially active in high-contributing teams (columns 4, 5, and 6). Ever out of the full-time labor force reduced the odds of team members in high- contributing teams remaining entrepreneurially active (column 5). Therefore, I have little support for Hypothesis 13a because I found few significant effects, 14 out of 108 possible.

Abandonment: Columns 1 and 2

As I have found on multiple occasions in this chapter, women, net of other characteristics, had more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than men. Women on high-contributing startup teams were only 0.06 times as likely as men to abandon startup activities (0.06=exp(-2.87)). Gender was insignificant for low-contributing teams and isolates (column 2). In other words, women were much less likely than men to abandon startup activities in high functioning teams than were men. These results are contrary to status expectations that would suggest that men would have more favorable outcomes than women. However, they could suggest that men leave teams, even high-functioning teams, to pursue opportunities outside of entrepreneurship that may have high financial rewards.

Older individuals on high-contributing teams were less likely to abandon startup activities than were younger individuals on high-contributing teams. An increase in one year was associated with an odds ratio of 0.59 of abandonment (see column 1, 0.59=exp(-0.5265)). Age was insignificant for low-contributing teams and isolates. Age squared had a positive effect on abandonment, but the effect was too small to significantly diminish age's apparent advantage in reducing the odds of leaving entrepreneurial activities in high-contributing teams.

In high-contributing teams, having a bachelor's degree also reduced the odds of abandoning startup activities (column 1). A respondent with a bachelor's degree was only 0.15 times as likely as a respondent without a bachelor's degree to abandon startup activities among respondents on high-contributing teams (0.15=exp(-1.92)). The coefficient was insignificant in column 2, for isolates and low-contributing teams. Therefore, contrary to my hypothesis, respondents' status characteristics were more significant for high-contributing teams than for low-contributing teams or isolates. With women, those with bachelor's degrees, and older individuals less likely to abandon startup activities than others among members of high-contributing teams. These surprising results suggest that team members are best able to leverage their individual status in high-contributing teams.

None of the status characteristics were significant for low-contributing teams. In addition, marriage was only significant for low-contributing teams. Therefore, marriage only increased respondents' odds of leaving entrepreneurship when they were solitary nascent entrepreneurs or members of low-functioning startup teams.

Establishment: Columns 3 and 4

Interestingly, startup experience decreased the odds of respondents on high-contributing teams of establishing operational businesses ($p<.1$). Experienced respondents on high-contributing teams were only about half as likely as those on high-contributing teams who had not started businesses before to establish operational businesses (see column 3, 0.45=exp(-0.80)). Therefore, startup experience hinders the odds of high-contributing teams transitioning from startups to operational businesses. The coefficient was insignificant for low-contributing teams and isolates. These results are contrary to some found when I tested Hypothesis 5c, which showed that team members' startup experience was significantly associated with reducing abandonment odds among high-contributing teams. In addition, they conflict with the results displayed for abandonment, which showed that those with bachelor's degrees on high-performing teams were less likely to abandon startup activities than less educated members of high-functioning startup teams.

Several supplemental status characteristics significantly influenced the odds of business establishment among low-contributing teams and isolates. Business education was negatively associated with business establishment. Isolates and members of low-contributing teams were only 0.79 times as likely to establish businesses if they had one area of business education relative to those with no business education (see column 4, 0.79=exp(-0.24)), contrary to Hypothesis 13a. Respondents with a bachelor's degree on low-contributing teams were twice as likely as those without bachelor's degrees to establish operational businesses (2.04=exp(0.71)), consistent with Hypothesis 13a. Respondents on low-contributing teams or solos who answered the mail questionnaire (and thus provided information about their business education and experience as well as their labor force continuity) were 3.5 times as likely as those who had not completed the mail questionnaire to establish operational businesses (3.5=exp(1.26)), consistent with

Hypothesis 13a. Finally, respondents on low-contributing or solo teams who had ever spent time out of the labor force were 0.32 times as likely as those with continuous labor force experience to establish operational businesses (0.32=exp(-1.15)). My results for establishment were more consistent with Hypothesis 13a than were my results for abandoning startup activities. For low-contributing teams, achieved status (except startup experience) influenced whether respondents established operational businesses but were less consequential for high-contributing teams that could rely on other resources, such as contributions or other team members' status, to facilitate establishment. These results for establishing operational businesses suggest that those with low achieved status (time out of labor force, without a bachelor's degree or accounting education, those in a female-typed occupation) were more likely to establish operational businesses when they were on teams with high levels of contributions because these teams make the effects of such achieved status characteristics irrelevant.

Continued Entrepreneurial Activities: Columns 5 and 6

The effects of respondents' status on continued entrepreneurial participation varied by the level of contributions on teams, sometimes contrary to expectations. Women on high-contributing teams were almost four times as likely as men on high-contributing teams to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 5, 3.97=exp(1.38)). Industry experience was positively associated with remaining entrepreneurially active for respondents on low-contributing or solo teams (coefficient is 0.08, odds ratio for one log year is 1.08), consistent with Hypothesis 13a. Respondents on high-contributing teams with business education were 1.83 times as likely as those without business education to remain entrepreneurially active (column 5, 1.834=exp(0.61)), contrary to expectations.

Respondents on high-contributing teams with accounting experience were only 0.13 times as likely as those without accounting experience to remain entrepreneurially active (see column 5, 0.13=exp(-2.01)), contrary to expectations. Ever out of the labor force was positively associated with remaining entrepreneurially active for high-contributing teams but negatively associated with remaining entrepreneurially active ($p<.1$) for low-contributing or solo teams, consistent with expectations. In addition, ever out of the full-time labor force was negatively associated with remaining entrepreneurially active among respondents on high-contributing teams. Therefore, respondents on high-contributing teams were better off when they left the labor force entirely as opposed to remaining employed part-time.

Summary of Hypothesis 13a

In summary, my results show little support for Hypothesis 13a that individual status would have less of an effect on entrepreneurial outcomes for members of high-contributing teams than members of low-contributing teams. However, the results for business establishment were most often aligned with Hypothesis 13a. Respondents with a bachelor's degree, those who answered the mail questionnaire, and those without time out of the labor force were significantly more likely to establish operational businesses only when they were members of low-contributing teams. These achieved status characteristics did not increase the odds of business establishment for respondents on teams that offered high levels of assistance. Therefore, those with low status are least likely to have reduced business establishment odds when they are members of teams that contribute assistance at high levels.

Discussion

In Chapter 2 in which I developed my theory and hypotheses, I argued that team outcomes are determined by a combination of team resources and team processes. Team resources are the pooled resources of individual team members such as their status and diversity. Team processes refer to how well a team communicates and is able to convert potential resources into favorable interactions. Overall, I found both team processes and team resources influenced the outcomes of nascent entrepreneurs' startup teams twelve months after their initial interviews. As shown in Table 5.2 and 5.3, the levels of contributions provided by team members significantly influenced whether respondents abandoned startup activities, established operational businesses, or remained entrepreneurial activities in virtually every instance. Average contributions were more influential than number of unique contributions, suggesting that the extent to which team members all contributed to startup efforts is more important than a team being able to access multiple unique contributions through team members. Average status characteristics influenced entrepreneurial outcomes more often than did maximum status characteristics, and maximum status characteristics' influence on entrepreneurial outcomes was sometimes mediated through team processes. These results suggest that low-status team members can diminish the positive influence that high-status team members have on entrepreneurial outcomes. One high-status person can improve entrepreneurial outcomes, but primarily through their high level of team contributions. For individual nascent entrepreneurs, their own status characteristics were more influential for entrepreneurial outcomes than were the individual status characteristics of team-based nascent entrepreneurs.

My results for the interaction effects showed that the influence of group or individual status characteristics varied depending on team processes. However, status traits were not consistently more or less important to high- or low-contributing teams. Instead, the magnitude and direction of the effects of status on entrepreneurial outcomes depended on the status trait (such as gender or industry experience) and the entrepreneurial outcome (such as establishment or abandonment). My results suggest that individual status traits were more important in determining which nascent entrepreneurs actually started businesses for isolates and low-contributing teams than for high-contributing teams.

Business success and failure are often unpredictable and uncertain (Kaufman 1985). Some of my hypotheses regarding status, team composition and functioning, and entrepreneurial outcomes did not receive empirical support. For example, I found no main effects of individuals' status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 1) and no evidence that team diversity negatively influenced entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 7). Diversity's lack of influence may have positive practical implications for those with constrained status and resources. If these individuals are able to form diverse teams with high-status individuals, they may be able to overcome their low status and not suffer ill effects resulting from diversity. I also did not find support for an interaction effect between contributions and diversity on entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 7a). I also found almost no support for hypotheses 11 and 12 and only found contrary evidence for hypotheses 11a. Close ties did not significantly improve entrepreneurial outcomes and teams with multiple relationship types did not significantly diminish entrepreneurial outcomes. Further, close ties only improve entrepreneurial outcomes when contributions were made by team members.

I also found multiple instances in which status characteristics influenced outcomes in the opposite direction as predicted, with high status characteristics producing less favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than lower status characteristics. I argued that these results may reflect that individuals with high status have more numerous and attractive alternatives to entrepreneurship than low-status individuals, such as working for large organizations which typically offer high wages and benefits with less work overload (Davis and Kalleberg 2006, Gimeno et al. 1997, Reynolds and Renzulli 2005). Therefore, my results did not always illuminate how status shaped economic outcomes of nascent entrepreneurs. However, they do demonstrate how status characteristics shape the types of individuals and teams most likely to establish businesses that will enter the organizational landscape, and influence the types of products and services which are offered to consumers as well as the working environments available to future employees. In other words, the effects of nascent entrepreneurs' status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes have the potential to not only affect their own life chances, but the life chances of others affected by the organizations they create or fail to create.

My results generated several significant findings that illuminated how selection pressures influenced nascent entrepreneurs' startups depending on status and team functioning. I found that the effect of status on entrepreneurial outcomes was contingent on both startup characteristics such as industry and risk (and perhaps unobserved heterogeneity) and was also contingent on team membership and functioning, consistent with hypotheses 13. The results showed that the level of contributions, measured either as the average number of assistance types provided per person or the total number of unique contributions provided by team members, did significantly improve entrepreneurial outcomes, supporting Hypothesis 3. I also found that average and maximum status characteristics significantly influenced the outcomes of nascent entrepreneurs, consistent with Hypotheses 5a and 5b. I found that the effect of team characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes varied with the levels of contributions, with some status characteristics more consequential for low-contributing teams and other characteristics more influential for high-contributing teams (Hypothesis 5c).

My results showed that many factors ultimately influenced whether nascent entrepreneurs on teams establish operational businesses that did not affect solitary nascent entrepreneurs. For low-status entrepreneurs, team-based membership can lessen the negative impact that their relative inexperience or lack of legitimacy from the perspective of potential clients, customers, lenders, and/or investors will have on their ability to establish organizations. If low-status individuals form teams from their existing networks in which members have high status and are highly contributory, then nascent entrepreneurs improve their chances of continuing nascent entrepreneurship and establishing businesses. They also reduce their chances of abandoning startup activities. For high-status entrepreneurs who are more likely to achieve favorable entrepreneurial outcomes on their own relative to low-status entrepreneurs, team composition and functioning are even more critical. High-status entrepreneurs can only improve their chances of business establishment through team-based entrepreneurship when they have highly functioning teams, preferably with members whose ascribed and achieved status equal or exceed their own. If high-status individuals form teams with low-status individuals, they not only need to maximize the number of different contributions that team members provide overall, but also try to ensure that all team members are highly contributory. Women team members need to pay particular attention to team contributions and team composition because their entrepreneurial outcomes are worsened by team size. Women improve their chances of entrepreneurial success through participation in highly contributory startup teams but do better as isolates than as members of low-functioning or low-status teams.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

My dissertation used a nationally representative sample of individuals starting businesses in the United States to determine how individual status characteristics, team status composition, relational composition, and team processes influenced whether individuals established operational businesses, remained active in entrepreneurial pursuits, or abandoned startup activities. In this chapter, I review the findings from the regression analyses in terms of hypotheses supported or rejected. Then, I discuss the theoretical implications of my results in terms of status characteristics theory and small group processes theories. I then discuss the practical implications with regard to what types of status-team situations produced more or less favorable entrepreneurial outcomes, which may suggest the ways in which individuals from a variety of status locations can achieve the most favorable results in entrepreneurial pursuits. Finally, I discuss the limitations of my research and finally the directions for future research.

Review of Theory

In Chapter 2, I outlined the theoretical justification for my research. I argued that status would influence experiences of nascent entrepreneurs in multiple ways. First, status characteristics of individual team members would influence relative power in startup teams in terms of which team members received credit for particular contributions. Second, I argued that overall team status characteristics such as average status, maximum status, and status diversity would influence the overall functioning of teams as measured by member contribution levels and access to multiple types of assistance. Finally, I argued that individual status characteristics, team status characteristics, and team processes would influence whether nascent entrepreneurs established operational businesses, remained entrepreneurially active, or discontinued pursuits of business ownership.

Status characteristics are observable traits that are differentially valued. Individuals have many different status characteristics and a person's collection of status characteristics shape expectations that he or she and others have about likely and appropriate behaviors as well as capabilities to perform various actions (Zelditch et al 1980). For example, status characteristics shape impressions regarding how successfully persons will start businesses or contribute to business startup activities. Status characteristics are either ascribed, based on biological or physical characteristics that cannot be manipulated in most instances, or achieved, human capital based on the education and experience individuals acquire (Linton 1936). The ascribed characteristics I considered were age, race, and gender. The achieved characteristics I considered were startup experience, industry experience, occupational SEI, and occupational sex composition. I also considered more detailed achieved status characteristics in Chapter 5: bachelor's degree, business/finance/accounting education and experience, labor force continuity, and full-time labor force continuity.

Because people have many different statuses, sociologists have generated theories about how individuals are treated or evaluated based on their multiple status characteristics. Master status (Hughes 1945) refers to the idea that individuals typically have one status which has more influence on their lives than any other status characteristic, whether it is race, gender, or occupation. Hughes argued that for African Americans, race is their master status. The activation principle states that beliefs developed outside of group interactions are activated when they are seen as relevant to a group task (Cohen and Zhou 1991). The path of relevance principle states that status characteristics most closely tied to the goals of group activities will be more influential in group interactions than will status characteristics less directly related to group goals (Cohen and Zhou 1991). I used these theoretical concepts to interpret my results regarding the variation in the importance of different status characteristics for team processes and entrepreneurial outcomes.

Review of Hypotheses and Results

I first hypothesized that high status characteristics would produce more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than would low status characteristics. I tested Hypothesis 1 in Chapter 5 and my analysis did not provide empirical support for it. My lack of results reflects the contingent value of status, meaning that status is invaluable in some entrepreneurial contexts but not others. I will elaborate on the status' contingent influence on entrepreneurial outcomes when I review the results for Hypotheses 5 and 13.

Next, I hypothesized that individual status characteristics would influence how respondents credited team members (both themselves and others) with providing assistance to their startups. I tested Hypothesis 2 in Chapter 4 and the analyses largely supported my hypothesis. I ran several regressions to test Hypothesis 2, by considering team members' overall contribution levels as well as their contributions of four individual types of assistance. In addition, I ran my analyses separately for men and women respondents (i.e. self-reports) and the team members of men and women respondents (alter reports). My results showed that 1) particular status characteristics varied in their influence on contributions, 2) respondents evaluated themselves differently than others, and 3) men and women differed in how status characteristics influence their contribution evaluations.

I found that one of the most important status characteristics in terms of its influence on respondents' evaluations of team members' contributions industry experience. Years of industry experience was positively related to the number of resource assistance types team members were credited with providing by respondents, as well as positively associated with providing introductions, information, training, and negatively related to being credited with providing personal services. However, the magnitude of the effect was modest. Occupational SEI was positively associated with individuals providing information as well as the total number of assistance types they were credited with providing. Race influenced whether individuals were credited with providing introductions, both for respondents' team members and themselves. Men were significantly more likely to credit team members (either themselves or others) with providing introductions if they were African American or Hispanic.

Respondents' own status characteristics influenced how they evaluated others. On average, respondents of higher status were less likely to credit others with providing contributions. Therefore, low-status individuals can access more assistance by joining teams with high-status individuals but simultaneously risk having their own contributions unrecognized.

I found some evidence for gender-based status expectations (Cohen and Zhou 1991, Kennelly 1999, Marwell 1975, Ridgeway 1993). These effects were not particularly pronounced, suggesting that gendered status beliefs do not permeate all team interactions and exchanges. Men were less likely to credit their female team members with providing information. In the combined sample, respondents were more likely to credit female alters with providing personal services. When the analyses for men and women were run separately, the coefficients became insignificant but were positive for men and negative for women. In addition, women were more likely to credit themselves (but not other female team members) with providing personal services. My results in many ways support the balance of previous research, which demonstrates that gender is a significant status characteristic but that men and women entrepreneurs also exhibit many similarities (Boden and Nucci 2000, Cliff et al. 2004, Du Rietz and Henrekson 2000, Kalleberg and Leicht 1991, Menzies, Diochon, and Gasse 2004, Shaver, Gatewood, and Gartner 2001).

To summarize, the results to Hypothesis 2 suggested which status characteristics most influenced respondents' evaluations of team members' contributions. Industry experience, occupational SEI, and to a lesser extent gender and race influenced what sorts of resources individuals are recognized as contributing. Therefore, status beliefs influence team interactions even on self-selected entrepreneurial teams, in which a good proportion are formed with relatively close ties. Respondents appeared to place greater emphasis on achieved status characteristics rather than ascribed status characteristics in most instances.

I predicted in Hypothesis 3 that the levels of resource contributions within teams would improve entrepreneurial outcomes, that is, increase the odds of entrepreneurs remaining active or establishing operational businesses and decrease the odds of entrepreneurs abandoning startup activities. I tested Hypothesis 3 in Chapter 5. I found that both average number of assistance types provided per team member and the total number of unique assistance types given significantly improved entrepreneurial outcomes. These two measures vary in that the average measures the level of contributions overall whereas the total number does not consider the source of the contributions and instead measures respondents' access to different types of assistance through team interactions. The second measure would be equivalent for a five-person team in which each person provided the same four identical resources and a team in which one person provided four resources. Similarly, a team in which each person provided a unique resource would have a low level of average number of assistance types given but a high value for the total number of assistance types given.

I found that both having each team member provide multiple assistance types (average) and having several contribution types provided by the team overall (unique) improved entrepreneurial outcomes, supporting Hypothesis 3. However, average contributions provided slightly more explanatory power than unique contributions, suggesting that teams were most likely to achieve favorable startup outcomes when members were willing and able to contribute rather than when teams were simply able to access multiple types of assistance through members' pooled resources. This result suggests that team processes, how well team members work together, may be slightly more important than team resources, the sum of shared assets available to team members.

Respondents on teams in which members contribute several different types of assistance were more likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startup activities relative to solitary nascent entrepreneurs (with no assistance contributions) and nascent entrepreneurs on low-contributing teams.

In Hypothesis 4, I predicted that team status would be positively associated with the provision of startup assistance. I measured team status alternatively as average status characteristics (Hypothesis 4a) and maximum status characteristics (Hypothesis 4b) of team members. I tested Hypothesis 4 with analyses presented in Chapter 4. I found that these results were similar to those from Hypothesis 2. For example, average industry experience and maximum industry experience were positively associated with the average number of assistance types provided and the total number of unique assistance types provided. I found support for Hypothesis 4, although not all status characteristics influenced provisions of assistance and different status characteristics were significant for different types of assistance. Team-level industry experience most often influenced contributions, followed by gender composition, race, and occupational characteristics. Startup experience and age least often significantly influenced contributions within startup teams. These results suggest that teams with members with high status characteristics were better positioned to contribute assistance relevant to business ownership than teams with low-status individuals.

Next, I hypothesized that team status would influence entrepreneurial outcomes. Specifically, average team status characteristics (Hypothesis 5a) and maximum team status characteristics (Hypothesis 5b) would be positively associated with establishment and continued entrepreneurial participation and negatively associated with abandoning startup activities. I tested Hypotheses 5a and 5b in Chapter 5. I found that empirical support for this hypothesis depended on how isolates' maximum and average team status characteristics were measured. I found little support for Hypotheses 5a and 5b when isolates were given the value of zero for maximum and average status characteristics. However, when I assigned isolates their own status values and controlled for respondent status characteristics, I found that team average status characteristics tended to improve entrepreneurial outcomes, particularly when the respondent's status characteristics were lower than the average or maximum status characteristics. I found more support for Hypothesis 5a than 5b. Rather than teams simply needing to reach a status threshold to improve entrepreneurial outcomes, low-status team members who decrease the average status characteristics can reduce chances of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes for teams.

Given the results from Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4, I wanted to determine if the effect of team status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes was simply mediated through the increased levels of contributions that high-status teams tended to provide. Therefore, I ran my models testing Hypothesis 5 with indicators of contributions. I found that average status characteristics were still significant when I accounted for contributions, but some maximum status characteristics, such as maximum industry experience, became insignificant after controlling for contributions. Therefore, average industry experience improved entrepreneurial outcomes directly and through increasing startup contributions whereas maximum status characteristics had fewer direct effects on entrepreneurial outcomes because their effects were partially mediated through contributions.

In Hypothesis 5c, I predicted that the effects of team status on entrepreneurial outcomes would be influenced by the extent to which team members contributed assistance to their startups. Specifically, I argued that average and maximum status would have greater effects on the entrepreneurial outcomes of high-functioning teams than low-functioning teams. I did not find strong support for this hypothesis, but I did find that status characteristics sometimes had diverging effects on entrepreneurial outcomes depending on the level of resource contributions provided by team members, suggesting interaction effects. For example, average industry experience had a greater effect on reducing the odds of abandoning startup activities for low-contributing than high-contributing teams (contrary to expectations). However, average occupational SEI only increased the odds of respondents remaining entrepreneurially active for high-contributing teams (consistent with expectations).

Reviewing what the results have revealed thus far, status characteristics influence how contributions are credited within startup teams and levels of contributions within startup teams. In addition, levels of contributions within startup teams improve entrepreneurial outcomes. Individual status characteristics do not significantly influence entrepreneurial outcomes, but team status characteristics do. In addition, the influence of particular team status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes varies depending on the levels at which team members provide assistance contributions in startup teams.

In Hypothesis 6, I predicted that teams with high levels of status diversity would have lower levels of resource contributions. I tested Hypothesis 6 in Chapter 4. Although I found individual instances in which particular types of diversity reduced the odds of someone in a respondent's team providing a particular type of assistance, such as training, diversity did not reduce the number of assistance types provided per person or the number of unique assistance types provided by the team collectively. Overall, I did not find support for Hypothesis 6. Given that high-status teams out performed low-status teams and diversity did not reduce contribution levels, a diverse team would perform better than a homogeneous, low-status team. In other words, low-status individuals can improve their access to assistance in startup teams and their chances of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes by forming teams with high-status individuals without diversity undermining team functioning.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that status diversity would increase odds of abandoning startup activities and decrease odds of entrepreneurs remaining active in their startups or establishing operational businesses. In my analysis presented in Chapter 5, I found virtually no evidence that status diversity overall worsened entrepreneurial outcomes, although I did find that ethnic diversity increased women's odds of abandoning startup activities. Perhaps the lack of results stem from offsetting benefits and disadvantages from group diversity (increased access to diverse resources on one hand and low levels of cohesion and trust on the other), or may result from diversity simply having little influence on entrepreneurial outcomes. I then considered an interaction effect between assistance provisions and diversity on entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 7a). I found little support for this hypothesis, although there were a few instances in which status diversity's effect on entrepreneurial outcomes varied depending on the level of resource contributions provided. Therefore, low-status individuals can better position themselves to achieve favorable entrepreneurial outcomes by forming teams with individuals of high status that are dissimilar to themselves rather than to seek status homogeneity by forming teams with other low status individuals. However, they may have difficulty finding high status individuals willing to start businesses with them given homophily and ecological constraint (Ruef et al 2003). In addition, my results showed that high-status individuals may have worse outcomes when working with low-status team members, making them unattractive to high-status nascent entrepreneurs.

In addition to considering the effects of status composition, I also considered how relational composition would influence team processes and entrepreneurial outcomes. I considered the possible benefits and drawbacks of close ties in startup teams. Close ties can have higher levels of trust and may have more facile interactions given similarity of personality and communication style which could result in higher levels of contributions and more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes (Barsade and Ward 2000, McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook 2001). However, close ties may have restricted access to novel resources such as contacts and information, and therefore teams with weak ties may be more likely to have high contribution levels and favorable entrepreneurial outcomes.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that teams with close relationships (such as kin or spouse) will have higher levels of resource exchange than teams with weaker relationships. In my results presented in Chapter 4, I found some support for this hypothesis in that the closeness of relationships often increased the overall level of assistance contributions provided as well as the odds of someone within a respondent's team providing an individual contribution, particularly personal services. Although close-tie teams were more likely to provide personal services, consistent with Hypothesis 9, weak tie teams were never significantly more likely to provide information or contacts, contrary to Hypothesis 9. Therefore, net of status characteristics, weak ties do not improve access to any type of startup assistance and respondents maximize contributions within teams by having team members that are both high status and share close ties.

Hypothesis 10 predicted that teams with more than one relationship type, such as two spouses and a coworker in one team, would have lower levels of resource contributions, due to relational asymmetry and resulting low levels of trust. My results testing Hypothesis 10 are presented in Chapter 4. I found that although teams with more than one relationship type were less likely to provide personal services as a “most important resource” for women, they were no less likely to provide different assistance types and occasionally increased the provision of assistance within startup teams. Therefore, I rejected Hypothesis 10.

In Hypotheses 11 and 12, I predicted that relations among team members would influence entrepreneurial outcomes. The results testing Hypotheses 11 and 12 are presented in Chapter 5. I found some support that tie strength would improve entrepreneurial outcomes for women, because tie strength reduced their odds of abandoning startup activities and increased their odds of remaining entrepreneurially active (Hypothesis 11). The only support I found for Hypothesis 12 was that teams with more than one relationship type decreased the odds of men remaining entrepreneurially active. Overall, tie strength had minimal effects on entrepreneurial outcomes. Therefore, I rejected Hypotheses 11 and 12.

I predicted an interaction effect between team relationships and resource contributions on entrepreneurial outcomes in Hypotheses 11a and 12a. I did find an interaction effect, but it was contrary to expectations and therefore I rejected both hypotheses 11a and 12a. I predicted that team relationships would become insignificant on entrepreneurial outcomes when there were high levels of resource contributions. However, I found the opposite effect in that team tie strength was only significant and positive when resources were provided by team members at high levels. Therefore, teams are apparently able to capitalize on unmeasured advantages provided by close-tie teams only when the team members provide high levels of assistance to the startup.

Finally, I predicted in Hypothesis 13 that the effect of status characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes would be reduced when nascent entrepreneurs were on teams. I reasoned that when entrepreneurs are on startup teams, the entrepreneurial outcomes are influenced not only by their own characteristics but also the status characteristics of their team members and the functioning of startup teams. Although I did not find a main effect of status on entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 1), I did find an interaction effect between status and team membership on entrepreneurial outcomes. For respondents on startup teams, individual status characteristics had little influence on their entrepreneurial outcomes. For solo entrepreneurs, status characteristics such as industry experience significantly influenced the odds of nascent entrepreneurs remaining entrepreneurially active, starting operational businesses, or abandoning startup activities.

I predicted that startup teams would reduce the effect of individual status on startup outcomes to the extent that resources were contributed by team members (Hypothesis 13a). The results in Chapter 5 testing whether respondents remained active in entrepreneurship or abandoned startup activities did not support Hypothesis 13a. However, the results testing whether respondents established operational businesses were consistent with Hypothesis 13a, in that individuals with constrained achieved status (those with time out of labor force, without a bachelor’s degree or accounting education, and/or in a female-typed occupation) were only less likely to establish operational businesses when they were not on teams with high levels of resource contributions. These individuals were just as likely to establish businesses when they were on high-functioning teams as high-status individuals.

To summarize the findings from my hypotheses, I found that status' effects on entrepreneurship are more complex and nuanced than simply finding that particular status characteristics produced more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than others. First, I found that some status characteristics were more influential than others. Second, I found that the inclusion and consideration of teams, not just as collections of individuals with a battery of status characteristics, but as groups of individuals whose quality of interaction determines how well they can activate their pooled resources, shaped the outcomes of entrepreneurial activities. Status characteristics were influential but not deterministic for high-quality team processes, which consistently affected entrepreneurial outcomes.

A couple of interesting findings for which I did not generate hypotheses in the theory section are worth noting. First, marriage increased the odds of men abandoning startup activities, but the proportion of women on men's teams decreased their odds of abandoning startup activities. This suggests that married men were less likely to abandon startup activities when their spouses were members of their startup teams. These results are not surprising given previous research that marriage is positively associated with the economic status of men, but that benefits men may gain from marriage are contingent on the activities of their spouses (Bellas 1992, Brayfield 1995, Coltrane and Ishii-Kuntz 1992, Demo and Acock 1993, Marshack 1994, Moen and Han 2001).

In addition, I found that team size tended to worsen women's entrepreneurial outcomes, net of other factors. Women, particularly those whose status characteristics constrain the time, money, human capital, and social capital they can devote to entrepreneurial activities, stand to gain substantial advantages from highly functioning and contributory teams. However, women on teams whose members fail to contribute resources tended to perform worse than women pursuing solitary entrepreneurship.

Surprisingly, I found little effects of marriage and parenthood on the entrepreneurial outcomes of women respondents. I argued in the theory chapter that motherhood and marriage would negatively influence women's entrepreneurial outcomes. Marriage and parenthood are associated with women having less human capital, particularly in the form of labor force continuity. Therefore mothers would be expected to be less successful in a business setting to the extent that the roles associated with mother and entrepreneur are incompatible (Alon, Donahoe, and Tienda 2001; Bernhardt 1993, Bittman and Wajcman 2000, Budig and England 2001, Clausen and Gilens 1990, Charles et al. 2001; Drobnic, Blossfeld, and Rohwer 1999; Hakim 1996, Hochschilds 1989, Jacobs 1995, Kaufman and Uhlenberg 2000, Kempeneers 1992, Kreckel and Schenk 2001, Perkins and DeMeis 1996, Rosenfeld 1996, Sanchez and Thomson 1997, Sayer 2005, Wenk and Garrett 1992, Yeandle 2001, Yoon and Waite 1994). In addition, I did not find any evidence that women experienced disadvantages in entrepreneurial outcomes. Instead, in certain instances, women are (net of other factors) more likely to remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startup activities.

Not surprisingly, the amount of time and money invested in startups improved entrepreneurial outcomes and industry and technology factors also significantly influenced entrepreneurial outcomes. The Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics includes a diverse group of nascent entrepreneurs who are at varying stages in the process of starting businesses. Prior research has shown that 1) money invested in small businesses increases survivability (Aldrich 1999) and that 2) nascent entrepreneurs need to invest on average a year of full-time work to establish operational businesses (Reynolds and White 1997).

Theoretical Questions Answered

In Chapter 1, I posed four questions that I hoped to answer through my dissertation research. I now discuss the answers my analyses provided to these questions and how my research has contributed to theories of status and groups or teams.

Question 1: *When do particular status characteristics influence the fates of entrepreneurial pursuits and under what conditions are such characteristics irrelevant?*

Respondents' individual status characteristics were largely irrelevant for respondents on startup teams and were more influential on entrepreneurial outcomes for respondents pursuing business ownership by themselves. The status characteristics that were influential on the entrepreneurial outcomes of solitary respondents varied depending on the outcome under consideration. However, industry experience was the most consistently influential status characteristic and having a female-typed occupation did not significantly influence any entrepreneurial outcome. Therefore, status shapes the stratification of entrepreneurial outcomes in certain instances. Individuals with high levels of industry experience have higher status than individuals with low levels of industry experience and experience better entrepreneurial outcomes as a result. However, individuals' occupational sex composition did not influence the outcomes of entrepreneurial startups and therefore is not a relevant status characteristic in such instances. Weber (1946:138) would argue that those with high levels of industry experience are able to monopolize opportunities in order to produce favorable outcomes. From the perspective of Merton, Parsons, status characteristics theory (McGuire 2002), and expectations states theory (Sell et al 2002), status characteristics associated with the role of entrepreneur are more likely to achieve business establishment compared to those status characteristics seen as incompatible with entrepreneurship. From a status perspective, individuals with higher levels of industry experience have better entrepreneurial outcomes because of reputational effects (Benjamin and Podolny 1999, Bielby and Bielby 1999, Stewart 2005) rather than because of actual skills, resources, or human capital.

Much of status characteristics theory and expectations states theory emphasizes the importance of gender as an influential status characteristic (Cohen and Zhou 1991, Marwell 1975). From these perspectives, women should have lower status than men because the role of entrepreneur is more closely associated with men than with women, given expectations about men's relative superiority with regard to business skills and women's relative superiority with regard to care work. As mentioned above, women did not experience a net disadvantage in entrepreneurial outcomes. Therefore, status theories do not sufficiently explain variations in individual entrepreneurial outcomes between men and women.

At the beginning of the dissertation as well as in the introduction to Chapter 5, I argued that variations in entrepreneurial outcomes are consequential for both social stratification and the organizational landscape. Often, I found that achieved status characteristics had unexpected effects on entrepreneurial outcomes, that those with high achieved status were more likely to abandon startup activities, for example. I reasoned that these individuals' abandonment does not necessarily reflect an unfavorable economic outcome as they may be lured into attractive offers to become employees of existing organizations. Therefore, my results did not always shed light on economic stratification of nascent entrepreneurs. However, finding that certain types of achieved status are negatively associated with entrepreneurial outcomes has implications for the organizational landscape in terms of which organizations are formed by which individuals. The nature of the types of organizations which are founded or not founded affects the organizations and individuals who might encounter them. In other words, status characteristics' effects on which organizations are founded or not founded influence what products and services are available, employment growth, and various employment conditions, and thus have a profound, if indirect, effect on social stratification.

For members of teams, their own status characteristics did not have a significant impact on entrepreneurial outcomes. However, team members' status characteristics influenced entrepreneurial outcomes, as I discuss below under Question 3. Therefore, the inclusion of teams contributes significantly to understanding how status influences entrepreneurship compared to studies focused on solitary nascent entrepreneurs or owners.

Question 2: *How do individual team members' status characteristics influence group processes in self-selected teams seeking to start businesses?*

Respondents are influenced by status characteristics of themselves and others when evaluating how contributory team members are. In other words, status characteristics shaped power in startup teams because they influenced which team members were given opportunities to contribute assistance and which members were given credit for the assistance they contributed. My results in this regard were consistent with status characteristics theory and expectations states theory. Industry experience was the most consistently influential status characteristic. Individuals with high levels of industry experience were credited with providing more contributions, either because their human capital was positively associated with their ability to contribute, and/or because they received deference from team members which provides them with more opportunities to contribute and have their contributions more often recognized. Occupational SEI was the next most influential status characteristic, followed by startup experience (which was more often significant in self-reports rather than in alter reports), gender, race (primarily associated with introductions), and finally occupational sex composition rarely influenced credits of contributions. Variations in the influence of particular status characteristics demonstrate the path of relevance principle, that status characteristics most directly relevant to group goals were more influential than characteristics distantly or indirectly related to group goals (Cohen and Zhou 1991).

Respondents' status characteristics influenced their evaluations of others. Therefore, a person with 10 years of industry experience was credited with providing differing levels of contributions depending on the status characteristics of the evaluator.

Typically, the higher the status of the evaluator, the lower the level of contributions they credited others with providing. My results support Alexander's (1972) finding that individuals vary in their evaluations of others of the same status depending on variations in the statuses of the evaluators. In other words, a team member with 10 years of industry experience had more influence in a team in which other members had little experience compared to a team in which other members have similar levels of experience. My results show that, even in entrepreneurial teams, which unlike classroom teams, work teams, or experimental teams, involve members selecting one another and having autonomy with regard to work tasks and methods, team processes are influenced by status expectations. Low-status individuals seeking access to assistance through startup teams may benefit from forming teams with high-status individuals, but they risk having their own contributions overlooked.

One way in which my research extends status theory is that I examined groups that are considerably different from the groups typically considered in expectations states theory. Rather than examining experimental groups that are assigned tasks, this research considered entrepreneurial teams that are typically close-tie teams that have considerable autonomy in their work content and work methods. Also, unlike experimental methods in which researchers record interactions, my data are from the perspective of a particular team member.

I found that gender mattered in team interactions not only in terms of personal services, training, and information assistance provisions, but in that men and women respondents reported that particular status characteristics had different effects on team contributions. Therefore, not only do men and women have different roles and statuses within self-selected, close-tie, autonomous teams, but they differ in their characterizations of group functioning. Differences in how men and women evaluate team members cannot simply be explained by Alexander's (1972) finding that individuals of low statuses tend to evaluate individuals as having higher status than do individuals of high statuses. That is, women do not simply evaluate team members as providing more contributions than do men. Instead, the relevance of particular status characteristics vary for men and women, and thus the path of relevance and the activation principles appear to be sensitive to differences in status perceptions of men and women (Cohen and Zhou 1991). Members do not necessarily reach consensus on which status characteristics are relevant and which are not. This finding is particularly interesting from a practical perspective. Men and women may not only differ in their perceptions as to which status characteristics are most associated with business acumen, but they may also differ in their perspectives as to what makes businesses succeed or fail, presenting unique challenges to mixed-gender teams.

Many status characteristics appeared largely irrelevant in group interactions. For example, race was largely irrelevant, with the exception of African Americans and Hispanics providing introductions more often, according to male respondents, and according to self-reports, providing more personal services. Occupational sex composition was also largely irrelevant. These status characteristics are not necessarily inconsequential for entrepreneurship, but perhaps their effects are largely present in the startup team formation/selection process. That is, status beliefs associated with race and occupational sex composition may strongly influence whether and with whom individuals form teams. African Americans and Hispanics and those in female-typed occupations may find themselves less often in teams or in teams with individuals with similar status characteristics (Ruef et al. 2003). Once they are in teams, however, their race and occupational sex typing characteristics then have little effect on the team interactions with individuals who chose to start businesses with them. From a theoretical perspective, whether teams are self-selected or assigned may substantially influence which status characteristics are most relevant, even if the content of tasks is the same. In other words, race and occupational sex composition would possibly have substantial effects on teams in which membership is assigned by nonmembers.

Question 3: *How does group composition (average and maximum status, status diversity, and relational characteristics) influence a) group processes and b) the fates of startups?*

Average status characteristics of teams were most influential on the team processes and entrepreneurial outcomes of respondents; status diversity characteristics were the least influential. Average status characteristics had both a direct effect on entrepreneurial outcomes and an indirect effect mediated through startup contributions. Maximum status (having at least one team member with high status) increased levels of contributions and was associated with improved entrepreneurial outcomes. However, the effects of having one team member with high status were often mediated through contributions and therefore had little direct influence on whether respondents abandoned activities, remained active, or established businesses.

Selected types of status diversity reduced the odds of having a team member provide individual contributions, but did not reduce overall contribution levels. Similarly, status diversity was not associated with less favorable entrepreneurial outcomes.

Therefore, my results suggest that having high status team members can produce favorable entrepreneurial outcomes both directly and through their association with higher levels of startup contributions. Further, in entrepreneurial startup teams in which members have considerable autonomy over who is in the team and what the goals and the activities of the team will be, diversity does not appear to be problematic as it can be in other types of teams.

Respondents were also more likely to experience favorable entrepreneurial outcomes when the average and maximum status of their teams exceeded their own. For low-status individuals, teams may be a way to improve chances of business establishment and reduce chances of abandoning startup activities. At the same time, high-status individuals can decrease their chances of favorable entrepreneurial outcomes if they form teams with low-status persons. Individuals have many status characteristics and may have status inconsistency (Berger et al. 1992) in which they have both high and low status characteristics. Therefore, a situation in all team members could improve their entrepreneurial outcomes would be a team in which members had high status on complimentary dimensions. A person with several years of industry experience but low occupational SEI might want to form a team with someone with a high status occupation. According to Van der Vegt et al. (2006) this sort of diversity, expertise diversity, in which team members vary in the areas of expertise, may be preferable to expertness diversity, in which team members vary in their level of overall of competence varies from high to low.

Question 4: *How do team interactions and processes influence the condition of startups? Are the effects of team processes more or less important than those of group status composition?*

Startup team interactions strongly influenced whether respondents abandoned startup activities, established operational businesses, or remained active in entrepreneurship. These results highlight the importance of team processes in entrepreneurial activities (Aubert and Kelsey 2003, Faraj and Sproull 2000). Average number of contributions per person was significant more often with slightly larger coefficients than was the number of unique contributions. This distinction also suggests the importance of team processes, meaning that teams are most likely to achieve favorable entrepreneurial outcomes when all team members are highly contributory rather than entrepreneurial outcomes depending on a team's access to unique types of assistance, regardless of how contributions are distributed among team members.

This result answers the question asked in my dissertation title, "More (or less) than the sums of their parts?" Teams are not simply collections of status characteristics. Their interactions and processes, as measured by members' contribution of assistance from the perspective of respondents, consistently favorably influenced entrepreneurial outcomes. Therefore, teams are complex and need to be studied further. Ignoring teams not only omits consideration of other members' status and resources, but ignores various ways in which members relate to one another that shape outcomes.

Theoretical Contributions

First, my results support the path of relevance principle, that different status characteristics vary in their importance depending on how closely a status characteristic is linked to group goals (Cohen and Zhou 1991). In particular, my results show that, in self-selected startup teams, some status characteristics that have been shown to be relevant to business ownership, such as race and occupational sex composition, are of relatively little importance. I argue that such status characteristics likely influence selection processes, determining which individuals become members of particular teams, but do not influence team interactions and processes. My results also show that status characteristics of individuals influence how they evaluate the status characteristics and contributions of others. In particular, high-status team members reported lower contributions from alters and the relationship between status and contributions varied between men and women and between alters and self-reports. Therefore, notions of which members have the most influence and which members are the most contributory likely differ among members.

I found some instances in which status characteristics, particularly achieved status characteristics, had negative effects on entrepreneurial outcomes. These contrary findings demonstrate that status's relationship with entrepreneurship is complicated by the opportunity costs of entrepreneurship, in which high status individuals can more easily find lucrative jobs in the wage and salary labor market (Boden and Nucci 2000, Gimeno et al. 1997).

Second, my results show that status influences entrepreneurial outcomes in a nuanced manner. Individuals and teams with high status characteristics tend to experience more favorable entrepreneurial outcomes than individuals or teams with low status characteristics. For those on teams, their individual status becomes irrelevant and the status of the team more closely determines the fate of startup efforts. Specifically, status does not operate as a threshold effect, in which a team must only have one member with high status characteristics to improve their outcomes. Instead, status influences entrepreneurial outcomes most often as an average, in which each team member's characteristics can either increase or decrease the team's chances of favorable outcomes.

Third, my results demonstrate that, although team resources are important, team processes are highly influential on entrepreneurial outcomes. The process perspective argues that groups must effectively manage the pooled resources of their members (Faraj and Sproull 2000). Teams are most successful when they have collective efficacy, trust, and information exchange, as evidenced by the influence of contributions on entrepreneurial outcomes. Team resources and processes interact in different ways, with some status characteristics having more importance when team processes are low quality and other status characteristics having more importance when team processes are high quality. Through process gains, entrepreneurs on high-functioning teams are able to achieve advantages in outcomes over individuals and low-functioning teams (Aubert and Kelsey 2003). In addition, women are particularly vulnerable to process losses, in which costs of team management and coordination detract from entrepreneurial outcomes.

Fourth, gender as a status has important influences on both group processes and entrepreneurial outcomes (Cohen and Zhou 1991, Marwell 1975). First, women's presence on teams significantly influences the odds of team members providing information, training, and personal services. Mixed-sex teams often have traditional division of labor in which personal services are contributed by women but training and information are not shared, and are perhaps monopolized by the men on teams. In addition, men and women reported differences in the ways in which status characteristics influenced contributions in teams. Finally, although women did not experience net disadvantages in entrepreneurial outcomes, team size negatively influenced women's entrepreneurial outcomes.

Applications

Given the importance of team processes on entrepreneurial outcomes, my results suggest that entrepreneurs starting teams would benefit from developing skills relevant to working in self-directed teams. Van der Vegt et al. (2006) found that variation between teams accounted for a substantial portion of the variation in commitment and helping in student groups, net of status characteristics. In other words, some groups have unmeasured dynamics that promote or hinder assistance giving and commitment. They argued that deliberate efforts should be directed toward effective group processes in which interdependence and collective goals are emphasized (890). In particular, those with limited experience in the industry of their entrepreneurial pursuits (who stand to gain the most from team-based entrepreneurship) could arguably benefit from instruction on how to provide as many contributions as possible to their teams and elicit contributions from their team members. Likely methods of increasing team functioning include written and oral communication skills and trust-building exercises (Bray 2004, Caldwell and O'Reilly 2003, Eby and Dobbins 1997; English, Griffith, and Steelman 2004; Halfhill et al. 2005; Katz-Navon and Erez 2005; Molleman, Nauta, and Jehn 2004; Schei and Rognes 2005, Shepherd and Krueger 2002, Smith et al. 1994, Whiteoak, Chalip, and Hort 2004). Such instruction could come in the form of courses directed at business owners that typically provide instruction on building business plans, making presentations to investors, locating and securing funding, financial bootstrapping, human resources, and other skills. In addition, given that, on average, teams formed among existing relationships rather than among strangers and that close relationships sometimes produced better team functioning and entrepreneurial outcomes than weaker relationships, nascent entrepreneurs should be encouraged to seek out potential entrepreneurial opportunities with members of their social network rather than to recruit strangers to startup teams.

The results of my dissertation suggest that inexperienced business owners/nascent entrepreneurs are *not* likely to improve team functioning or entrepreneurial outcomes simply by taking business courses. Neither general business courses nor finance or accounting courses consistently improved entrepreneurial outcomes or contribution levels within teams. Apparently, classroom training in business principles (save the occasional positive influence of accounting course experience) did not always translate into improved team functioning and entrepreneurial outcomes. Inexperienced business owners may therefore have better results focusing on team work and network building than on learning business fundamentals. In fact, such a result supports the notion that status perceptions are just as important, if not more important, than human capital.

Team-building and networking skills should be particularly directed at low-status entrepreneurs, rather than high-status entrepreneurs. For example, individuals who pursue nascent entrepreneurship after being absent from the labor force either due to unemployment or family obligations and therefore lack industry experience would particularly benefit from engaging in nascent entrepreneurship in high-functioning startup teams rather than as individuals.

Given that diversity is rarely detrimental to startup teams, individuals who have some high status characteristics and some low status characteristics may find improved outcomes when they form teams with individuals who have high status in areas they do not, if they successfully exchange information and contribute resources. In addition, my research, along with that of Van der Vegt et al. (2006) suggest that low-status team members are vulnerable within their startup teams. My research showed their contributions are more likely to be overlooked and that, in low-functioning teams, they risk being abandoned by their high status team members who have more opportunities outside of entrepreneurship. Van der Vegt et al. (2006) found that high-status team members were more often the recipients of commitment and helping relative to low-status team members and argued that, without intervention, the only way for low-status team members to receive assistance was when high-status team members reciprocated assistance. Therefore, low-status team members who are able to contribute, have their contributions recognized, and elicit contributions from their team members will achieve more favorable outcomes than they are likely to achieve independently or on poorly functioning teams.

My results also suggest that team-building exercises should be targeted at women because, net of team functioning, women do better on their own rather than as members of teams. Apparently, women are more vulnerable to process losses than are men (Aubert and Kelsey 2003, Erez and Somech 1996). Given that team members tended to exhibit gendered expectations with regard to training, personal services, and information, particular attention should be devoted to overcoming stereotypical beliefs regarding gender and entrepreneurship within startup teams.

Therefore, my results suggest that improving the entrepreneurial outcomes of low- status entrepreneurs seeking upward mobility depends both on improving their achieved status and improving their social capital and small group skills. Returns to achieved status such as industry experience were small and low-status nascent entrepreneurs are likely to improve their chances of business establishment by building networks from which they can draw high status, highly contributory team members. Alternatively, stratification in entrepreneurial outcomes may depend more on status's effect on social capital (Lin et al. 1981) than on direct effects of status.

Limitations

On the outset of this research, I had hoped to be able to demonstrate which team configurations would be most suitable for individuals, depending on their status characteristics. My results did not provide strong enough evidence to draw such conclusions. In several instances, the analysis produced contrary results to the relationships hypothesized, suggesting that the theoretical justification for those hypotheses was faulty or incomplete (for example, Hypothesis 11a). In other instances when hypotheses failed to receive empirical support, the true effects of status or team composition may be obscured by limitations of the sample design. For example, if individual or team level status characteristics significantly influence entrepreneurial outcomes in some types of startups but not others (depending on capitalization, industry, risk, degree of urbanization, and so on) these effects would not be apparent from my analyses. That is, one of the strengths of this data—its representativeness of nascent entrepreneurs in all types of entrepreneurial pursuits—may also prevent researchers from understanding the effects of status on entrepreneurial outcomes if there is substantial variation in the magnitude of status' effects on entrepreneurial outcomes within the sample. Others have noted industry differences in the relevance of status or resources (Bates 1995) and some have limited their samples to a particular industry, which limits generalizability but may reveal more insight regarding the nature of different phenomena within a particular setting (Carter, Williams, and Reynolds 1997). The ideal sample would have a diverse, representative sample of nascent entrepreneurs with numbers large enough to run separate analyses for different business types. The costs of collecting such data would be extraordinary, given that only about four percent of the population is engaged in startup activities in one year and the PSED contacted over 64,000 individuals and netted only 817 nascent entrepreneurs who did not always provide complete information, and only half of whom were members of startup teams.

In addition, if I had data on what respondents who abandoned startup activities did after their discontinuance, such as jobs they took and compensation they received, I would be able to determine if those with high achieved status that were leaving entrepreneurship were doing so for more favorable opportunities.

Because so many startup teams are pairs, and so many are spouse teams, it is difficult to know whether the results would be replicated in a sample that had greater numbers of four- or five-person teams or stranger teams. Although large teams and stranger teams are uncommon in the population of U.S. nascent entrepreneurs and therefore may have limited practical importance, the findings would be important from a theoretical perspective.

Additionally, although my hypotheses regarding how status influenced contributions and how contributions influenced entrepreneurial outcomes were largely supported, I would have liked to have additional data on team interactions, including how often they communicated, and whether they communicated face to face, over the telephone, or electronically, how labor and responsibilities were divided, and if roles were assigned. The analysis did show that status influences group processes, but more detailed information on group processes would be illuminating. In addition, I would have preferred to have a better measure of tie strength, such as one based on frequency, intensity, and reciprocity (Marsden and Campbell 1984). Someone starting a business with an individual they have worked with for 20 years full-time may have closer tie strength compared to someone forming a business with a relative.

Finally, I found that status characteristics of team members were influential for members of startup teams. However, I do not have complete information on respondents' alters' status characteristics. Therefore, I do not have confidence in the effects of the "supplemental status characteristics" of team members examined in Chapter 5 because I lack information on the business education and experience and labor force continuity of alters. Given the importance of team members, additional information about their status and their family would enhance the understanding of the effects of each on team processes and entrepreneurial outcomes.

Opportunities for Extension

Even without collecting new or additional data, researchers have many opportunities to extend this research on the effects of status and group processes on nascent entrepreneurship. For example, future researchers should consider how status and team characteristics influence some of the more social psychological aspects of nascent entrepreneurship, including the respondents' goals and expectations for their startups.

That is, individuals' status and team characteristics may influence the sorts of startups they form and the aspirations they have for their businesses. Close-tie teams' aspirations and expectations may differ from those of weak-tie teams and similarly, a single male's expectations and aspirations may differ from those of a mother of young children. In fact, such a line of research may circumvent some of the problems encountered by trying to find patterns in entrepreneurial outcomes among such diverse business endeavors discussed above. If status and group composition and processes significantly influence entrepreneurs' approach to their startups, then the effects of status on entrepreneurial outcomes may be completely mediated by the differences in the types of businesses they pursue and the ways in which they pursue them. Alternatively, if status characteristics do not influence how nascent entrepreneurs pursue their business activities, then status may be considerably less important for nascent entrepreneurs than previously argued.

Table 2.1. List of Hypotheses

1. Individuals with high-status characteristics will be more likely to establish operational businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startup activities than individuals with low status characteristics.
2. High-status individuals will be credited with more contributions to startup teams and will be more likely to be credited with contributing information, contacts, and training, whereas low- status individuals will be more likely to be credited with providing personal services.
3. As the level of resource contributions increases among team members, the odds of establishing operational businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active increase and the odds of abandoning startup activities decrease.

4a. The average status of team members will be positively related to the level of resource contributions within teams.

4b. Teams with at least one member of a high-status characteristic will be positively associated with the level of resource contributions within teams.

5a. The average status of team members will be positively related to establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and negatively related to abandoning startups.

5b. Teams with at least one member of a high-status characteristic will increase odds of establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and decrease odds of abandoning startups.

5c. High-status teams will have increased odds of establishing businesses and remaining entrepreneurially active and decreased odds of abandoning startups to the extent that team members contribute resources.

6. Teams with status diversity will have lower levels of contributions to the startup than teams with status homogeneity.
7. Teams with high levels of status diversity among members will be less likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and more likely to abandon businesses.

7a. The negative effect of status diversity on entrepreneurial outcomes will be reduced to the extent that team members contribute resources to the startup.

8. Teams with weak relationships (such as strangers) will have lower levels of contributions than teams with strong relationships.
9. Close relationships will be more likely to offer personal services whereas weak ties will be more likely to offer information and contacts.
10. Having multiple relationships among team members will lower levels of resource contributions among team members.
11. Teams with close relationships will be more likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and less likely to abandon startups than teams with weak relationships.

11a. The effect of tie strength on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened to the extent that resources are contributed.

12. Teams with more than one type of relationship will be less likely to establish businesses and remain entrepreneurially active and more likely to abandon startups than teams with only one type of relationship.

Table 2.1, Page 2. List of Hypotheses

12a. The effect of having more than one type of relationship on a startup team on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened to the extent that resources are contributed.

13. The effect of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes will be lessened when nascent entrepreneurs are on teams.

13a. The level of resource contributions will lessen the effect of individual status on entrepreneurial outcomes.

Table 3.1: Descriptive Statistics for Team Member Data Testing Hypothesis 2

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents		All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.
Alter Characteristics														
Female	0.3759	(0.4847)	0.4016	(0.4908)	0.2798	(0.4502)	0.4632	(0.4998)	0.3424	(0.4753)	-		-	
Age	38.676	(11.3283)	38.959	(11.3601)	39.9219	(11.0543)	38.4714	(11.5007)	38.3059	(11.2942)	37.8229	(10.4516)	38.5574	(11.7526)
African American/Hispanic	0.231	(0.4218)	0.2161	(0.4121)	0.1696	(0.3763)	0.2397	(0.4278)	0.2504	(0.4340)	0.2373	(0.4270)	0.2872	(0.4537)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0975	(3.1923)	-0.1941	(3.2172)	-0.2311	(3.2983)	-0.1754	(3.1810)	0.0291	(3.1600)	-1.8202	(4.3849)	-0.0661	(3.9639)
Startup Experience	0.4372	(0.4964)	0.4693	(0.4997)	0.4966	(0.5014)	0.4554	(0.4991)	0.3953	(0.4897)	0.3819	(4876)	0.4022	(0.4918)
Occupational SEI	50.482	(22.9576)	50.662	(23.3459)	50.0473	(22.2768)	50.9725	(23.9031)	50.2477	(22.4742)	44.2226	(24.8614)	53.385	(20.4882)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.2019	(0.4017)	0.2097	(0.4076)	0.168	(0.3749)	0.2308	(0.4223)	0.1916	(0.3942)	0.3781	(0.4866)	0.0945	(0.2933)
Dependent Variables														
Number of Assistance														
Types Provided	3.8286	(1.7288)	3.7117	(1.777)	3.695	(1.9553)	3.7201	(1.6823)	3.9816	(1.6540)	4.0176	(1.8024)	3.9629	(1.5749)
Introductions	0.6813	(0.4663)	0.651	(0.4773)	0.5954	(0.4922)	0.6791	(0.4679)	0.7211	(0.4492)	0.682	(0.4674)	0.7415	(0.4391)
Information	0.8585	(0.3488)	0.8221	(0.3829)	0.7782	(0.4097)	0.8393	(0.3681)	0.9064	(0.2917)	0.8751	(0.3318)	0.9225	(0.2680)
Training	0.5271	(0.4996)	0.496	(0.5006)	0.5254	(0.5008)	0.4812	(0.5008)	0.5678	(0.4962)	0.513	(0.5016)	0.5964	(0.4920)
Personal Services	0.3189	(0.4664)	0.34	(0.4743)	0.3204	(0.4679)	0.3499	(0.4780)	0.2911	(0.4550)	0.3993	(0.4915)	0.2344	(0.4249)
N	715-717		402-403		176-177		226		312-314		141		172-173	

Table 3.2. Descriptive Statistics for Respondents Included in Analyses for Chapter 4: Independent and Control Variables by Gender

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Mean	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**
Respondent Status						
Female	0.341	0.4748	-		-	
Age	38.183	11.2668	37.7029	10.4553	38.4314	11.6812
African American/Hispanic	0.2683	0.4438	0.2347	0.4253	0.2857	0.4531
Log of Industry Experience	-0.6286	4.1703	-1.7846	4.3734	-0.0304	3.9394
Startup Experience	0.4006	0.4908	0.3777	0.4865	0.4125	0.4937
Occupational SEI	50.456	22.543	44.0206	24.7966	53.7861	20.5592
Female-Typed Occupation	0.1928	0.3949	0.385	0.4883	0.0923	0.2911
Team Characteristics						
Team Size	2.4781	0.9016	2.3645	0.7853	2.5369	0.9528
Tie Strength	2.6407	0.5339	2.7871	0.4255	2.565	0.5685
Multiple Relationships	0.1573	0.3646	0.1404	0.3486	0.166	0.3732
Average Status						
Proportion African American/Hispanic	0.2356	0.3976	0.201	0.3832	0.2535	0.4046
Proportional Female	0.3832	0.2867	0.6037	0.225	0.2691	0.2459
Average Occupational SEI	49.6558	18.1688	46.4874	17.7121	51.2984	18.2249
Proportion with Startup Experience	0.4087	0.3784	0.426	0.4017	0.3997	0.3664
Average Age	38.6351	9.4609	38.983	8.8657	38.454	9.7702
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	-0.1228	2.5984	-0.5186	2.4547	0.0821	2.6522
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	0.2082	0.2942	0.2689	0.3471	0.1769	0.2579
Maximum Status						
Any Caucasian	0.7769	0.417	0.8226	0.3834	0.7532	0.4324
Any Male	0.9245	0.2647	0.7785	0.4167	-	
Maximum Occupational SEI	61.0316	19.0475	58.5705	20.3744	62.3051	18.2388
Any with Startup Experience	0.6115	0.4882	0.5915	0.493	0.6218	0.4863
Maximum Age	43.033	11.6782	43.5888	10.4617	42.7453	12.2751
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	1.1262	2.7692	1.0756	2.7701	1.1524	2.7747
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	0.7732	0.4194	0.7071	0.4567	0.8074	0.3954
Diversity						
Ethnic Diversity	0.1264	0.3329	0.0935	0.2921	0.1435	0.3516
Sex Diversity	0.6367	0.4817	0.7785	0.4167	0.5634	0.4974
Occupational SEI Range	23.1239	20.1253	24.9128	20.6018	22.1981	19.8577
Startup Diversity	0.4129	0.4931	0.3503	0.4787	0.4452	0.4984
Age Range	8.3949	9.4951	8.8048	8.6811	8.1828	9.9037
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	2.5486	2.9194	3.2645	3.1596	2.1782	2.7208
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.325	0.469	0.315	0.466	0.331	0.472

Table 3.2, Page 2. Descriptive Statistics for Respondents Included in Analyses for Chapter 4: Independent and Control Variables

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Mean	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**
Controls						
Married	0.7096	0.4546	0.7318	0.4446	0.6982	0.4604
Parent	0.5999	0.4907	0.6124	0.4889	0.5934	0.4926
Number of Children Under 6	0.4283	0.7807	0.5075	0.8734	0.3873	0.7267
Own Home	0.6968	0.4603	0.674	0.4704	0.7087	0.4557
Log of Dollars Invested	5.758	5.8467	4.0135	6.6753	6.6607	5.1551
Log of Hours Invested	5.7158	1.7155	5.368	2.0643	5.8957	1.4764
Home Business	0.5863	0.4933	0.6008	0.4915	0.5788	0.4952
High Technology	0.3346	0.3176	0.2689	0.2792	0.5788	0.4952
Service/Retail	0.7161	0.4516	0.741	0.4396	0.7033	0.4581
Industry Failure Rate	6.6175	1.1584	6.6579	1.1046	6.5966	1.1872
Net Worth in 10,000s	25.6451	93.637	19.1952	40.1413	28.9827	111.6846
Income in 10,000s	6.6868	9.6704	7.3741	14.9938	6.6211	5.0905
South	0.3406	0.4747	0.335	0.4736	0.3435	0.4762
N	318		142		176	

Table 3.3. Descriptive Statistics for Chapter 4 Variables by Tie Strength

	Stranger Teams		Associate/ Friend Teams		Kin/Spouse Teams		No Teams[a]	
	Mean	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**
Respondent Status								
Female	0.0768	0.2876	0.2242	0.4193	0.4051	0.492	0.3972	0.4901
Age	38.9387	16.4348	36.2569	11.8578	39.0333	10.707	38.8062	10.6843
African American/Hispanic	0	0	0.3123	0.4659	0.2591	0.4391	0.2648	0.4419
Log of Industry Experience	0.6598	2.4825	0.1295	3.7215	-1.0274	4.3687	0.1859	3.7827
Startup Experience	0.5362	0.5386	0.4539	0.5005	0.3708	0.4841	0.5174	0.5005
Occupational SEI	64.797	30.7888	55.587	20.4576	47.5301	22.583	49.9117	22.7791
Female-Typed Occupation	0	0	0.1777	0.3843	0.207	0.4061	0.1774	0.3826
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	3.6244	1.4903	2.6414	0.9454	2.3567	0.8095	-	-
Tie Strength	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Multiple Relationships	0.1655[b]	0.4014	0.1388	0.3476	0.1654	0.3724	-	-
Average Status								
Industry Experience Range	0.5617	0.7728	1.8051	2.3768	2.969	3.0989	-	-
Proportion African American/Hispanic	0	0	0.2688	0.4002	0.23	0.402	-	-
Proportion Female	0.1211	0.2314	0.2031	0.3638	0.4761	0.1868	-	-
Average Occupational SEI	61.7292	28.8579	52.1247	19.3153	48.042	16.8892	-	-
Proportion with Startup Experience	0.399	0.3589	0.4543	0.3826	0.3882	0.3774	-	-
Average Age	42.4301	15.2284	36.3282	9.2268	39.5369	9.1457	-	-
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	0.8861	1.8792	0.7074	2.3619	-0.5432	2.6331	-	-
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	0.0827	0.2007	0.1784	0.312	0.227	0.2877	-	-
Maximum Status								
Any Caucasian	1	0	0.7503	0.4352	0.78	0.4152	-	-
Any Male	1	0	0.8574	0.3515	0.9521	0.2141	-	-
Maximum Occupational SEI	67.1004	31.8234	62.5903	20.4229	60.0736	17.7716	-	-
Any with Startup Experience	0.7017	0.4942	0.6612	0.4758	0.5851	0.4938	-	-
Maximum Age	45.723	15.1378	40.9419	11.5953	43.8806	11.5086	-	-
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	1.1358	2.0577	1.569	2.1867	0.9233	3.0083	-	-
Any with a Male-Typed Occupation	0.8672	0.3666	0.6482	0.4801	0.8266	0.3795	-	-

Table 3.3, Page 2. Descriptive Statistics for Chapter 4 Variables by Tie Strength

	Stranger Teams		Associate/ Friend Teams		Kin/Spouse Teams		No Teams[a]	
	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.	mean	s.d.
Diversity								
Ethnic Diversity	0	0	0.1971	0.4	0.0992	0.2997	-	-
Sex Diversity	0.2422	0.4628	0.1416	0.3505	0.8971	0.3268	-	-
Occupational SEI Range	9.9149	10.4299	19.694	20.0029	25.226	20.1228	-	-
Startup Diversity	0.6249	0.5229	0.4318	0.498	0.3957	0.4901	-	-
Age Range	7.2807	10.1118	9.1216	8.2497	8.1076	10.018	-	-
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.382	0.525	0.196	0.399	0.367	0.483	-	-
Controls								
Married	0.5079	0.54	0.5681	0.498	0.7825	0.4135	0.4499	0.4983
Parent	0.3751	0.5229	0.5382	0.5012	0.6372	0.4819	0.4968	0.5008
Number of Children under 6	0.1655	0.4014	0.2985	0.531	0.4983	0.8746	0.439	0.8499
Own Home	0.5079	0.54	0.5069	0.5026	0.7913	0.4073	0.5944	0.4918
Log of Dollars Invested	5.5748	6.6961	5.1306	6.1022	6.0423	5.7024	6.6299	4.4568
Log of Hours Invested	5.2232	1.9393	5.803	1.3953	5.6958	1.8397	5.453	3.2174
Home Business	0.3266	0.5065	0.5037	0.5027	0.6346	0.4827	0.7158	0.4518
High Technology	0.4529	0.3666	0.3715	0.3339	0.3129	0.3071	0.3293	0.2918
Service/Retail	0.8389	0.3971	0.7695	0.4234	0.6868	0.4649	0.7444	0.4369
industry Failure Rate	6.4458	1.5496	6.6134	1.1489	6.6263	1.1523	6.7254	1.0549
Net Worth in 10,000s	25.1549	28.2413	38.0678	156.349	19.9837	43.6893	15.3114	44.5186
Income in 10,000s	8.2219	5.8425	6.5664	5.3204	6.9523	11.229	5.0772	4.1199
South	0.5079	0.54	0.3598	0.4825	0.3251	0.4965	0.3468	0.4767
Dependent Variables								
Unique Number of Assistance Types	4.8143	1.8211	5.0668	1.5457	5.4121	1.6857	-	-
Average Number of Assistance Types	4.0343	1.8488	3.7574	1.3623	3.9241	1.4851	-	-
Any Introductions	0.7904	0.4396	0.9015	0.2996	0.8341	0.3728	-	-
Introductions as Most Important Contribution	0.1655	0.4014	0.3246	0.4707	0.2608	0.4401	-	-
Information as Most Important Contribution	0.3309	0.5083	0.4917	0.5026	0.33	0.4713	-	-
Any Training	0.6249	0.5229	0.7301	0.4463	0.7543	0.4315	-	-
Training as Most Important Contribution	0.1655	0.4014	0.1453	0.3543	0.2231	0.4173	-	-
Any Personal Services	0.2379	0.4599	0.2535	0.4373	0.6081	0.4893	-	-
Personal Services as Most Important Contribution	0	0	0.0098	0.0989	0.1533	0.3611	-	-
N	7		94		217		312	
Weighted N	8.87		100.42		219.57		305.7	

[a]Respondents not on teams are not included for the analyses in chapter 4. However, I display their means and standard deviations to avoid providing additional tables.

[b]Stranger teams with multiple relationships also were those that also had "nonperson" team members.

Table 3.4. Descriptive Statistics for Chapter 5 Variables by Tie Strength

	Stranger Teams		Associate/ Friend Teams		Kin/Spouse Teams		No Teams	
	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.	Mean	s.d.
Age-Squared	1747.74	1601.143	1560.299	1088.196	1679.481	911.3125	1666.157	883.2835
Log of Managerial Experience	-1.0952	4.5317	0.8302	3.2179	0.7929	3.0787	0.8152	2.993
Financial Education	0.4077	0.5308	0.1736	0.3813	0.1261	0.3329	0.1873	0.391
Accounting Education	0.5406	0.5328	0.2301	0.4237	0.2471	0.4326	0.3585	0.4806
Business Education	5.1062	2.2411	3.3533	2.1672	2.6815	1.9228	3.0678	2.1729
Financial Experience	0.4077	0.5308	0.1718	0.3797	0.2551	0.4372	0.2743	0.4471
Accounting Experience	0.4638	0.5386	0.1977	0.4009	0.3262	0.4702	0.3486	0.4775
Business Experience	4.2814	1.149	3.5484	1.7813	3.7296	1.896	3.6624	2.3042
Bachelor's Degree	0.8389	0.3971	0.4715	0.5026	0.3868	0.4884	0.3717	0.4843
Mail Questionnaire	0.5406	0.5383	0.6373	0.484	0.7402	0.4398	0.8385	0.3688
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.1328	0.3666	0.1031	0.3061	0.1591	0.3669	0.1741	0.38
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	0.5923	0.5308	0.5519	0.5006	0.6325	0.4835	0.6483	0.4785
Abandoned Startup Activities	0.2096	0.4396	0.2177	0.4154	0.1871	0.3911	0.2018	0.4022
Operating	0.3266	0.5065	0.3584	0.4827	0.3338	0.4729	0.2599	0.4395
Active or Operating	0.7904	0.4396	0.6136	0.4902	0.603	0.4907	0.5923	0.4925
N	7		75		173		234	
Weighted N	8.87		80.27		176.36		224.67	

Table 3.5. Descriptive Statistics for Chapter 5 Variables by Gender

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Mean	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**	**Mean**	**s.d.**
Age^2	1741.364	938.1125	1635.049	838.5475	1667.449	1002.224
Log of Managerial Experience	0.821	3.072	0.6042	3.1142	0.8787	3.0777
Financial Education	0.1677	0.374	0.1625	0.3697	0.1698	0.3762
Accounting Education	0.3088	0.4625	0.3408	0.475	0.2759	0.4479
Business Education	3.0245	2.094	2.8702	1.9847	3.1001	2.1862
Financial Experience	0.2597	0.4389	0.3016	0.4599	0.2231	0.4172
Accounting Experience	0.3354	0.4726	0.4006	0.491	0.2669	0.4432
Business Experience	3.7284	2.0537	3.8081	1.9966	3.5996	2.1044
Bachelor's Degree	0.4151	0.4932	0.4015	0.4912	0.4022	0.4914
Mail Questionnaire	0.7607	0.4271	0.7896	0.4085	0.7495	0.4342
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.182	0.3862	0.2694	0.4445	0.0867	0.2918
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	0.6524	0.4767	0.7325	0.4421	0.5583	0.4976
Abandoned Startup Activities	0.1881	0.3912	0.1725	0.3786	0.2157	0.4121
Operating	0.2965	0.4572	0.3077	0.4625	0.3015	0.4598
Active or Operating	0.6074	0.4888	0.6171	0.4871	0.5947	0.492
N	479		240		239	
Weighted N	479.64		182.38		289.26	

Table 4.1. General Estimation Equations

Dependent Variable: Number of Assistance Types Provided

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents[a]		Alters of Female Respondents (Reduced Model)	
Alter Characteristics								
Female	0.2228		0.099		-0.1551		-0.6806	
	(0.1433)		(0.2159)		(0.7365)		(0.6787)	
Age	-0.0037		-0.0050		-0.0279	+	-0.0292	*
	(0.0083)		(0.0085)		(0.1574)		(0.0142)	
African American/Hispanic	0.0983		0.3266		-0.0261		0.2563	
	(0.2304)		(0.2937)		(0.6308)		(0.6883)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.1137	***	0.1287	***	0.12	**	0.1147	**
	(0.0259)		(0.0305)		(0.0442)		(0.0427)	
Startup Experience	0.3876	**	0.3629		0.3295		0.4842	
	(0.1471)		(0.2937)		(0.3645)		(0.3506)	
Occupational SEI	0.0086	**	0.0071	+	0.0155	*	0.0164	*
	(0.0031)		(0.0038)		(0.0070)		(0.0068)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0296		-0.232		0.8298	+	0.8368	+
	(0.1936)		(0.2726)		(0.4794)		(0.4696)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	0.2128		0.1076		-		-	
	(0.1989)		(0.2423)					
Age	0.0009		0.0044		0.0463	*	0.0458	**
	(0.0103)		(0.0106)		(0.201)		(0.0177)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.2575		-0.3834		0.3452		-0.1466	
	(0.2563)		(0.3036)		(0.6218)		(0.6905)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0342		-0.0338		-0.1007	**	-0.1001	**
	(0.0234)		(0.0245)		(0.0322)		(0.0317)	
Startup Experience	-0.0791		-0.2465		-0.4205		-0.2163	
	(0.1956)		(0.2090)		(0.3285)		(0.3506)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0100	*	-0.0084	+	-0.0154	*	-0.0147	*
	(0.0041)		(0.0046)		(0.0062)		(0.0060)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.3897		-0.5000	+	-1.1117	*	-1.2589	**
	(0.2628)		(0.2852)		(0.4396)		(0.4138)	
Team Characteristics								
Tie Strength	0.2311		0.4845	*	0.7203	*	0.7834	*
	(0.2246)		(0.2414)		(0.3132)		(0.3316)	
Team Size	-0.0692		-0.1336		-0.1870		0.3195	
	(0.1553)		(0.1832)		(0.3113)		(0.3045)	
Multiple Relationships	0.1204		0.2143		0.1159		-0.4795	
	(0.2921)		(0.3304)		(0.5557)		(0.5516)	
Ethnic Diversity	-0.0387		0.1501		-0.7263		0.4985	
	(0.2310)		(0.3135)		(0.4927)		(0.5355)	
Sex Diversity	-0.3931	+	-0.3291		-1.1589		-1.7803	*
	(0.2174)		(0.2553)		0.8462		(0.7384)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0017		-0.0065		-0.0240	***	-0.0187	***
	(0.0044)		(0.0054)		(0.0074)		(0.0057)	
Startup Diversity	0.2794		0.2747		-0.1472		-0.2213	
	(0.1737)		(0.2187)		(0.3070)		(0.2995)	

Table 4.1, Page 2. General Estimation Equations

Dependent Variable: Number ofAssistance Types Provided

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents[a]		Alters of Female Respondents (Reduced Model)	
Age Range	-0.0087		-0.0108		-0.0091		-0.0412	*
	(0.0105)		(0.0125)		(0.0185)		(0.0174)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0101		-0.0065		-0.1358	**	-0.0416	
	(0.0277)		(0.0341)		(0.0429)		(0.0435)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.3339		0.4583	+	1.0573	*	-0.0187	*
	(0.2038)		(0.2654)		(0.4671)		(0.0057)	
Controls								
Married	0.1048		-0.1053		0.0721		-0.0643	
	(0.2123)		(0.2708)		(0.3725)		(0.3606)	
Parent	-0.1073		-0.2973		-0.1997		-0.2652	
	(0.2126)		(0.2546)		(0.3299)		(0.3196)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1358		0.1907		0.2421		0.1444	
	(0.1077)		(0.1313)		(0.1747)		(0.1664)	
Own Home	0.1181		0.1195		-0.0463		-	
	(0.1908)		(0.2383)		(0.3475)			
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0508	***	0.048	*	0.0857	***	0.05	
	(0.0157)		(0.0176)		(0.0241)		(0.0218)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0761	+	0.0713		-0.0085		0.0325	
	(0.0445)		(0.0540)		(0.0437)		(0.0474)	
Home Business	0.129		-0.0335		0.3261		-	
	(0.1614)		(0.1927)		(0.2681)			
High Technology	0.2187		0.0533		1.1695	*	0.8458	+
	(0.2894)		(0.3237)		(0.4653)		(0.4435)	
Service/Retail	0.2276		0.2806		-0.6534	+	-0.3822	
	(0.1925)		(0.2264)		(0.3451)		(0.3335)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0181		0.0297		-0.1465		-0.1239	
	(0.0836)		(0.1013)		(0.1162)		(0.1149)	
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0004		-0.0008		0.0085	***	-	
	(0.0006)		(0.0006)		(0.0026)			
Income in 10,000s	0.0114		0.0161		0.0077		-	
	(0.0084)		(0.0091)		(0.0052)			
South	0.109		0.1065		-0.1689		-	
	(0.1531)		(0.1986)		(0.3129)			
Constant	2.4137	*	2.0138	+	3.9029	*	3.003	+
	0.991		(1.1015)		(1.7612)		(1.7455)	
X^2	118.79	***	90.88	***	308.54	***	189.88	***
df	37		37		36		31	
Within Team Correlation	0.3179		0.2951		-0.3445		-0.2337	
N	717		403		177		184	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a]model did not converge, although it reported coefficients and standard errors. I removed some insignificant control variables from the model to its right to show a model that converged. For consistency's sake, I also did this for the alters of male respondents.

Table 4.1, Page 3. General Estimation Equations

Dependent Variable: Number ofAssistance Types Provided

	Alters of Male Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents (Reduced Model)		All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics										
Female	-0.3729		-0.3343		0.5	*	-		-	
	(0.4349)		(0.4008)		(0.2232)					
Age	0.0042		0.0023		-0.0042		0.0114		-0.0115	
	(0.0110)		(0.0105)		(0.0106)		(0.0191)		(0.0129)	
African American/Hispanic	0.5375		0.2784		-0.2444		-0.4756		-0.0999	
	(0.3485)		(0.3122)		(0.2155)		(0.4477)		(0.2620)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.1472	**	0.1506	***	0.0524	*	0.016		0.0656	+
	(0.0480)		(0.4672)		(0.2534)		(0.0386)		(0.0338)	
Startup Experience	0.3416		0.3017		0.4583	*	0.2649		0.6912	*
	(0.2419)		(0.2375)		(0.2046)		(0.3621)		(0.2784)	
Occupational SEI	0.0074		0.0074		-0.0018		0.0098		-0.0117	*
	(0.0050)		(0049)		-0.0043		(0.0068)		(0.0058)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.7502	+	0.0426		-0.3006		-0.8453		-0.4362	
	(0.4244)		(0.3248)		(0.2919)		(0.5642)		(0.4105)	
Respondent Characteristics										
Female	-		-		-		-		-	
Age	-0.0084		-0.0104		-		-		-	
	(0.0128)		(0.0118)							
African American/Hispanic	-0.6043	+	-0.3280		-		-		-	
	(0.3604)		(0.3268)							
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0218		-0.0112		-		-		-	
	(0.0367)		(0.0340)							
Startup Experience	-0.0042		0.0064		-		-		-	
	(0.2917)		(0.2503)							
Occupational SEI	-0.0134	*	-0.0119	*	-		-		-	
	(0.0062)		(0.0058)							
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.7502	+	-0.5870		-		-		-	
	(0.4244)		(0.4244)							
Team Characteristics										
Tie Strength	0.4632		0.4983	+	0.2146		0.7891	*	0.1829	
	(0.2909)		(0.2707)		(0.2841)		(0.3736)		(0.3415)	
Team Size	-0.1538		-0.1430		0.082		-0.0519		-0.0084	
	(0.1981)		(0.1855)		(0.1569)		(0.3444)		(0.1783)	
Multiple Relationships	0.0455		-0.0781		0.0261		0.4785		0.0093	
	(0.4054)		(0.3832)		(0.3313)		(0.7058)		(0.4171)	
Ethnic Diversity	0.0962		0.1181		-0.1837		0.0903		-0.2611	
	(0.3807)		(0.3437)		(0.2850)		(0.5337)		(0.3371)	
Sex Diversity	0.2832		0.227		-0.4695	+	-0.9805	+	-0.5413	
	(0.4487)		(0.3903)		(0.2654)		(0.5201)		(0.3532)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0043		-0.0044		0.004		0.0091		0.0004	
	(0.0067)		(0.0064)		(0.0047)		(0.0087)		(0.0063)	
Startup Diversity	0.3517		0.3678		0.2645		-0.2781		0.5081	*
	(0.2734)		(0.2474)		(0.2044)		(0.3516)		(0.2546)	

Table 4.1, Page 4. General Estimation Equations

Dependent Variable: Number of Assistance Types Provided

	Alters of Male Respondents	Alters of Male Respondents (Reduced Model)	All Respondents	Female Respondents	Male Respondents
Age Range	-0.0121	-0.0093	-0.0034	-0.0226	0.005
	(0.0139)	(0.0116)	(0.0122)	(0.0225)	(0.0142)
Industry Experience Range	0.041	0.0421	-0.0218	-0.0741	0.0287
	(0.0525)	(0.0499)	(0.0363)	(0.0479)	(0.0530)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2333	0.0396	0.3279	1.205 *	0.0119
	(0.3361)	(0.3326)	(0.2326)	(0.5613)	(0.2612)
Controls					
Married	-0.2078	-0.1851	0.3642	-0.0647	0.501
	(0.3129)	(0.2969)	(0.2424)	(0.4522)	(0.3075)
Parent	-0.3894	-0.3930	0.1351	0.1736	0.1208
	(0.3123)	(0.2832)	(0.2473)	(0.3922)	(0.2995)
Number of Children under 6	0.3139	0.2843	0.0759	0.4453 *	-0.1067
	(0.1634)	(0.1634)	(0.1527)	(0.2190)	(0.1713)
Own Home	0.0045	'-	0.0234	0.0684	-0.1455
	(0.3303)		(0.2401)	(0.4421)	(0.3144)
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0479 *	0.0366 +	0.0448 *	0.0425	0.0458
	(0.0225)	(0.0218)	(0.0185)	(0.0277)	(0.0253)
Log of Hours Invested	0.0679	0.0662	0.1157 +	0.1388	(0.0439)
	(0.0958)	(0.0904)	(0.0604)	(0.0943)	(0.0910)
Home Business	-0.0433	-	0.2706	-0.0413	0.5725 *
	(0.2617)		(0.1893)	(0.3091)	(0.2560)
High Technology	-0.2114	-0.1557	0.3133	1.0984	0.1451
	(0.3635)	(0.3240)	(0.3588)	(0.7412)	(0.4321)
Service/Retail	0.5938 *	0.6772 *	0.2454	-0.0711	0.4371
	(0.2737)	(0.2678)	(0.2600)	(0.3603)	(0.3674)
Industry Failure Rate	0.0231	-0.0293	-0.0703	-0.1037	-0.0926
	(0.1205)	(0.1177)	(0.1048)	(0.1368)	(0.1505)
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0008	-	0.0013 +	-0.0064	0.0014
	(0.008)		0.0007	(0.0039)	(0.0009)
Income in 10,000s	0.0355	-	0.004	0.0062	0.0485 *
	(0.0299)		(0.0076)	(0.0047)	(0.0248)
South	0.0838	-	0.1271	-0.0645	0.2383
	(2539)		(0.2019)	(0.3129)	(.2514)
Constant	2.245 +	2.7716 *	2.0136	1.4042	3.0211 +
	(1.3360)	(1.3078)	(1.2745)	1.7179	(1.5413)
X^2	90.86 ***	96.95 ***			
df	36	31		-	
Within Team Correlation	0.24115	0.2095	-	-	-
N	226	236	318	142	176
R^2			0.1711	0.3132	0.2505
F Statistic			2.64	3.07	2.56
df			30, 287	29, 112	29, 146

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.2. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Introductions or Contacts

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics								
Female	-0.1466		-0.2710		-0.9566		-0.9813	
	(0.1977)		(0.2984)		(1.0927)		(0.8100)	
Age	-0.0269	**	-0.0239	*	-0.0287		-0.0061	
	(0.0098)		(0.1130)		(0.2667)		(0.0178)	
African American/Hispanic	1.2331	**	1.3167	*	1.4062		1.5479	*
	(0.4288)		(5406)		(1.2103)		(0.7296)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.1519	***	0.1841	***	0.2011	**	0.2479	***
	(0.0368)		(0.0411)		(0.0712)		(0.0761)	
Startup Experience	0.7143	**	0.7037	*	0.1204		1.0906	*
	(0.2477)		(0.3125)		(0.6269)		(0.4971)	
Occupational SEI	0.0026		0.0012		0.0106		0.0061	
	(0.0039)		(0.0050)		(0.0108)		(0.0077)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.3472		-0.1584		0.9624		0.257	
	(0.2940)		(0.4028)		(0.7311)		(0.6485)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	0.1865		-0.1473		-		-	
	(0.2624)		(0.3289)					
Age	0.01495		0.0046		0.0578	+	-0.0240	
	(0.0132)		(0.0151)		(0.0343)		(0.0200)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.5028		-0.9000	+	-0.4871		-0.6447	
	(0.4450)		(0.4821)		(1.1204)		(0.6261)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0466		-0.0216		-0.1372	*	-0.0381	
	(0.0322)		(0.0341		(0.0603)		(0.0617)	
Startup Experience	-0.3797		-0.3177		-0.0823		-0.0060	
	(0.2854)		(0.2855)		(0.5614)		(0.4150)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0000		-0.0022		0.0048		-0.0114	
	(0.0054)		(0.0063)		(0.0101)		(0.0084)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.6135		-0.8019	*	-2.3305	**	-1.4211	*
	(0.3747)		(0.3887)		(0.7691)		(0.6261)	
Team Characteristics								
Tie Strength	-0.1936		-0.2274		0.1453		-0.2938	
	(0.2978)		(0.3666)		(0.6427)		(0.4830)	
Team Size	-0.0352		-0.1641		-0.6012		-0.2181	
	(0.1748)		(0.2024)		(0.6117)		(0.2003)	
Multiple Relationships	0.0387		0.278		-0.0525		0.1302	
	(0.3367)		(0.3581)		(1.2545)		(0.4411)	
Ethnic Diversity	0.2653		0.5575		0.2353		0.6091	
	(0.3209)		(0.4483)		(1.1545)		(0.6416)	
Sex Diversity	0.0109		0.2325		-2.1563		1.3081	+
	(0.3402)		(0.3732)		(1.3947)		(.7784)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0033		-0.0082		-0.0173		-0.0040	
	(0.0052)		(0.0063)		(0.0127)		(0.0092)	
Startup Diversity	0.2951		0.1009		0.9533		0.0307	
	(0.2473)		(0.2921)		(0.5936)		(0.4169)	

Table 4.2 Page 2. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Introductions or Contacts

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0004		-0.0063		-0.1028	*	0.019	
	(0.0134)		(0.0159)		(0.0433)		(0.0201)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0117		-0.0073		-0.1401	+	0.0751	
	(0.0358)		(0.0430)		(0.0742)		(0.0743)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2518		0.4997		2.1594	**	-0.0878	
	(0.2956)		(0.3597)		(7987)		(0.5260)	
Controls								
Married	0.1481		-0.1653		-0.5311		-0.8036	
	(0.2757)		(0.3563)		(0.7271)		(0.5185)	
Parent	0.0593		-0.1062		1.3533	*	-0.6374	
	(0.2660)		(0.3101)		(0.5895)		(0.4361)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1439		0.1586		-0.3262		0.5367	
	(0.1660)		(0.1889)		(0.2794)		(0.2899)	
Own Home	-0.0883		-0.0161		0.2234		-0.0648	
	(0.2897)		(0.3161)		(0.5880)		(0.4570)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0381		0.0276		0.084	*	-0.0204	
	(0.0207)		(0.0232)		(0.0418)		(0.0429)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1404	+	0.1667	+	0.0661		0.1681	
	(0.0724)		(0.0937)		(0.0839)		(0.1273)	
Home Business	0.0475		-0.0380		-0.3983		0.4651	
	(0.2223)		(0.2553)		(0.4291)		(0.3554)	
High Technology	-0.3074		-0.6898		2.1073	*	-1.7456	**
	(0.4026)		(0.4803)		(0.8778)		(0.6671)	
Service/Retail	0.36		0.3899		-1.7882	**	0.8873	*
	(0.2622)		(0.3133)		(0.6823)		(0.4452)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0253		0.1344		-0.1485		0.2434	
	(0.1047)		(0.1287)		(0.2749)		(0.1741)	
Net Worth in 10,000	0.0012		0.0022	+	0.0146	+	0.0025	*
	(0.0011)		(0.0013)		(0.0080)		(0.0013)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0016		-0.0105		-0.1	+	0.0231	
	(0.0056)		(0.0103)		(0.0628)		(0.0293)	
South	-0.0476		0.0676		-0.2485		0.1234	
	(0.2314)		(0.2614)		(0.6126)		(0.3212)	
Constant	0.1879		0.6557		4.568		0.4532	
	(1.1876)		(1.4745)		(3.3987)		(2.0600)	
X^2	82.73	***	70.26	***	110.23	***	163.46	***
df	37		37		36		36	
N	715		403		177		226	
Pseudo R^2								

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001
Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.2 Page 3. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Introductions or Contacts

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics						
Female	0.1526		-		-	
	(0.3546)					
Age	-0.0092		0.0192		-0.0223	
	(0.0157)		(0.0267)		(0.0242)	
African American/Hispanic	1.0575	*	0.903		1.3481	*
	(0.4263)		(0.6331)		(0.6622)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0306		0.0042		0.0208	
	(0.0360)		(0.0569)		(0.0514)	
Startup Experience	0.354		0.2366		0.6541	
	(0.3296)		(0.6206)		(0.5204)	
Occupational SEI	0.0043		0.0169		-0.0013	
	(0.0070)		(0.0111)		(0.0120)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0763		-0.9568		-1.1065	
	(0.4628)		(0.7530)		(0.7447)	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-		-		-	
Age	-		-		-	
African American/Hispanic	-		-		-	
Log of Industry Experience	-		-		-	
Startup Experience	-		-		-	
Occupational SEI	-		-		-	
Female-Typed Occupation	-		-		-	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.0422		1.1275	+	0.1601	
	(0.4029)		(0.6597)		(0.6202)	
Team Size	0.4648		0.1226		1.2577	+
	(0.3154)		(0.5382)		(0.7101)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.7665		-1.3429		-1.0693	
	(0.6010)		(1.0999)		(1.3018)	
Ethnic Diversity	-0.1297		0.3097		-0.4862	
	(0.4750)		(0.9118)		(0.7041)	
Sex Diversity	-0.2322		-1.1554		0.2112	
	(0.4589)		(0.9862)		(0.6936)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0010		0.0107		-0.0074	
	(0.0077)		(0166)		(0.0120)	
Startup Diversity	0.5518	+	0.1612		0.9906	*
	(0.3286)		(0.5967)		(0.5000)	

Table 4.2 Page 4. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Introductions or Contacts

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0136		-0.0639	+	0.0675	
	(0.0195)		(0.0383)		(0.0450)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0221		-0.0707		-0.0173	
	(0.0514)		(0.0776)		(0.0845)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2847		2.5797	**	-0.4957	
	(0.3749)		(0.9131)		(0.4109)	
Controls						
Married	0.5885		0.0313		0.4655	
	(0.4196)		(0.7222)		(0.6488)	
Parent	0.2413		0.4832		0.1691	
	(0.3612)		(0.6350)		(0.5224)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1424		0.1178		0.1712	
	(0.2364)		(0.3051)		(0.4242)	
Own Home	-0.2885		-0.4584		-0.9812	
	(0.4386)		(0.6392)		(0.6508)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.047	+	0.0862	*	0.0353	
	(0263)		(0.0411)		(0.0539)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1332		0.0882		0.1165	
	(0.0977)		(0.1286)		(0.1599)	
Home Business	0.1629		0.0313		0.5389	
	(0.3087)		(0.5142)		(0.4997)	
High Technology	0.1629		0.3511		-0.2595	
	(0.5527)		(1.2789)		(0.7202)	
Service/Retail	0.4121		0.5541		0.06375	
	(0.3627)		(0.6662)		0.6095	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.2538		-0.5910	*	-0.0841	
	(0.1681)		(0.2946)		(0.2687)	
Net Worth in 10,000	0.0004		-0.0137	+	0	
	(0.0015)		(0.0075)		(0.0020)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0125		0.0156		0.1	*
	(0.0157)		(0.0117)		(0.0585)	
South	-0.1584		0.0095		-0.109	
	(0.3311)		(0.5384)		(0.4657)	
Constant	-0.7744		-0.300		-3.289	
	(1.6537)		(3.3620)		(3.1033)	
X^2	38.82		47.24	*	32.99	
df	30		29		29	
N	316		141		175	
Pseudo R^2	0.1094		0.2973		0.2119	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.3. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Information

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics								
Female	0.1145		-0.1762		0.2067		-1.6713	*
	(0.2968)		(0.3424)		(1.1496)		(0.8173)	
Age	-0.0301		-0.0271		-0.1026	+	0.0068	
	(0.0189)		(0.0175)		(0.0546)		(0.0258)	
African American/Hispanic	0.0068		0.3125		0.7735		0.8004	
	(0.4941)		(0.6581)		(2.0151)		(0.7604)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.1906	***	0.1626	**	0.2582	+	0.0778	
	(0.0562)		(0.0610)		(0.1489)		(0.1071)	
Startup Experience	0.5698		0.6414	+	0.9923		0.4723	
	(0.3800)		(0.3551)		(0.6275)		(0.6056)	
Occupational SEI	0.0261	***	0.025	***	0.0251	*	0.0403	***
	(0.0063)		(0068)		(0.0120)		(0.0120)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.5551		-0.3291		0.5122		0.1029	
	(0.3860)		(0.3898)		(1.3119)		(0.6214)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.4416		-0.8285		-		-	
	(0.2883)		(0.3469)					
Age	0.01		0.0069		0.1168	*	-0.0299	
	(0.0216)		(0.0228)		(0.0573)		(0.0359)	
African American/Hispanic	0.0929		0.5906		-0.2785		0.1251	
	(0.4977)		(0.6083)		(1.7137)		(0.7738)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.1003	*	-0.1044	*	-0.2191	*	0.0243	
	(0.0459)		(0.0522)		(0.0924)		(0.0897)	
Startup Experience	-0.3416		-0.4490		-1.8658	+	-0.0583	
	(0.3611)		(0.3552)		(0.9379)		(0.4919)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0131	*	-0.0126		-0.0154		-0.0220)	
	(0.0066)		(0.0078)		(0.0116)		(0.0140)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.2504		0.5705		-0.7719		0.1912	
	(0.4176)		(0.4398)		(1.0641)		(0.6768)	
Team Characteristics								
Tie Strength	0.4316		0.161		1.5075	+	-0.2029	
	(0.3362)		(0.4218)		(0.7729)		(0.6396)	
Team Size	-0.1902		-0.2595		0.9152		-0.5524	
	(0.1958)		(0.2291)		(0.6815)		(0.3747)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.1206		-0.4972		-1.3845		-0.7664	
	(0.3443)		(0.3862)		(1.1989)		(0.5464)	
Ethnic Diversity	0.8471	+	1.1333		2.4622		1.3429	
	(0.5126)		(0.7823)		(1.1757)		(0.8622)	
Sex Diversity	-1.2963	**	-0.7393	+	-2.4815	+	0.9087	
	(0.4344)		(0.4345)		(1.4681)		(0.7861)	
Occupational SEI Range	0.0015		-0.0040		-0.0108		0.0151	
	(0.0062)		(0.0076)		(0.0165)		(0.0149)	
Startup Diversity	0.172		-0.1817		-1.0248		-0.9206	
	(0.2774)		(0.3523)		(0.8907)		(0.6012)	

Table 4.3, Page 2. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Information

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0067		0.0241		0.0081		0.0304	
	(0.0155)		(0.0186)		(0.0553)		(0.0280)	
Industry Experience Range	0.0327		0.0616		0.1019		-0.0700	
	(0.0425)		(0.0591)		(0.1164)		(0.1102)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2383		-0.0820		1.791	+	-0.7180	
	(0.3211)		(0.3517)		(1.0481)		(0.5487)	
Controls								
Married	-0.1363		-0.2260		0.2308		-1.0547	
	(0.3662)		(0.3875)		(0.7056)		(0.6553)	
Parent	-0.6812	*	-1.1963	**	0.1415		-1.6210	*
	(0.3354)		(0.3995)		(0.7194)		(0.7128)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1542		0.2121		-0.2849		0.9572	*
	(0.1698)		(0.1869)		(0.3900)		(0.4832)	
Own Home	0.5845	*	0.9924	**	-1.2331		1.9809	**
	(0.2882)		(0.3765)		(0.9278)		(0.7627)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0099		0.0367		0.0754	+	0.0525	
	(0.0252)		(0.0312)		(0.4500)		(0.0626)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.041		-0.1513	+	-0.4057	*	0.0256	
	(0.0728)		(0.0911)		(0.1581)		(0.2361)	
Home Business	0.0657		-0.1608		0.316		-0.8877	
	(0.2585)		(0.3306)		(0.6098)		(0.6752)	
High Technology	-0.2188		-0.2479		0.5409		-1.7833	*
	(0.4498)		(0.4825)		(1.0042)		(0.7593)	
Service/Retail	0.4117		-0.0250		0.0985		0.5013	
	(0.3139)		(0.3901)		(1.2831)		(0.6796)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.1682		0.2659		-0.0621		0.2577	
	(0.1183)		(0.1468)		(0.5140)		(0.2472)	
Net Worth in 10,000	0.0004		-0.0001		-0.0121		0.0019	
	(0.0013)		(0.0015)		(0.0088)		(0.0038)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0115		0.0173		0.0347		0.0297	
	(0.0142)		(0.0242)		(0.0359)		(0.0707)	
South	-0.0572		-0.1598		-0.2414		-0.2715	
	(0.2721)		(0.3113)		(0.8009)		(0.5529)	
Constant	0.8879		1.8069		-0.6344		3.0189	
	(1.4174)		(2.0156)		(3.1440)		(3.6585)	
X^2	77.42	***	53.73	*	58.43	*	88.44	***
df	37		37		36		36	
N	715		403		177		226	
Pseudo R^2								

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.3, Page 3. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Information

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents[a]
Alter Characteristics					
Female	-0.1502		-		
	(0.6024)				
Age	-0.0076		0.0249		
	(0.0264)		(0.0492)		
African American/Hispanic	-0.8002		-2.2739	**	
	(0.5523)		(0.8609)		
Log of Industry Experience	0.0692		0.0027		
	(0.0542)		(0.0658)		
Startup Experience	0.4464		0.5807		
	(0.5003)		(0.8012)		
Occupational SEI	0.0216	*	-0.0093		
	(0.0098)		(0.0143)		
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.9838		-1.2240		
	(0.7840)		(1.4302)		
Respondent Characteristics					
Female	-		-		
Age	-		-		
African American/Hispanic	-		-		
Log of Industry Experience	-		-		
Startup Experience	-		-		
Occupational SEI	-		-		
Female-Typed Occupation	-		-		
Team Characteristics					
Tie Strength	1.1486	*	1.5467		
	(5572)		(1.0000)		
Team Size	0.1064		0.1539		
	(0.3856)		(0.6572)		
Multiple Relationships	1.6936		2.4991	+	
	(1.1100)		(1.4966)		
Ethnic Diversity	0.6272		-0.2500		
	(0.7007)		(1.1718)		
Sex Diversity	-2.8949	**	-3.2278	+	
	(1.0230)		(1.804)		
Occupational SEI Range	0.0141		-0.0116		
	(0.0131)		(0.0231)		
Startup Diversity	0.4849		-1.1859		
	(0.4941)		(0.7491)		

Table 4.3, Page 4. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Information

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents[a]
Age Range	-0.0255		-0.0828		
	(0.0283)		(0.0385)		
Industry Experience Range	-0.0046		0.0478		
	(0.0768)		(0.0931)		
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.0141		1.1886		
	(0.0131)		(1.4397)		
Controls					
Married	-0.6771		-1.0285		
	(0.8309)		(1.0127)		
Parent	0.0401		0.0606		
	(0.6291)		(0.8951)		
Number of Children under 6	0.1449		0.4521		
	(0.3403)		(0.3571)		
Own Home	0.0746		-0.2286		
	(0.6696)		(0.9456)		
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0493		0.0178		
	(0.0519)		(0.0482)		
Log of Hours Invested	0.1081		0.2105		
	(0.2165)		(0.2534)		
Home Business	0.0911		-0.5102		
	(0.4447)		(0.6227)		
High Technology	-0.6136		1.2573		
	(0.9047)		(1.3635)		
Service/Retail	1.027	+	1.1173	+	
	(0.5811)		(0.6478)		
Industry Failure Rate	0.2155		0.0584		
	(0.1871)		(0.2600)		
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0032	+	-0.0095		
	(0.0018)		(0.0105)		
Income in 10,000s	0.0106		0.0241		
	(0.0180)		(0.0754)		
South	0.069		0.1681		
	(0.4847)		(0.8169)		
Constant	-1.6577		-0.6054		
	(1.9462)		(3.5357)		
X^2	55.79	**	43.92	*	
df	30		29		
N	316		141		
Pseudo R^2	0.2239		0.227		

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001
Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Model did not run properly because no respondents who had ethnic diversity in their teams or had more than one relationship reported that they themselves provided information assistance.

Table 4.4. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis
Dependent Variable: Provided any Training

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents
Alter Characteristics							
Female	-0.1960		-0.0319		1.4651	*	-0.6536
	(0.2170)		(0.3048)		(0.7394)		(0.7351)
Age	0.0007		0.0016		-0.0474	+	0.01993
	(0.0138)		(0.0146)		(0.0261)		(0.0205)
African American/Hispanic	0.0202		0.2889		-1.5217		0.7756
	(0.3828)		(0.4442)		(0.9741)		(0.5877)
Log of Industry Experience	0.1683	***	0.161	***	0.263	**	0.1161
	(0.0340)		(0.0440)		(0.08467)		(0.0762)
Startup Experience	0.1208		0.0337		0.6453		-0.0288
	(0.2291)		(0.2821)		(0.4704)		(0.4039)
Occupational SEI	0.0081		0.0091		0.0349	*	0.0138
	(0.0051)		(0.0057)		(0.0138)		(0.0087)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.2156		-0.4207		-0.4624		-0.5949
	(0.2805)		(0.3554)		(0.7023)		(0.6056)
Respondent Characteristics							
Female	0.1782		0.3471		-		-
	(0.2418)		(0.3271)				
Age	0.009		0.0024		0.085	**	0.0035
	(0.0152)		(0.0154)		(0.0316)		(0.0223)
African American/Hispanic	0.0821		-0.3008		1.9974	*	-0.7552
	(0.3783)		(0.4466)		(0.8452)		(0.5835)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0671	*	-0.0452		-0.1641	**	0.0211
	(0.0300)		(0.0340)		(0.0573)		(0.0586)
Startup Experience	0.3194		0.0623		-1.4646	**	0.432
	(0.2600)		(0.2885)		(0.5502)		(0.4128)
Occupational SEI	-0.0084		-0.0068		-0.0256	*	-0.0087
	(0.0056)		(0.0060)		(0.0108)		(0.0099)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1628		-0.3400		-0.1485		-0.6155
	(0.3011)		(0.3588)		(0.5874)		(0.6914)
Team Characteristics							
Tie Strength	0.4573	+	0.5709	+	1.6274	**	0.333
	(0.2524)		(0.2946)		(0.6161)		(0.3970
Team Size	0.0813		-0.1076		-0.2159		-0.1845
	(0.1669)		(0.2049)		(0.5201)		(0.2680)
Multiple Relationships	-0.0752		0.2095		0.1479		0.2267
	(0.3133)		(0.3539)		(0.9029)		(0.4490)
Ethnic Diversity	-0.5333	+	-0.0688		-2.5654	***	-0.1828
	(0.2806)		(0.3741)		(0.7928)		(0.4575)
Sex Diversity	-0.4180		-0.8267)	*	-1.4097		-0.1334
	(0.2766)		(0.3555)		(1.0370)		(0.6701)
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0004		-0.006		-0.0402	*	0.0034
	(0.0052)		(0.0073)		(0.0172)		(0.0104)
Startup Diversity	0.3189		0.2117		-1.4648	*	0.5588
	(0.2195)		(0.2889)		(0.6043)		(0.4118)

Table 4.4, Page 2. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Training

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0013		0.0087		0.0542		0.0024	
	(0.127)		(0.0153)		(0.0331)		(0.0195)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0373		-0.0614		-0.2388	*	-0.0946	
	(0.0363)		(0.0474)		(0.0947)		(0.0781)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.0569		0.3339		-0.0910		0.635	
	(0.2349)		(0.3328)		(0.6328)		(0.5499)	
Controls								
Married	0.2652		-0.0758		1.9394	***	-0.8209	
	(0.2706)		(0.3704)		(0.6046)		(0.5424)	
Parent	-0.0330		-0.2828		0.3369		-0.2103	
	(0.2583)		(0.3200)		(0.5814)		(0.4500)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.0330		-0.0498		-0.2016		0.2238	
	(0.2583)		(0.1831)		(0.3060)		(0.2675)	
Own Home	0.245		0.5057	+	0.1759		0.672	
	(0.2186)		(0.3006)		(0.5822)		(0.4680)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0342	+	-0.0363		-0.0200		-0.0317	
	(0.0177)		(0.0224)		(0.0437)		(0.0343)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.2278	**	0.169		-0.0606		0.281	*
	(0.0740)		(0.0924)		(0.1192)		(0.1326)	
Home Business	0.0283		-0.0607		0.0771		-0.0848	
	(0.2048)		(0.2568)		(0.4758)		(0.3381)	
High Technology	0.5142		0.401		2.3271	**	0.0512	
	(0.3434)		(0.4303)		(0.8845)		(0.6042)	
Service/Retail	0.1607		0.2819		-1.4208	+	0.7621	+
	(0.2494)		(0.3274)		(0.7370)		(0.4610)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0732		-0.1454		-0.3562		-0.1318	
	(0.1025)		(0.1292)		(0.2329)		(0.1958)	
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0001		-0.0005		0.0042		0.0002	
	(0.0008)		(0.0008)		(0.0057)		(0.0011)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0076		0.01		0.0277	+	-0.0382	
	(0.0062)		(0.0104)		(0.0149)		(0.0420)	
South	-0.0967		-0.0622		-0.1663		-0.1544	
	(0.2077)		(0.2842)		(0.5386)		(0.4035)	
Constant	-2.6674	*	-1.1985		-1.6560		-2.1580	
	(1.1997)		(1.5731)		(2.7704)		(2.2881)	
X^2	72.11	***	55.37	*	57.5	*	57.74	*
df	37		37		36		36	
N	716		402		176		226	
Pseudo R^2								

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.4, Page 3. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis
Dependent Variable: Provided any Training

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics						
Female	-0.2058		-		-	
	(0.3002)					
Age	0.019		0.0095		0.0321	
	(0.0153)		(0.0259)		(0.02108)	
African American/Hispanic	0.3581		-0.2004		0.6447	
	(0.3227)		(0.6099)		(0.4225)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0393		-0.0249		0.0571	
	(0.0345)		(0.0527)		(0.0514)	
Startup Experience	0.7529	*	0.6885		0.7558	
	(0.3058)		(0.4827)		(0.4677)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0009		0.0054		-0.0046	
	(0.0066)		(0.0097)		(0.0106)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1019		-1.0165		0.6926	
	(0.3974)		(0.7911)		(0.8113)	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-		-		-	
Age	-		-		-	
African American/Hispanic	-		-		-	
Log of Industry Experience	-		-		-	
Startup Experience	-		-		-	
Occupational SEI	-		-		-	
Female-Typed Occupation	-		-		-	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.208		1.0117	+	-0.1060	
	(0.3716)		(0.5433)		(0.5111)	
Team Size	0.2556		0.7812		0.0083	
	(0.2637)		(0.6039)		(0.3123)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.2778		0.6324		-0.2818	
	(0.5866)		(1.1035)		(0.8199)	
Ethnic Diversity	-0.9950	*	-1.7710	*	-1.3539	*
	(0.4092)		(0.8203)		(0.5410)	
Sex Diversity	0.1258		-1.2509	+	0.2095	
	(0.4107)		(0.7086)		(0.5917)	
Occupational SEI Range	0.0076		0.0052		0.0079	
	(0.0076)		(0.0132)		(0.0116)	
Startup Diversity	0.521		-0.8879	+	1.1334	*
	(0.3021)		(0.4960)		(0.4502)	

Table 4.4, Page 4. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Training

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0081		0.004		-0.0003	
	(0.0198)		(0.0324)		(0.0251)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0177		-0.1218		0.0104	
	(0.0498)		(0.0772)		(0.0795)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.1797		0.0052		-0.1140	
	(0.3224)		(0.0132)		(0.4081)	
Controls						
Married	0.8206	*	1.8258	*	0.7266	
	(0.3656)		(0.8056)		(0.5028)	
Parent	0.3142		0.4971		0.4429	
	(0.3446)		(0.5474)		(0.5350)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.0414		0.1409		-0.1804	
	(0.2238)		(0.3521)		(0.2667)	
Own Home	-0.1050		-0.8407		0.1055	
	(0.3502)		(0.5739)		(0.5550)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0437	+	-0.0238		-0.0520	
	(0.0262)		(0.0450)		(0.0340)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.3828	***	0.1736		0.5347	***
	(0.0954)		(0.1181)		(0.1492)	
Home Business	0.148		-0.7535	+	0.7463	
	(0.2961)		(0.4560)		(0.4750)	
High Technology	0.8495		2.0876	+	0.6843	
	(0.5263)		(1.0696)		(0.6792)	
Service/Retail	0.0196		-0.7341		0.4283	
	(0.3683)		(0.6398)		(0.5715)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0019		-0.2520		0.0396	
	(0.1452)		(0.2135)		(0.2228)	
Net Worth in 10,000	0.0014		-0.0561		0.023	
	(0.0014)		(0.0121)		(0.0017)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0451	+	-0.0884		-0.0013	
	(0.0232)		(0.0745)		(0.0429)	
South	-0.1069		-1.1027	*	0.3587	
	(0.2885)		(0.5129)		(0.4018)	
Constant	-4.7935	***	-2.3231		-6.4171	**
	(1.7144)		(2.7963)		(2.3258)	
X^2	47.15	*	46.62	*	44.29	*
df	30		29		29	
N	318		142		176	
Pseudo R^2	0.1476		0.2772		0.2164	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.5. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Personal Services

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents[a]	
Alter Characteristics								
Female	0.9995	***	0.7966	*	-0.4862		0.514	
	(0.2031)		(0.3376)		(0.8502)		(0.7255)	
Age	-0.0163		-0.0251	+	-0.0273		-0.0218	
	(0.0131)		(0.0144)		(0.0254)		(0.0234)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.0180		0.3483		-2.2109		1.0263	
	(0.5366)		(0.6003)		(1.4220)		(0.8157)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0685	+	-0.0931	*	-0.2026	*	0.1157	
	(0.0375)		(0.0461)		(0.0800)		(0.0841)	
Startup Experience	-0.0896		0.0033		0.6479		-0.3614	
	(0.2508)		(0.0057)		(0.6128)		(0.4408)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0005		0.0033		0.008		0.0013	
	(0.0044)		(0.0057)		(0.0137)		(0.0086)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1624		-0.1493		1.0667		0.447	
	(0.2572)		(0.4069)		(0.8914)		(0.8072)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.2050		-0.2459		-		-	
	(0.2696)		(0.3981)					
Age	-0.0092		-0.0229		-0.0010		-0.0246	
	(0.0152)		(0.0179)		(0.0345)		(0.0270)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.0714		-0.3054		2.4975	+	-1.3071	
	(0.4994)		(0.5488)		(1.3320)		(0.8140)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0203		-0.0051		-0.0269		-0.1133	
	(0.0343)		(0.0395)		(0.0543)		(0.0689)	
Startup Experience	0.5122	+	0.2904		0.6479		0.51	
	(0.2806)		(0.3191)		(0.6128)		(0.5616)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0080		-0.0072		-0.0212	*	0.0025	
	(0.0058)		(0.0065)		(0.0100)		(0.0106)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.1658		0.2967		-1.4200		0.847	
	(0.3538)		(0.4307)		(-.9471)		(0.8658)	
Team Characteristics								
Tie Strength	0.5139		1.3655	**	1.4097	*	1.831	**
	(0.4335)		(0.4708)		(0.6598)		(0.6116)	
Team Size	-0.4192		-0.4679		0.0064		-0.5348	
	(0.2602)		(0.2993)		(0.7767)		(0.3479)	
Multiple Relationships	0.1808		-0.1850		-1.4912		0.02994	
	(0.5172)		(0.5896)		(1.4531)		(0.6742)	
Ethnic Diversity	0.0251		0.4001		-0.5478		0.2782	
	(0.3238)		(0.4203)		(1.1972)		(0.5711)	
Sex Diversity	0.298		0.5107		-1.0225		1.1038	
	(0.3819)		(0.4651)		(1.1292)		(0.7709)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0005		-0.0004		-0.0236	+	0.0081	
	(0.0068)		(0.0084)		(0.01331)		(0.0107)	
Startup Diversity	0.2774		0.4907		0.0842		0.7034	
	(0.2444)		(0.3185)		(0.5632)		(0.4603)	

Table 4.5, Page 2. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Personal Services

	All Team Members		Alters Only		Alters of Female Respondents		Alters of Male Respondents[a]	
Age Range	0.0118		0.0136		0.0037		-0.0222	
	(0.0151)		(0.0181)		(0.0440)		(0.0239)	
Industry Experience Range	-0.0027		-0.0329		-0.1657	*	0.1497	+
	(0.0408)		(0.0520)		(0.0748)		(0.0882)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.0005		0.1331		2.196	*	-0.8350	
	(0.0068)		(0.3762)		0.8869		(0.7628)	
Controls								
Married	-0.0730		-0.4650		-1.0750		0.2536	
	(0.3261)		(0.4243)		(0.7322)		(0.6785)	
Parent	0.6186	*	0.7478	+	-0.1009		1.1972	*
	(0.2948)		(0.3908)		(0.5676)		(0.5157)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1923		0.349	+	0.5548		0.4924	
	(0.1511)		(0.1851)		(0.3866)		(0.3713)	
Own Home	0.1923		-0.4624		0.1731		-1.370	*
	(0.1512)		(0.3706)		(0.6378)		(0.5710)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0435	+	0.0439		0.0378		0.0556	
	(0.0242)		(0.0275)		(0.0459)		(0.0425)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0278		0.1623		0.1931	+	0.3117	*
	(0.0691)		(0.0991)		(0.1108)		(0.1572)	
Home Business	0.4855	*	0.1659		0.4251		0.0867	
	(0.2321)		(0.2838)		(0.4620)		(0.4837)	
High Technology	0.6784	+	0.6907		1.757	*	0.7138	
	(0.3982)		(0.5063)		(0.8044)		(0.7142)	
Service/Retail	0.2065		0.4393		0.2375		0.2993	
	(0.2768)		(0.3538)		(0.7306)		(0.5777)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0662		0.035		0.233		-0.0036	
	(0.1205)		(0.1407)		(0.2972)		(0.2067)	
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0071	*	-0.0063	+	-0.0052		-0.0060	
	(0.0029)		(0.0034)		(0.0083)		(0.0068)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0634	*	0.0699	+	0.118	+	0.0435	
	(0.0266)		(0.0358)		(0.0631)		(0.0636)	
South	0.2904		0.6439	*	0.5375		0.5313	
	(0.2512)		(0.3097)		(0.4737)		(0.4655)	
Constant	-2.8061		-5.4934	**	-5.9239	+	-7.2248	
	(1.8615)		(1.8626)	***	(3.5270)	**	(2.6695)	**
X^2	112	***	92.59		59.55		79.36	***
df	37		37		36		37	
N	716		403		177		226	
Pseudo R^2							0.3611	
Indicator for RESPID Doubles							0.0298	
							(1.1978)	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001
Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] This model would not run with population averaged logistic regression because there were only 2 with multiple records. The following results are from logistic regression (with a dummy variable for the respondents with multiple counts)

Table 4.5, Page 3. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Personal Services

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Alter Characteristics						
Female	0.7479	*	-		-	
	(0.3386)					
Age	-0.0337	+	-0.0636	*	0.0287	
	(0.0183)		(0.0321)		(0.0307)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.0132		1.3018	*	0.2401	
	(0.3442)		(0.5807)		(0.5472)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0057		-0.0333		0.0391	
	(0.0355)		(0.0531)		(0.0647)	
Startup Experience	0.6628	*	1.0873	+	1.224	*
	(0.3189)		(0.5821)		(0.6165)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0099		0.0085		-0.0308	*
	(0.0076)		(0.0106)		(0.0142)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0202		-1.0534		0.1773	
	(0.4136)		(0.7261)		(0.7623)	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-		-		-	
Age	-		-		-	
African American/Hispanic	-		-		-	
Log of Industry Experience	-		-		-	
Startup Experience	-		-		-	
Occupational SEI	-		-		-	
Female-Typed Occupation	-		-		-	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.1159		1.0231		-0.0803	
	(0.5160)		(0.9290)		(0.7219)	
Team Size	-0.5246	+	-0.6334		-1.0184	*
	(0.2861)		(0.8146)		(0.5090)	
Multiple Relationships	0.9237		-0.0478		1.7413	+
	(0.5798)		(1.5479)		(0.9800)	
Ethnic Diversity	(0.0712)		1.1728		-0.1418	
	(0.4706)		(0.9173)		(0.6926)	
Sex Diversity	0.1759		0.0672		0.0396	
	(0.4645)		(0.7859)		(0.7123)	
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0226		0.0123		-0.0036	
	(0.0087)		(0.0129)		(0.0166)	
Startup Diversity	-0.1442		0.914	+	-0.5345	
	(0.3024)		(0.4926)		(0.5134)	

Table 4.5, Page 4. Population Averaged Logistic Regression Analysis

Dependent Variable: Provided any Personal Services

	All Respondents		Female Respondents		Male Respondents	
Age Range	0.0215		-0.0121		0.0505	+
	(0.0189)		(0.0354)		(0.0261)	
Industry Experience Range	0.0154		-0.0010		0.0928	
	(0.0530)		(0.0706)		(0.0991)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.1623		1.7324	*	-0.1791	
	(0.3627)		(0.7024)		(0.5364)	
Controls						
Married	0.2253		-0.1521		0.2928	
	(0.4039)		(0.7916)		(0.6128)	
Parent	0.2475		-1.0632	*	0.903	+
	(0.3505)		(0.5392)		(0.5458)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1326		0.9345	*	-0.1074	
	(0.2162)		(0.4079)		(0.3281)	
Own Home	-0.2046		0.9701		-0.63	
	(0.3877)		(0.6586)		(0.6373)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0276		0.0164		-0.0288	
	(0316)		(0.0417)		(0.0541)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0322		0.2656		-0.2069	
	(0.0814)		(0.1639)		(0.1576)	
Home Business	1.0283	**	0.973	*	1.6646	*
	(0.3312)		(0.4634)		(0.6768)	
High Technology	0.4176		-0.3921		0.3804	
	(0.5094)		(0.9897)		(0.9011)	
Service/Retail	0.0503		-0.1298		0.1499	
	(0.3745)		(0.5844)		(0.6329)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.1691		0.1802		0.1952	
	(0.1710)	+	(0.2545)		(0.2667)	
Net Worth in 10,000	-0.0080		-0.0095		-0.0107	*
	(0.0041)	+	(0.0093)		(0.0047)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0676		0.112		0.0413	
	(0.0351)		(0.0799)		(0.0497)	
South	0.6658		0.0746		-0.2608	
	(0.3487)		(0.4993)		(0.5812)	
Constant	-1.6624		-5.4911	+	1.4526	
	(2.3058)		(3.2616)		(3.6480)	
X^2	51.26	**	43.88	*	42.98	*
df	30		29		29	
N	317		142		175	
Pseudo R^2	0.1499		0.2742		0.2437	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.6. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Average Status

	Unique Assistance Types						Average Number of Assistance Types					
	Entire Sample[a]		Women[a]		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	0.0098		-		-		0.1346		-		-	
	(0.2538)						(0.2289)					
Age	0.0355	*	0.0895	*	0.0074		0.0077		0.0172	*	-0.0196	
	(0.0156)		(0.0349)		(0.0227)		(0.0161)		(0.0333)		(0.0204)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.4854		0.7811		-0.8679		-0.5928		0.4666		-0.9357	*
	(0.3741)		(0.8370)		(0.5256)		(0.4016)		(1.0083)		(0.4715)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0822	+	-0.1365	*	-0.0331		-0.0970	***	-0.1243	*	-0.0587	
	(0.0420)		(0.0592)		(0.0592)		(0.0341)		(0.0489)		(0.0531)	
Startup Experience	0.0389		-1.0334	+	0.1638		0.1881		-0.7779		0.371	
	(0.2953)		(0.5837)		(0.3789)		(0.2674)		(0.5636)		(0.3398)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0078		-0.0111		-0.0172	+	-0.0087		-0.0102		-0.0186	*
	(0.0060)		(0.0099)		(0.0088)		(0.0057)		(0.0107)		(0.0079)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1438		0.2473		-0.5937		-0.2826		-0.2959		-0.5138	
	(0.3742)		(0.6830)		(0.4680)		(0.3044)		(0.5780)		(0.4198)	
Team Characteristics												
Tie Strength	0.5268	*	0.4954		0.5331	+	0.0681		0.5816		-0.0102	
	(0.2372)		(0.4087)		(0.2819)		(0.1744)		(0.3768)		(0.2528)	
Team Size	0.2662	+	-0.2254		0.244		0.0681		-0.5181		-0.0857	
	(0.1468)		(0.3134)		(0.1705)		(0.1744)		(0.3691)		(0.1529)	
Multiple Relationships	0.6713	*	1.217	+	0.6533		0.0504		0.5191		0.1289	
	(0.3374)		(0.6755)		(0.4261)		(0.3182)		(0.8259)		(0.3822)	
Proportion African American/Hispanic	-0.0160		-0.9672		0.454		0.3874		-0.5622		0.7655	
	(0.4884)		(0.9598)		(0.6122)		(0.4592)		(1.0840)		(0.5491)	
Proportion Female	-0.1947		0.5904		-0.2109		-0.1205		0.8985		-0.1270	
	(0.4805)		(0.8844)		(0.7135)		(0.4035)		(0.8327)		(0.6400)	
Average Occupational SEI	0.0053		0.0236	+	0.0063		0.0068		0.0227		0.0092	
	(0.0076)		(0.0140)		(0.0099)		(0.0071)		(0.0155)		(0.0088)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	0.2993		1.0076		0.445		-0.0105		0.4984		0.0785	
	(0.3797)		(0.6827)		(0.5257)		(0.3481)		(0.6565)		(0.4715)	
Average Age	-0.0482	*	-0.0893	*	-0.0166		-0.0192		-0.0648	+	0.0082	
	(0.0199)		(0.390)		(0.0272)		(0.0187)		(0.0348)		(0.0244)	
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	0.2084	***	0.2897	**	0.1465		0.2468	***	0.2269	**	0.2194	**
	(0.0640)		(0.0928)		(0.0923)		(0.0544)		(0.0838)		(0.0828)	
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	-0.2652		-0.6859		-0.2308		0.1645		0.3898		0.1011	
	(0.4885)		(1.0133)		(0.1885)		(0.4035)		(0.8822)		(0.4861)	

Table 4.6, Page 2. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Average Status

	Unique Assistance Types						Average Number of Assistance Types					
	Entire Sample[a]		Women[a]		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	0.0639		-0.0349		0.0765		0.1226		0.01		0.0931	
	(0.2339)		(0.4169)		(0.3306)		(0.2279)		(0.4092)		(0.2966)	
Parent	0.22		-0.0663		0.3917		-0.1241		0.0885		-0.2075	
	(0.2279)		(0.3713)		(0.2812)		(0.1977)		(0.3470)		(0.2523)	
Number of Children under 6	0.063		0.3563		-0.0285		0.0907		0.2436		0.1193	
	(0.1289)		(0.2295)		(0.1885)		(0.1229)		(0.2032)		(0.1690)	
Own Home	-0.0964		0.3195		-0.4557		0.146		0.0583		0.0623	
	(0.2115)		(0.4402)		(0.2965)		(0.2033)		(0.3931)		(0.2659)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.06	***	0.061	*	0.0601	*	0.0055	***	0.0602	*	0.0597	**
	(0.0179)		(0.0291)		(0.0244)		(0.0153)		(0.0244)		(0.0219)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0972	+	0.0979		0.0955		0.0806		0.0692		0.0651	
	(0.0579)		(0.0718)		(0.0843)		(0.0509)		(0.0769)		(0.0756)	
Home Business	-0.0628		0.0733		-0.1000		0.1457		0.0666		0.2293	
	(0.1842)		(0.3112)		(0.2577)		(0.1720)		(0.2959)		(0.2311)	
High Technology	0.1063		1.1065	+	-0.1720		0.0526		0.8511		-0.3057	
	(0.3101)		(0.6407)		(0.3977)		(0.2862)		(0.5973)		(0.3567)	
Service/Retail	0.0768		-0.7523		0.3839		0.2141		-0.1455		0.3634	
	(0.2359)		(0.4156)		(0.3068)		(0.2112)		(0.4020)		(0.2752)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0436		0.0784		-0.0880		-0.0343		-0.0820		-0.0222	
	(0.1045)		(0.1347)		(0.1204)		(0.0830)		(0.01474)		(0.1081)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0008		-0.0018		-0.0008		-0.0007		-0.0003		-0.0009	
	(0.0006)		(0.0037)		(0.0012)		(0.00090		(0.0042)		(0.0010)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0111		0.0074		0.0569	*	0.012		0.0073		0.05	*
	(0.0086)		(0.0044)		(0.0250)		(0.0086)		(0.0103)		(0.0225)	
South	0.3503	+	0.0318		0.4223		0.1119		0.0028		0.1786	
	(0.2042)		(0.3105)		(0.2603)		(0.1781)		(0.3157)		(0.2335)	
Constant	2.9183	*	1.7677		3.2741		3.355	***	1.535		3.7051	**
	(1.2608)		(2.1007)		(1.3490)		(0.9505)		(2.0433)		(1.2100)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
R^2	0.2536		0.3862		0.2959		0.1879		0.2611		0.2743	
F Statistic	3.78	***	3.08	***	3.02	***	2.7	***	2.72	***	2.65	***
df	30, 287		29,112		29,146		30,287		29,112		29.146	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001
Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.7. Logistic Regression for Introductions and Average Team Status

	Any			**Most Important**		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	0.0241	-	-	0.0526	-	-
	(0.5647)			(0.3912)		
Age	0.0282	0.071	0.0481	-0.0325	-0.0799	-0.0125
	(0.0486)	(0.0903)	(0.1094)	(0.2782)	(0.0666)	(0.0383)
African American/Hispanic	-1.5268	-2.3180	-2.4548	-1.4085	2.2079	-2.6762 +
	(1.1053)	(1.7929)	(1.5542)	(1.2039)	(1.7575)	(1.6200)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0626	-0.1538 +	-0.1741	0.0157	-0.0454	0.0625
	(0.0633)	(0.0912)	(0.1102)	(0.0572)	(0.0748)	(0.1056)
Startup Experience	0.5734	-0.0705	0.2319	0.0555	0.3251	-0.2950
	(0.5118)	(1.0989)	(0.7406)	(0.5024)	(0.9131)	(0.7601)
Occupational SEI	0.0037	0.0191	-0.0474 +	0.0128	0.0268	-0.0127
	(0.0137)	(0.0211)	(0.0248)	(0.0093)	(0.0189)	(0.0149)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.6949	0.7792	-1.3751	0.8266	2.9492 **	-0.4226
	(0.8376)	(1.2692)	(1.6050)	(0.5097)	(1.1457)	(1.0613)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.135	-0.5498	0.6372	-0.0608	-0.6599	-0.0441
	(0.4356)	(1.2646)	(0.6830)	(0.2851)	(0.6004)	(0.4936)
Team Size	0.2379	-0.1977	1.6667	0.2818	-0.1475	0.4575
	(0.3997)	(0.7205)	(1.0191)	(0.2328)	(0.5653)	(0.2928)
Multiple Relationships	0.3993	-0.6310	-2.1524	-0.5616	0.0086	-0.5463
	(0.9943)	(1.3329)	(2.0644)	(0.6053)	(1.3087)	(0.8099)
Proportion African American/Hispanic	2.7582 *	4.1292 +	4.4288 *	2.4019 +	-1.2559	4.1128 *
	(1.296)	(2.3540)	(2.02644)	(1.2905)	(1.8822)	(1.7488)
Proportion Female	-0.2813	-1.7871	0.9524	0.3894	1.2806	0.4884
	(0.1.0765)	(1.7451)	(2.5214)	(0.6956)	(1.1994)	(1.3899)
Average Occupational SEI	0.0111	0.0139	0.0602 *	-0.0028	-0.0138	0.0165
	(0.0170)	(0325)	(0.0293)	(0.0119)	(0.0267)	(0166)
Proportion with Startup Experience	-0.1102	-0.4550	2.1395	0.075	-0.5221	0.3966
	(0.7279)	(1.4427)	(1.3827)	(0.6445)	(1.0444)	(0.9886)
Average Age	-0.0491	-0.0790	-0.0676	0.0176	0.0982	-0.0235
	(0.0545)	(0.0944)	(0.1231)	(0.0319)	(0.0629)	(0.0491)
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	0.2172 +	0.3559 *	0.4779 *	0.0098	0.0366	-0.0585
	(0.1123)	(0.1692)	(0.2102)	(0.0920)	(0.1303)	(0.1606)
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	-2.2000 *	-0.8192	-3.898 *	-1.6914 *	-4.9370 **	-1.5182
	(1.0114)	(1.8960)	(1.7036)	(0.7144)	(1.7302)	(1.0603)

Table 4.7, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Introductions and Average Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.0043		0.2496		-1.5145		1.4085	***	1.9126	**	1.5973	**
	(0.6006)		(0.9992)		(1.2674)		(0.4286)		(0.6620)		(0.5934)	
Parent	0.9791		0.5186		2.1403	*	-0.9303	**	-0.8898		-1.2695	**
	(0.5301)		(0.8144)		(0.9559)		(0.3492)		(0.6092)		(0.4906)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.3673		-0.4946		-0.1656		0.3502	+	0.491		0.4697	
	(0.2480)		(0.3595)		(0.4598)		(0.1847)		(0.3071)		(0.3071)	
Own Home	-0.1043		0.2329		-1.3077	+	-0.0689		0.5355		-0.6991	
	(0.5004)		(0.7451)		(0.7906)		(0.3616)		(0.6408)		(0.4775)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0267		0.0594		-0.0582		-0.0310		-0.0208		-0.0129	
	(0.0353)		(0.6246)		(0.0886)		(0.02677)		(0.0373)		(0.0452)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.2137		-0.0658		0.5231	+	0.1515		0.0621		0.3022	*
	(0.1434)		(0.1212)		(0.2905)		(0.1038)		(0.1803)		(0.1464)	
Home Business	-0.1472		0.0502		0.4749		-0.0392		0.0612		-0.2537	
	(0.4140)		(0.6246)		(0.7000)		(0.2900)		(0.4526)		(0.4540)	
High Technology	0.2029		1.3362		0.4083		-0.7667		-0.4895		-0.7424	
	(0.7884		(1.3258)		(1.1041)		(0.5321)		(0.9932)		(0.7961)	
Service/Retail	0.0505		-0.9006		0.792		0.0746		0.1313		0.0555	
	(0.4970)		(0.9275)		(0.8568)		(0.3837)		(0.6205)		(0.5599)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0911		-0.5732	+	0.1443		-0.0976		-0.2078		-0.001	
	(0.1972)		(0.3401)		(0.3580)		(0.1414)		(0.2392)		(0.2149)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0008		-0.0104		-0.0005		0.0034		0.0027		0.0037	
	(0.0019)		(0.0075)		(0.0027)		(0.0018)		(0.0071)		(0.0025)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0043		0.0154		0.113		-0.0021		-0.0041		0.00421	
	(0.0165)		(0.0106)		(0.0753)		(0.0111)		(0.0148)		(0.0514)	
South	-0.1625		0.0433		-0.2200		0.2278		-0.2290		0.5726	
	(0.3920)		(0.6510)		(0.6493)		(0.3107)		(0.4709)		(0.4688)	
Constant	0.2149		7.8809		-6.9660	+	-2.2532		-1.4869		-3.1635	
	(2.1995)		(5.8939)		(3.9763)		(1.6704)		(3.2176)		(2.5300)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
X^2	52.45	**	35.05		53.66	**	41.03	+	31.71		44.79	*
df	30		29		29		30		29		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.1819		0.2461		0.3796		0.1262		0.1812		0.2016	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.8. Logistic Regression for Information and Average Team Status[a]

	Most Important Entire Sample		Women Only		Men only	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.2086		-		-	
	(0.4099)					
Age	-0.0118		-0.0245		-0.0380	
	(0.0291)		(0.0592)		(0.0410)	
African American/Hispanic	-1.4345		-4.7023	**	-1.0744	
	(0.8627)		(1.8011)		(1.2553)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0152		0.0112		-0.0117	
	(0.0605)		(0.0861)		(0.1040)	
Startup Experience	-0.7988		0.1604		-1.6769	
	(0.5052)		(0.9349)		(0.8910)	
Occupational SEI	0.0116		-0.0129		0.0495	**
	(0.0098)		(0.0176)		(0.0165)	
Female Typed Occupation	0.6935		-0.5957		1.6514	+
	(0.5293)		(0.8709)		(0.9576)	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.3889		0.5264		1.3494	**
	(0.2877)		(0.5750)		(0.4906)	
Team Size	0.4627	*	0.2626		0.6953	*
	(0.2243)		(0.5088)		(0.2844)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.1408		1.1937		-0.9272	
	(0.5222)		(1.1463)		(0.7280)	
Proportion African American/Hispanic	0.1839		2.1685		-0.4059	
	(0.9653)		(1.7704)		(1.4121)	
Proportion Female	-1.3529	+	-0.1027		-3.7318	**
	(0.7457)		(1.2092)		(1.1962)	
Average Occupational SEI	0.0073		0.017		0.0039	
	(0.0119)		(0.0286)		(0.0177)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	1.071	+	-0.3409		2.9871	**
	(0.6459)		(1.0487)		(1.0868)	
Average Age	-0.0178		0.006		0.0207	
	(0.0329)		(0.0593)		(0.0507)	
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	-0.1023		0.0594		-0.3187	+
	(0.0958)		(0.1468)		(0.1640)	
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	-0.4379		1.371		-2.0777	+
	(0.0958)		(1.3005)		(1.2578)	

Table 4.8, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Information and Average Team Status[a]

	Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls						
Married	-0.0885		-0.1467		-0.6287	
	(0.3898)		(0.6093)		(0.6125)	
Parent	0.0776		-0.5607		0.8663	
	(0.3503)		(0.5403)		(0.5885)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.7754	**	-1.1290	**	-1.2184	***
	(0.2568)		(0.3661)		(0.3814)	
Own Home	-0.4541		-0.3420		-0.4581	
	(0.3751)		(0.6709)		(0.5146)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0317		-0.0471		-0.0857	+
	(0.0251)		(0.0392)		(0.0448)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0303		0.1316		-0.2897	+
	(0.0849)		(0.1093)		(0.1587)	
Home Business	-0.3164		-0.3706		-0.0594	
	(0.2893)		(0.4966)		(0.4338)	
High Technology	-0.0673		1.1093		-0.6965	
	(0.5312)		(1.0846)		(0.8675)	
Service/Retail	0.1593		0.7374		-0.6459	
	(0.4425		(0.7690)		(0.6944)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0925		-0.1573		0.1301	
	(0.1568)		(0.2366)		(0.2536)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0004		-0.0079		0.0018	
	(0.0012)		(0.0063)		(0.0023)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0102		0.0197	+	-0.0161	
	(0.0114)		(0.0103)		(0.0481)	
South	0.1745		0.4661		0.0175	
	(0.3132)		(0.5906)		(0.4655)	
Constant	-0.2671		-1.1930		-3.8125	
	(1.6782)		(3.2087)		(2.6923)	
N	318		142		176	
X^2	59.49	**	31.43		56.86	**
df	30		29		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.1828		0.2608		0.335	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001
Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Because the vast majority of respondents indicated that at least one team member provided information, the logistic regressions would not compute.

Table 4.9. Logistic Regression for Training and Average Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	0.2801		-		-		-0.1906		-		-	
	(0.4211)						(0.4411)					
Age	-0.0107		0.0297		-0.0396		-0.0474		0.0033		-0.0963	*
	(0.0315)		(0.6454)		(0.0529)		(0.0330)		(0.0818)		(0.0449)	
African American/Hispanic	0.5656		4.1918	*	0.8094		-0.7000		-0.2299		-0.9407	
	(0.8129)		(1.9711)		(1.1727)		(0.9359)		(1.6047)		(1.2796)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.1462	*	-0.2339	*	-0.0376		-0.1028		-0.2218	*	0.0603	
	(0.0658)		(0.1027)		(0.1088)		(0.0713)		(0.1076)		(0.1048)	
Startup Experience	0.2944		-1.0676		0.5508		0.3905		0.3911		0.0243	
	(0.5087)		(0.8722)		(0.7030)		(0.5221		(0.9715)		(0.7365)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0081		-0.0130		-0.0174		(0.0065		-0.0138		0.0077	
	(0.0094)		(0.0170)		(0.0139)		(0.0123)		(0.0222)		(0.0174)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.3880		0.1713		0.1454		-0.9951		-0.1140		-1.2572	
	(0.5885)		(0.8312)		(1.0116)		(0.6303)		(1.1515)		(1.0007)	
Team Characteristics												
Tie Strength	0.7309	+	1.1679	+	0.5098		0.8585	*	2.1796		0.9073	
	(0.3921)		(0.6334)		(0.6367)		(0.4233)		(1.3514)		(0.6409)	
Team Size	0.489		0.2413		0.2893		-0.0716		-0.8515		0.04	
	(0.3231)		(0.5373)		(0.4035)		(0.3513)		(1.4128)		(0.4050)	
Multiple Relationships	0.5869		2.9451		0.3639		1.2081		2.1672		0.9817	
	(0.6701		(2.5125)		(0.8640)		(0.7740)		(2.4336)		(0.9545)	
Proportion African American/Hispanic	-1.0800		-3.9364	+	-1.5024		0.7623		1.078		0.8079	
	(0.8879)		(2.0283)		(1.3253)		(1.0554)		(1.8400)		(1.4642)	
Proportion Female	-1.2290	+	2.1408		-1.4686		-1.1945		2.0278		-1.4029	
	(0.7325)		(1.3775)		(1.4319)		(0.9526)		(2.1829)		(1.5277)	
Average Occupational SEI	0.0029		-0.0049		0.0182		-0.0120		0.0287		-0.0131	
	(0.0118)		(0.0221)		(0.0163)		(0.0162)		(0.0357)		(0.0218)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	0.2718		1.1382		0.5179		-0.9976		-1.0173		-0.6964	
	(0.6526)		(1.0249)		(0.9536)		(0.7218)		(1.2185)		(1.0165)	
Average Age	0.0204		-0.0298		0.0681		0.0721	+	0.0213		0.1342	*
	(0.0385)		(0.0719)		(0.0650)		(0.0396)		(0.0841)		(0.0578)	
Average Industry Experience (Logged)	0.2793	**	0.4012	*	0.1193		0.2794	*	0.3055	+	0.147	
	(0.1044)		(0.1690)		(0.1667)		(0.1130)		(0.1625)		(0.1610)	
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	0.2968		-1.3222		0.1982		0.626		-1.3719		1.6915	
	(0.7199)		(1.3545)		(0.9174)		(0.8538)		(1.8628)		(1.0942)	

Table 4.9, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Training and Average Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	0.1364		1.0109		-0.1788		0.832		0.4272		0.7385	
	(0.4033)		(0.7270)		(0.6317)		(0.5304)		(1.1402)		(0.7157)	
Parent	0.5667		-0.2586		1.1038	*	0.5525		0.3179		1.2043	+
	(0.3763)		(0.5988)		(0.5603)		(0.4455)		(6519)		(0.6481)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.1280		0.1387		-0.1338		0.1291		0.5421		0.0044	
	(0.1952)		(0.3534)		(0.2598)		(0.2191)		(0.3318)		(0.2985)	
Own Home	0.0275		0.2609		-0.1431		-0.4644		0.8291		-0.8264	
	(0.3499)		(0.7454)		(0.5377)		(0.4239)		(0.8786)		(0.5893)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0424		-0.0012		-0.0824	*	-0.0732	*	-0.0291		-0.1104	*
	(0.0283)		(0.0496)		(0.0413)		(0.0305)		(0.0403)		(0.0473)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.3093	**	0.2516		0.4605	**	0.2797	*	0.0311		0.4553	*
	(0.1044)		(0.1654)		(0.1570)		(0.1184)		(0.1625)		(0.1777)	
Home Business	0.0108		-0.3107		0.2708		0.2828		0.0278		0.1283	
	(0.3263)		(0.5314)		(0.4732)		(0.3644)		(0.6255)		(0.5556)	
High Technology	0.4299		0.5525		0.3287		-0.5883		-1.0285		-0.1585	
	(0.5239)		(0.9649)		(0.6808)		(0.6763)		(1.5487)		(0.8825)	
Service/Retail	0.402		-1.1427		0.8201		-0.0860		-1.1913	+	-0.1338	
	(0.3926)		(1.1980)		(0.5539)		(0.4113)		(0.6503)		(0.5744)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.1216		-0.1359		-0.0794		-0.0573		-0.1822		-0.0678	
	(0.1604)		(0.3502)		(0.2157)		(0.1727)		(0.3119)		(0.2453)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0009		0.0012		0.0009		0.0012		-0.0146		0.003	*
	(0.0015)		(0.0105)		(0.0017)		(0.0013)		(0.0090)		(0.0015)	
Income in 10,000s	0.001		0.012		-0.0105		0.0131		0.0414	**	-0.0187	
	(0.0126)		(0.0186)		(0.0435)		(0.0106)		(0.0138)		(0.0490)	
South	0.3064		-1.0733	+	0.7355		-0.2245		-0.7424		-0.3662	
	(0.3367)		(0.6509)		(0.5253)		(0.3785)		(0.6028)		(0.5500)	
Constant	-3.4279	+	-3.3499		-4.7828	+	-5.3364	*	-8.1511		-6.9736	+
	(2.0678)		(3.6480)		(2.7239)		(2.3195)		(5.0198)		(3.5904)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
X^2	35.5		21.45		36.57		44.53	*	39.66	+	40.22	+
df	30		29		29		30		29		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.1436		0.2569		0.1919		0.1638		0.2813		0.2239	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.10. Logistic Regression for Personal Services and Average Team Status

	Any			**Most Important**		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women[a]	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.4854	-	-	-1.0544 +	-	-
	(0.3809)			(0.5673)		
Age	0.072 *	0.1097 +	0.0704 +	-0.1166 *	-0.0028	-0.3902 **
	(0.0338)	(0.0630)	(0.0423)	(0.0526)	(0.0982)	(0.1461)
African American/Hispanic	-0.7495	2.349	-1.7590 +	2.0636 *	12.8606 *	1.4538
	(0.6932)	(1.4589)	(1.0130)	(1.0351)	(5.9117)	(1.2374)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0229	0.0427	-0.0723	0.183	-0.3901	0.4379 +
	(0.0573)	(0.0745)	(0.0964)	(0.0885)	(0.2853)	(0.2499)
Startup Experience	0.4822	-1.3736	1.2736 +	0.3679	-0.1640	1.1499
	(0.4753)	(1.0308)	(0.7169)	(0.7634)	(2.3838)	(1.5349)
Occupational SEI	-0.0087	-0.0091	-0.0182	0.0065	0.0301	-0.0031
	(0.0093)	(0.0168)	(0.0141)	(0.0150)	(0.0772)	(0.0226)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.3833	0.2693	0.2464	-0.0028	-2.6469	-0.8957
	(0.5431)	(1.0633)	(0.8800)	(0.8274)	(1.9795)	(1.2621)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	1.2324 *	1.0808	0.943	3.2871 **	-	-0.6991
	(0.5033)	(0.6637)	(0.9656)	(1.1871)		(1.4927)
Team Size	-0.4250	-1.0337 +	-0.3605	0.3176	4.5078 *	0.067
	(0.2730)	(0.6139)	(0.3617)	(0.4605)	(2.1543)	(0.5700)
Multiple Relationships	0.7912	0.6871	1.2408	-0.3661	-10.4212 *	-1.4128
	(0.5844)	(1.5459)	(0.8414)	(0.9767)	(5.1517)	(1.1224)
Proportion African American/Hispanic	0.5318	-1.5089	1.1827	-2.7398 *	-11.6709 *	-1.8511
	(0.8125)	(1.6243)	(1.1905)	(1.2533)	(5.1543)	(1.6502)
Proportion Female	1.1463	-1.6623	2.9367 *	2.7501 *	-5.6195	9.9776 *
	(0.6992)	(1.3529)	(1.4604)	(1.1697)	(3.5602)	(5.0705)
Average Occupational SEI	-0.0025	0.007	-0.0066	-0.0558 **	-0.0989	-0.0834 +
	(0.0121)	(0.0265)	(0.0170)	(0.0197)	(0.1029)	(0.0427)
Proportion with Startup Experience	-0.1950	2.2727 +	-1.3002	0.8196	2.2902	1.5334
	(0.6169)	(1.2195)	(0.9132)	(0.9974)	(3.2481)	(2.3869)
Average Age	-0.0852 *	-0.1535 *	-0.0775	0.0181	-0.1018	0.2843 *
	(0.0378)	(0.0651)	(0.0511)	(0.0544)	(0.1080)	(0.1318)
Experience (Logged)	-0.0614	-0.1423	0.1664	-0.1733	0.4094	-0.6457
	(0.0936)	(0.1378)	(0.1549)	(0.1546)	(0.5407)	(0.4437)
Proportion in Female-Typed Occupation	-0.6635	0.0507	-0.8788	-0.1640	5.1669	1.424
	(0.7639)	(1.5279)	(1.0417)	(1.0349)	(3.2166)	(1.9051)

Table 4.10, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Personal Services and Average Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women[a]		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.2490		-0.9495		-0.0382		1.4711	+	2.2256		2.0061	
	(0.4106)		(0.7363)		(0.6087)		(0.8023)		(1.3692)		(1.5997)	
Parent	0.8295	*	-0.4601		1.3378	*	1.4402	*	-1.0678		4.3569	***
	(0.3595)		(0.5655)		(0.5390)		(0.6481)		(1.7260)		(1.3411)	
6	0.8295	*	1.1169	*	0.2996		-0.0185		-0.0844		-0.8024	
	(0.3595)		(0.4449)		(0.3342)		(0.2360)		(0.5943)		(0.7944)	
Own Home	-0.6703	+	0.0131		-1.0613		-0.0741		-0.1259		0.3056	+
	(0.3586)		(0.6274)		(0.6166)		(0.5281)		(0.9348)		(1.2100)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0589	*	0.0647		0.0712		-0.0472		-0.0611		-0.0336	
	(0.0268)		(0.0469)		(0.0458)		(0.0388)		(0.1086)		(0.0558)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0431		0.2172		-0.0337		0.1832		1.1531	+	0.0364	
	(0.0856)		(0.1418)		(0.1493)		(0.1910)		(0.6460)		(0.3071)	
Home Business	0.0787		0.5319		-0.2053		-0.9235	+	0.3406		-2.5342	*
	(0.2902)		(0.4834)		(0.4204)		(0.5147)		(0.9610)		(1.0652)	
High Technology	0.9067	+	1.4708	+	0.6204		0.6972		-2.6312		1.5925	
	(0.5139)		(0.8318)		(0.6752)		(0.7339)		(4.0334)		(1.7708)	
Service/Retail	0.3325		0.2509		0.4913		2.2138	**	3.6085	*	2.8906	*
	(0.3942)		(0.5451)		(0.5527)		(0.7735)		(1.7876)		(1.0586)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0244		0.1372		-0.0730		-0.3246		1.10332		-0.4945	
	(0.1507)		(0.2437)		(0.2186)		(0.3425)		(0.8076)		(0.4156)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0084	*	-0.0164		-0.0105	+	0.0055	*	-0.0218		0.0986	
	(0.0038)		(0.0123)		(0.0059)		(0.0024)		(0.0290)		(0.0771)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0661	+	0.141	+	0.0365		-0.0022		0.0102		0.00994	**
	(0.0361)		(0.0751)		(0.0504)		(0.0107)		(0.0219)		(0.0035)	
South	0.727	*	0.4731		0.8239	+	-0.5680		-2.1641		-0.7415	+
	(0.3188)		(0.4763)		(0.4924)		(0.5592)		(1.9891)		(1.3201)	
Constant	-3.4460		-2.1005		-1.4120		-9.9849	*	-20.4070	*	-1.9167	
	(2.3655)		(3.2593)		(3.9402)		(5.0441)		(10.3858)		(8.2248)	
N	318		142		176		318		113		176	
X^2	65.89	***	34.07		51.24	**	59	**	37.24		60.64	***
df	30		29		29		30		28		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.2192		0.3109		0.3018		0.3895		0.3944		0.581	

[a] Only women on spouse/kin teams reported a team member providing personal assistance as the most important assistance, so tie strength and 29 observations were dropped from the analysis.

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.11. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Maximum Team Status

	Un ique Assistance Types						Average Number of Assistance Types					
	Entire Sample[a]		Women[a]		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men[a]	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	-0.0083		-		-		0.0497		-		-	
	(0.2165)						(0.2091)					
Age	0.0197		0.0508		0.0051		0.003		0.0424		-0.0121	
	(0.0135)		(0.0311)		(0.0171)		(0.0129)		(0.0285)		(0.0132)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.4093		0.1403		-0.5001		-0.4621	+	-0.0486		-0.5343	
	(0.2832)		(0.6785)		(0.3446)		(0.2725)		(0.6746)		(0.3428)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0514		-0.0496		-0.0786		-0.0381		-0.0351		-0.0530	
	(0.0323)		(0.0445)		(0.0583)		(0.0304)		(0.0421)		(0.0473)	
Startup Experience	0.0669		-0.3438		0.075		0.1062		-0.3505		0.2848	
	(0.2580)		(0.4808)		(0.3215)		(0.2288)		(0.4288)		(0.2794)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0075		'-0.0048		-0.0152	+	-0.0065		-0.0040		-0.0152	*
	(0.0059)		(0.0073)		(0.0090)		(0.0052)		(0.0078)		(0.0071)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1534		-0.0332		-0.7266	+	-0.0384		-0.0197		-0.3088	
	(0.2428)		(0.3181)		(0.4236)		(0.2260)		(0.3104)		(0.3372)	
Team Characteristics												
Tie Strength	0.3188		0.4633		0.4076	+	-0.1359		0.6226		-0.2123	
	(0.2114)		(0.3877)		(0.2181)		(0.1678)		(0.4015)		(0.2405)	
Team Size	0.2456	+	-0.1633		0.212		-0.1528		-0.5327		-0.1781	
	(0.1486)		(0.3490)		(0.1713)		(0.1392)		(0.3874)		(0.1539)	
Multiple Relationships	0.6751	*	1.4021	*	0.5464		0.069		0.8182		0.014	
	(0.3134)		(0.6902)		(0.4172)		(0.3183)		(0.8156)		(0.3711)	
Any Caucasian	-0.0054		0.2005		-0.0807		-0.3640		-0.0216		-0.4271	
	(0.3272)		(0.6871)		(0.3689)		(0.2938)		(0.7112)		(0.4049)	
Any Male	0.0696		-0.5676		-		-0.3019		-0.9333	*	-	
	(0.4227)		(0.5358)				(0.3557)		(0.4497)			
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.0051		0.0154	+	0.0038		0.0031		0.012		0.0046	
	(0.0070)		(0.0089)		(0.0102)		(0.0062)		(0.0099)		(0.0087)	
Any with Startup Experience	0.3519		0.1576		0.6323	+	0.2716		-0.0222		0.4543	+
	(0.2606)		(0.4776)		(0.3283)		(0.2293)		(0.4161)		(0.2617)	
Maximum Age	-0.0254	*	-0.0462		-0.0135		-0.0116		-0.0332		0.0003	
	(0.0124)		(0.0302)		(0.01605)		(0.0120)		(0.0262)		(0.0114)	
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	0.1561	***	0.1465	*	0.2077	*	0.1369	**	0.067		0.189	**
	(0.0435)		(0.0652)		(0.0818)		(0.0441)		(0.0654)		(0.0639)	
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	0.4821	*	0.6643		0.2528		0.5303	*	0.3502		0.4861	
	(0.2212)		(0.4329)		(0.3057)		(0.2154)		(0.3824)		(0.2940)	

Table 4.11, Page 2. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Maximum Team Status

	Unique Assistance Types						**Average Number of Assistance Types**					
	Entire Sample[a]		Women[a]		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men[a]	
Controls												
Married	-0.0792		-0.3344		0.0242		-0.0220		-0.1997		-0.0511	
	(0.2389)		(0.4626)		(0.3177)		(0.2299)		(0.4209)		(0.2704)	
Parent	0.1897		-0.2113		0.4482		-0.1765		-0.0169		-0.1839	
	(0.2298)		(0.3856)		(0.2742)		(0.1982)		(0.3529)		(0.2526)	
Number of Children under 6	0.0712		0.3488		-0.0707		0.1168		0.2697		0.0928	
	(0.1305)		(0.4510)		(0.1820)		(0.1231)		(0.2045)		(0.1370)	
Own Home	-0.0491		0.3484		-0.4660		0.2245		0.0771		0.1721	
	(0.2216)		(0.4510)		(0.2900)		(0.2052)		(0.4055)		(0.2600)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.057	**	0.0569	+	0.0503	*	0.0507	***	0.0545	*	0.0467	*
	(0.0183)		(0.0293)		(0.0239)		(0.0155)		(0.0249)		(0.0211)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1164	*	0.1196	+	0.0938		0.0961	+	0.0934		0.065	
	(0.0583)		(0.0695)		(0.0822)		(0.0511)		(0.0780)		(0.0777)	
Home Business	-0.0703		0.0652		-0.0506		0.1344		0.0642		0.308	
	(0.1798)		(0.3240)		(0.2472)		(0.1730)		(0.2977)		(0.2089)	
High Technology	0.1371		0.9598		0.0289		0.107		0.8281		-0.1604	
	(0.3051)		(0.6861)		(0.3855)		(0.2854)		(0.6227)		(0.3365)	
Service/Retail	0.0622		-0.6385		0.3617		0.1233		-0.1570		0.2674	
	(0.2352)		(0.4041)		(0.2945)		(0.2100)		(0.4103)		(0.2436)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0334		0.0339		-0.0935		-0.0138		-0.0964		-0.0107	
	(0.1072)		(0.1275)		(0.1164)		(0.0825)		(0.1484)		(0.1300)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0008		-0.00004		-0.0012		-0.0007		0.0013		-0.0012	+
	(0.0007)		(0.0039)		(0.0011)		(0.0009)		(0.0043)		(0.0007)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0088		0.0021		0.0553	*	0.0104		0.0033		0.0464	+
	(0.0010)		(0.0046)		(0.0241)		(0.0087)		(0.0106)		(0.0245)	
South	0.3009		0.0536		0.3666		0.0831		-0.0030		0.1319	
	(0.1923)		(0.3152)		(0.2470)		(0.1769)		(0.3252)		(0.2133)	
Constant	2.3872	+	2.0498		3.147	*	3.8856	***	2.7966		4.097	**
	(1.2445)		(1.9912)		(1.2797)		(1.0016)				(1.2993)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
R^2	0.2597		0.3539		0.3281		0.1816		0.2294		0.2983	
F Statistic	4.12	***	2.96	***	4.02	***	2.52	***	2.58	***	3.38	***
df	30,287		29, 112		28,147		30,287		29.112		28,147	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.12. Logistic Regression for Introductions and Maximum Team Status

	Any						Most Important				
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men
Respondent Characteristics											
Female	0.3323		-		-		0.2261		-		-
	(0.4768)						(0.3480)				
Age	0.0114		0.1172	+	-0.0236		-0.0424	*	-0.0031		-0.0426
	(0.0250)		(0.0603)		(0.0629)		0.0216		(0.0418)		(0.0293)
African American/Hispanic	-0.3018		-0.6684		-0.7166		0.1267		1.1568		-0.1963
	(0.8030)		(1.0724)		(1.6171)		(0.5305)		(0.8646)		(0.6440)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0581		-0.0834		-0.4687	*	0.0337		-0.0010		0.0548
	(0.0645)		(0.1054)		(0.2224)		(0536)		(0.0632)		(0.1403)
Startup Experience	0.2881		-1.1338		0.6757		0.427		-0.2218		0.6213
	(0.5897)		(0.8606)		(1.1046)		(0.4131)		(0.6413)		(0.6207)
Occupational SEI	0.0062		0.0203		-0.0251		0.0063		0.0134		-0.0205
	(0.0122)		(0.0146)		(0.0249)		(0.0084)		(0.0131)		(0.0150)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.2119		0.2626		-1.6624	+	0.2202		0.3095		-0.3511
	(0.4475)		(0.5613)		(0.9915)		(0.3688)		(0.4550)		(1.0478)
Team Characteristics											
Tie Strength	-0.2864		-0.5914		0.1687		-0.1795		-0.3042		-0.3015
	(0.5161)		(1.5282)		(0.6774)		(0.2664)		(0.5702)		(0.3364)
Team Size	0.484		0.0388		1.6436		0.1674		-0.3559		0.2952
	(0.4210)		(0.8948)		(1.0512)		(0.2255)		(0.4870)		(0.2841)
Multiple Relationships	-0.0916		-1.0229		-1.7482		-0.7052		-0.3043		-0.6296
	(0.9151)		(1.4264)		(1.7754)		(0.6128)		(1.1353)		(0.8298)
Any Caucasian	-1.6675	*	-2.4455	*	-2.4368		-0.6095		0.251		-0.9955
	(0.8464)		(1.2325)		(1.7551)		(0.5469)		(0.8977)		(0.6481)
Any Male	0.4345		0.7245		-		-0.1321		0.025		-
	(0.6629)		(0.7062)				(0.5372)		(0.6660)		
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.0053		0.0164		0.0229		0.007		0.0109		0.0258
	(0.0148)		(0.0195)		(0.0250)		(0.0114)		(0.0171)		(0.0185)
Any with Startup Experience	0.5476		0.8887		1.3008		-0.5161		0.2205		-1.0100
	(0.5790)		(1.0330)		(1.0520)		(0.4177)		(0.5937)		(0.6300
Maximum Age	-0.0371		-0.1199	*	-0.0036		0.0329	+	0.011		0.0301
	(0.0279)		(0.0560)		(0.0755)		(0.0193)		(0.0374)		(0.0273)
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	0.193	*	0.293	*	0.7822	*	-0.0252		-0.0311		-0.0405
	(0.0888)		(0.1480)		(0.3279)		(0.0740)		(0.0947)		(0.1736)
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	1.0293	*	0.7245		1.2756		0.8759	*	0.5766		1.0551
	(0.4623)		(0.7062)		(0.9327)		(0.4360)		(0.5883)		(0.7305)

Table 4.12, Page 2. Logistic Regression Analysis for Introductions and Maximum Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.2126		-0.0452		-1.3343		1.2089	**	1.4192	*	1.1966	+
	(0.5793)		(1.0432)		(1.1461)		(0.4351)		(0.5847)		(0.6159)	
Parent	0.8913		0.2252		1.7624	*	-0.9031	**	-0.8107		-1.2919	**
	(0.4995)		(0.7787)		(0.7197)		(0.3415)		(0.5683)		(0.4771)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.3709		-0.3802		-0.1959		0.4299	*	0.3969		0.6839	*
	(0.2651)		(3403)		(0.3671)		(0.1943)		(0.2991)		(0.3136)	
Own Home	0.0646		0.0708		-0.8048		0.0812		0.1541		-0.1199	
	(0.5212)		(0.7228)		(0.7943)		(0.3575)		(0.6326)		(0.4777)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0262		0.077		-0.0507		-0.0392		-0.0247		-0.0419	
	(0.0338)		(0.0594)		(0.0769)		(0.0274)		(0.0340)		(0.0444)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.2059		-0.0738		0.426	+	0.1631		0.0006		0.3516	*
	(0.1276)		(0.1506)		(0.2188)		(0.1052)		(0.1474)		(0.1437)	
Home Business	-0.2238		-0.1265		0.3124		-0.0517		-0.1019		-.0222	
	(0.3970)		(0.7012)		(0.5896)		(0.2968)		(0.4274)		(0.4934)	
High Technology	0.3947		0.7319		0.6609		-0.6515		-0.7217		-0.8686	
	(0.8023)		(1.4718)		(1.1111)		(0.4847)		(0.8485)		(0.7358)	
Service/Retail	0.1752		-0.9362		0.7586		0.1747		0.0993		0.1593	
	(0.5287)		(0.8583)		(1.0757)		(0.3868)		(0.5929)		(0.5899)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.1700		-0.7971	*	-0.0230		-0.1127		-0.3293		0.0185	
	(0.2195)		(0.4059)		(0.4366)		(0.1414)		(0.2193)		(0.2304)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0014		-0.0089		-0.0030		0.0041	+	0.0018		0.0043	
	(0.0019)		(0.0073)		(0.0048)		(0.0022)		(0.0086)		(0.0031)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0032		0.0083		0.1		-0.0071		-0.0048		0.0049	
	(0.0184)		(0.0097)		(0.0897)		(0.0135)		(0.0136)		(0.0446)	
South	-0.2632		0.0375		-0.3117		0.2978		-0.2148		0.7443	+
	(0.4303)		(0.6295)		(0.7902)		(0.3089)		(0.4836)		(0.4456)	
Constant	1.2479		9.7789	+	-3.6649		-2.0843		-0.2647		-3.2526	
	(2.3504)		(5.6710)		(4.7014)		(1.7087)		(3.2278)		(2.2887)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
X^2	55.57	**	33.52		40.07	+	33.56		26.25		35.92	
df	30		29		28		30		29		28	
Pseudo R^2	0.1693		0.2507		0.3434		0.1148		0.1341		0.1776	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.13. Logistic Regression for Information and Maximum Team Status[a]

	Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.4366		-		-	
	(0.3448)					
Age	-0.0198		0.001		-0.0397	
	(0.0272)		(0.0456)		(0.0368)	
African American/Hispanic	-1.2169	**	-4.2605	*	-1.0477	
	(0.4721)		(2.0210)		(0.6782)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0576		0.019		-0.1871	*
	(0.0538)		(0.0741)		(0.0918)	
Startup Experience	-0.7993	*	-0.1227		-1.5411	*
	(0.3930)		(0.6529)		(0.6586)	
Occupational SEI	0.0097		-0.0054		0.0427	**
	(0.0084)		(0.0110)		(0.0161)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.2954		0.0588		0.0258	
	(0.3887)		(0.5436)		(0.8071)	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.1758		0.5587		0.385	
	(0.2908)		(0.6529)		(0.4384)	
Team Size	0.4839	*	0.395		0.6115	+
	(0.2314)		(0.5250)		(0.3203)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.0862		1.1069		-0.5911	
	(0.5329)		(1.1398)		(0.7583)	
Any Caucasian	-0.0309		-1.5815		0.0905	
	(0.5048)		(1.9230)		(0.7194)	
Any Male	0.255		-0.0845		-	
	(0.5636)		(0.6554)			
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.0117		0.0021		0.0028	
	(0.0103)		(0.0159)		(0.0187)	
Any with Startup Experience	0.808	*	-0.0706		1.7784	**
	(0.3917)		(0.6610)		(0.6288)	
Maximum Age	-0.0089		-0.0247		0.0043	
	(0.0253)		(0.0401)		(0.0348)	
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	-0.0243		0.0559		0.0297	
	(0.0739)		(0.1197)		(0.1237)	
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	-0.1945		-0.3189		-0.3053	
	(0.3689)		(0.6904)		(0.6050)	

Table 4.13, Page 2. Logistic Regression Analysis for Information and Maximum Team Status[a]

	Most Important Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls						
Married	0.0148		-0.1775		-0.1043	
	(0.3918)		(0.7391)		(0.5533)	
Parent	0.152		-0.5667		0.878	+
	(0.3402)		(0.5576)		(0.5127)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.8988	***	-1.0815	***	-1.4095	***
	(0.2561)		(0.3392)		(0.4020)	
Own Home	-0.4707		-0.5462		-0.5926	
	(0.3668)		(0.7399)		(0.5003)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0292		-0.0478		-0.0648	
	(0.0249)		(0.0409)		(0.0454)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0179		0.1506		-0.1764	
	(0.0848)		(0.1061)		(0.1444)	
Home Business	-0.3227		-0.4291		-0.4284	
	(0.2916)		(0.4922)		(0.4410)	
High Technology	0.1065		1.0807		0.0134	
	(0.5109)		(1.0334)		(0.7357)	
Service/Retail	0.1511		0.6987		-0.4039	
	(0.4366)		(0.7411)		(0.6264)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0925		-0.1227		0.0221	
	(0.1555)		(0.2518)		(0.2524)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0003		-0.0076		0.0018	
	(0.0014)		(0.0065)		(0.0020)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0095		0.0199		-0.0428	
	(0.0134)		(0.0106)		(0.0444)	
South	0.1365		0.4664		-0.1256	
	(0.3107)		(0.6027)		(0.4433)	
Constant	-0.7654		0.8837		-1.5305	
	(1.6820)		(3.5467)		(2.2066)	
N	318		142		176	
X^2	54.21	**	32.23		51.36	**
df	30		29		28	
Pseudo R^2	0.1729		0.2543		0.2709	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Because the vast majority of respondents reported that a team member provided information, only the results for whether a team member provided information as a most important assistance are displayed.

Table 4.14. Logistic Regression for Training and Maximum Team Status

	Any			Most Important		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	0.0113	-	-	-0.6988	-	-
	(0.3908)			(0.4302)		
Age	-0.0453	-0.0294	-0.0680	-0.0277	0.0233	-0.0454
	(0.0332)	(0.0432)	(0.0535)	(0.0247)	(0.0667)	(0.0356)
African American/Hispanic	-0.1884	1.0278	-0.2095	-0.1649	0.7174	-0.2647
	(0.4799)	(0.9307)	(0.6923)	(0.6014)	(1.3256)	(0.7626)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0354	-0.0908	0.1248	-0.1092 *	-0.2302 **	0.0429
	(0.0609)	(0.08332)	(0.1108)	(0.0533)	(0.0822)	(0.0846)
Startup Experience	0.6013	0.3526	0.7544	0.9401	0.7299	1.0666
	(0.4470)	(0.6064)	(0.6362)	(0.6050)	(0.9577)	(0.8713)
Occupational SEI	-0.0075	-0.0103	-0.0155	0.001	0.0086	-0.0883
	(0.0085)	(0.0127)	(0.0156)	(0.0107)	(0.0144)	(0.0185)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.0269	-0.3705	0.5556	-0.7109	-1.2272	-0.6545
	(0.4109)	(0.4476)	(0.8465)	(0.5226)	(0.7455)	(1.0404)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.1541	0.7843	-0.1720	0.4853	1.7876	0.4403
	(0.3395)	(0.6846)	(0.4510)	(0.3794)	(1.3843)	(0.4945)
Team Size	0.2999	0.0397	0.1445	-0.1641	-0.4779	-0.2176
	(0.3217)	(0.6847)	(0.3847)	(0.3311)	(1.1407)	(0.3722)
Multiple Relationships	0.6071	2.8909	2.96*10-6	1.2534 +	1.799	1.0992
	(0.7153)	(2.0657)	(1.0199)	(0.7323)	(1.8204)	(0.8588)
Any Caucasian	0.0799	0.7984	-0.0643	-0.1152	-0.2594	0.0001
	(0.5138)	(0.9116)	(0.8035)	(0.6643)	(1.4198)	(0.9028)
Any Male	0.4946	-0.9318	-	0.1387	-0.6079	-
	(0.5527)	(0.6898)		(0.6974)	(0.8327)	
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.0023	-0.0061	0.0166	0.0019	-0.0081	0.0174
	(0.0102)	(0.0136)	(0.0189)	(0.0140)	(0.0215)	(0.0233)
Any with Startup Experience	0.0614	-0.6378	0.5744	-1.5445 **	-1.3210	-1.6114 *
	(0.4293)	(0.6435)	(05726)	(0.5431)	(1.0004)	(0.7100)
Maximum Age	0.0579	0.0419	0.0967 +	0.0392 +	0.0034	0.0664 *
	(0.0354)	(0.0454)	(0.0537)	(0.0224)	(0.0722)	(0.0296)
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	0.0707	0.0928	-0.1399	0.3017 **	0.3295 *	0.1429
	(0.0844)	(0.1341)	(0.1605)	(0.0957)	(0.1296)	(0.1498)
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	0.5711	0.64	0.8379	-0.3798	-0.7052	-0.2497
	(0.3753)	(0.5830)	(0.6169)	(0.4176)	(0.7265)	(0.5776)

Table 4.14, Page 2. Logistic Regression Analysis for Training and Maximum Team Status

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	0.0328		0.7392		-0.2893		0.8085		0.5107		0.4881	
	(0.4271)		(0.7182)		(0.6465)		(0.5589)		(1.2802)		(0.7143)	
Parent	0.5076		-0.0748		1.0216	+	0.4996		0.5138		0.9867	
	(0.3769)		(0.5602)		(0.5756)		(0.4358)		(0.6623)		(0.6675)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.0925		0.1964		-0.2249		0.1658		0.4851		0.1033	
	(0.2066)		(0.3428)		(0.2750)		(0.2365)		(0.3421)		(0.3123)	
Own Home	0.1711		0.3114		0.1514		-0.2012		1.0552		-0.4537	
	(0.3670)		(0.7743)		(0.5790)		(0.4318)		(0.8694)		(0.6352)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0412		-0.0007		-0.0907	*	-0.0849	**	-0.0169		-0.1342	**
	(0.0294)		(0.0496)		(0.0460)		(0.0302)		(0.0430)		(0.0484)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.3253	**	0.2191		0.4917	**	0.3401	**	0.0843		0.5217	**
	(0.1208)		(0.1445)		(0.1850)		(0.1262)		(0.1809)		(0.1882)	
Home Business	-0.045		-0.3212		0.2289		0.3725		0.3143		0.3597	
	(0.3153)		(0.5043)		(0.5023)		(0.3781)		(0.6858)		(0.5795)	
High Technology	0.4781		0.8107		0.4406		-0.4005		-0.6466		-0.1738	
	(0.5179)		(0.9628)		(0.6680)		(0.6294)		(1.5052)		(0.7915)	
Service/Retail	0.2585		-0.8592		0.6674		-0.3660		-0.9178		-0.4154	
	(0.3763)		(0.9475)		(0.5296)		(0.4168)		(0.6096)		(0.5785)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0544		-0.2146		-0.0162		0.0519		-0.2337		0.0588	
	(0.1553)		(0.2780)		(0.2193)		(0.1662)		(0.3029)		(0.2374)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0646		0.0028		0.0011		0.0005		-0.0128	*	0.0025	
	(0.0015)		(0.0118)		(0.0015)		(0.0013)		(0.0064)		(0.0016)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0059		0.0136		-0.0192		0.0118		0.0404	*	-0.0288	
	(0.0217)		(0.3614)		(0.0408)		(0.0103)		(0.0157)		(0.0436)	
South	0.209		-0.8209		0.513		-0.2796		-0.6656		-0.3055	
	(0.3238)		(0.5811)		(0.4967)		(0.3772)		(0.5807)		(0.5869)	
Constant	-3.8273	*	-1.4101		-4.7447	+	-5.3149	*	-6.1740		-6.4538	
	(1.8073)		(3.4523)		(2.4288)		(2.5227)		(5.5263)		(3.5575)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
X^2	35.93		24.85		36.3		53.4	+	44.89	*	35.1	
df	30		29		28		30		29		28	
Pseudo R^2	0.1308		0.2073		0.2065		0.2		0.3268		0.2313	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.15. Logistic Regression for Personal Services and Team Maximum Status

	Any			Most Important		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women[a]	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.2094	-	-	-0.7332	-	-
	(0.3493)			(0.5636)		
Age	0.0232	0.0375	0.0332	-0.1026 *	-0.0666	-0.3010 **
	(0.0278)	(0.0502)	(0.0349)	(0.0446)	(0.0801)	(0.1150)
African American/Hispanic	0.0193	2.0731 *	-0.6068	0.8901	3.3605 *	1.3688
	(0.4841)	(0.9522)	(0.6503)	(0.7683)	(1.5110)	(1.5052)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0041	-0.0059	-0.1257	0.15 +	-0.0392	0.5649
	(0.0534)	(0.0638)	(0.1218)	(0.0847)	(0.1540)	(0.4424)
Startup Experience	0.3665	-0.5966	0.9416 +	0.5555	0.9165	0.4366
	(0.3829)	(0.7873)	(0.5518)	(0.7313)	(1.7876)	(1.6575)
Occupational SEI	-0.0120	-0.0022	-0.0249 +	0.0043	0.0039	0.0051
	(0.0088)	(0.0110)	(0.0139)	(0.0166)	(0.0563)	(0.0371)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.2245	0.1208	-0.0270	-0.0241	0.3052	0.0569
	(0.3941)	(0.4630)	(0.9641)	(0.6857)	(1.2029)	(1.4513)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	1.3367 **	1.0879	1.6892 +	4.1792 ***	-	4.1288 +
	(0.4722)	(0.7498)	(0.8972)	(1.3106)		(2.1887)
Team Size	-0.4166	-0.6006	-0.4416	0.2894	3.4275 **	-1.7620 +
	(0.2748)	(0.6729)	(0.3859)	(0.5263)	(1.0890)	(0.9271)
Multiple Relationships	0.5463	0.3191	0.6705	-0.4122	-5.8276 **	-1.8794
	(0.6070)	(1.6625)	(0.8365)	(1.0507)	(2.0255)	(1.5656)
Any Caucasian	0.4741	1.3321	0.4403	1.9247 *	3.0416 *	2.2844 +
	(0.5437)	(1.1000)	(0.7400)	(0.8235)	(1.5318)	(1.3269)
Any Male	0.1703	0.7766	-	-0.6079	-0.3635	-
	(0.6187)	(0.7144)		(0.9385)	(1.3604)	
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.0011	-0.0001	0.0084	-0.0501 *	-0.0438	-0.1018 *
	(0.0106)	(0.0144)	(0.0169)	(0.0207)	(0.0737)	(0.0421)
Any with Startup Experience	0.1162	1.2535 +	-0.3729	0.3165	-0.5744	1.3869
	(0.3741)	(0.7134)	(0.5174)	(0.6609)	(1.5862)	(1.2158)
Maximum Age	-0.0190	-0.0604	-0.0163	0.0118	-0.0444	0.2222 *
	(0.0263)	(0.0453)	(0.0304)	(0.0366)	(0.0814)	(0.1128)
Maximum Industry Experience (Logged)	-0.0136	-0.0318	0.2542	-0.1742	-0.1088	-0.5788
	(0.0763)	(0.0970)	(0.1708)	(0.1335)	(0.3439)	(0.6132)
Any with Male-Typed Occupation	0.6785 +	0.0388	0.9278	0.1867	3.0751 **	0.7956
	(0.3777)	(0.6071)	(0.5875)	(0.6831)	(1.1989)	(1.7770)

Table 4.15, Page 2. Logistic Regression Analysis for Personal Services and Maximum Team Status

	Any						**Most Important**					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women[a]		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.4788		-0.9178		-0.4154		1.7586	*	1.3847		2.814	+
	(0.4051)		(0.6829)		(0.5868)		(0.8589)		(1.3282)		(1.4422)	
Parent	0.7862	*	-0.4299		1.3839	*	1.4498	*	-0.0717		4.5438	***
	(0.3633)		(0.5386)		(0.5945)		(0.6423)		(1.2279)		(1.3303)	
Number of Children under 6	0.5866	**	1.0516	*	0.5363	+	0.034		0.1446		-0.0974	
	(0.2185)		(0.422*0		(0.3238)		(0.2550)		(0.3797)		(0.7051)	
Own Home	-0.6503	+	0.0638		-1.0009		-0.6754		-0.2882		-0.8530	
	(0.3480)		(0.6407)		(0.6273)		(0.6122)		(0.9819)		(1.5087)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0562	*	0.0737		0.032		-0.0352		-0.0421		0.028	
	(0.0269)		(0.0499)		(0.0415)		(0.0399)		(0.0784)		(0.0714)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0315		0.1947	+	-0.0606		0.0799		0.6435		-0.6746	
	(0.0829)		(0.1173)		(0.1381)		(0.1720)		(0.4284)		(0.4249)	
Home Business	0.1371		0.6674		0.0755		-0.8489		-0.3410		-2.3784	*
	(0.2992)		(0.5019)		(0.4188)		(0.5177)		(0.8018)		(1.0576)	
High Technology	0.7294		0.6674		0.5552		0.5767		-0.9959		0.1098	
	(0.5288)		(0.5019)		(0.7353)		(0.7817)		(2.4026)		(1.2367)	
Service/Retail	0.5926		0.3332		0.5688		2.2854	**	1.6555	+	4.7611	*
	(0.3796)		(0.5755)		(0.5133)		(0.8138)		(1.0018)		(2.1994)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0118		0.1647		-0.0303		-0.3557		0.5514		-0.7602	
	(0.1483)		(0.2387)		(0.2167)		(0.3844)		(0.7190)		(0.5728)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0045		-0.0130		-0.0031		0.007		-0.0098		0.0175	**
	(0.0042)		(0.0100)		(0.0034)		(0.0022)		(0.0274)		(0.0059)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0484		0.1171		0.0109		0.0063		0.0094		0.1211	+
	(0.0327)		(0.0727)		(0.0427)		(0.0112)	***	(0.0122)		(0.0632)	
South	0.7534	*	0.5307		0.7879	+	-0.1183		-1.7237	+	0.2009	
	(0.3110)		(0.4798)		(0.4492)		(0.4971)		(0.9895)		(0.9180)	
Constant	-4.9953	*	-6.7636	+	-5.1955		-11.733	**	-17.2796	**	-6.1143	
	(2.3489)		(3.8188)		(4.1344)		(4.4631)		(6.5935)		(7.0669)	
N	318		142		176		318		113		176	
X^2	65.4	***	34,43		49.96	*	68.87	***	53.43	**	55.59	**
df	30		29		28		30		28		28	
Pseudo R^2	0.2067		0.2888		0.2839		0.3829		0.3623		0.5978	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Only women on spouse/kin teams reported a team member providing personal assistance as the most important assistance, so tie strength and 29 observations were dropped from the analysis.

Table 4.16. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Team Diversity

	Unique Assistance Types						Average Number of Assistance Types					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	0.1533		-		-		0.3187		-		-	
	(0.2209)						(0.2038)					
Age	0.0024		0.0042		-0.0022		-0.0050		0.0086		-0.0136	
	(0.0101)		(0.0185)		(0.0126)		(0.0094)		(0.0183)		(0.0116)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.4472	*	-0.1743		-0.4472		-0.2586		-0.1269		-0.2521	
	(0.2206)		(0.4122)		(0.2736)		(0.2035)		(0.3867)		(0.2518)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0252		-0.0127		0.0453		0.0276		-0.0260		0.0593	*
	(0.0224)		(0.0356)		(0.0314)		(0.0207)		(0.0333)		(0.0289)	
Startup Experience	0.2236		0.0754		0.3721		0.2021		-0.1161		0.4252	+
	(0.1943)		(0.3378)		(0.2580)		(0.1793)		(0.3169)		(0.0238)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0041		0.0027		-0.0130		-0.0049		0.0013		-0.0126	*
	(0.0042)		(0.0067)		(0.0058)		(0.0039)		(0.0063)		(0.0054)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.4289		-1.0242	*	-0.6567		-0.3375		-0.7974	+	-0.3912	
	(0.2721)		(0.4483)		(0.4195)		(0.2511)		(0.4206)		(0.3862)	
Team Characteristics												
Tie Strength	0.4207	+	0.6049		0.4978	+	0.108		0.7312	+	-0.0550	
	(0.2298)		(0.4172)		(0.2876)		(0.2121)		(0.3914)		(0.2647)	
Team Size	0.2104		-0.2238		0.1543		-0.1248		-0.5214		-0.1641	
	(0.1576)		(0.4129)		(0.1789)		(0.1454)		(0.3873)		(0.1646)	
Multiple Relationships	0.786	*	1.692	*	0.6835		0.1464		0.8728		0.1608	
	(0.3498)		(0.8409)		(0.4273)		(0.3227)		(0.7890)		(0.3933)	
Ethnic Diversity	0.1643		0.0704		0.1164		-0.1202		-0.1347		-0.1788	
	(0.2821)		(0.5548)		(0.3400)		(0.2603)		(0.5205)		(0.3130)	
Sex Diversity	-0.2485		-0.7425		-0.3044		-0.3517		-1.0894	*	-0.1830	
	(0.2625)		(0.4798)		(0.3397)		(0.2422)		(0.4502)		(0.3127)	
Occupational SEI Range	0.0023		0.0034		-0.0006		-0.0026		0.0018		-0.0050	
	(0.0049)		(0.0089)		(0.0062)		(0.0045)		(0.0083)		(0.0057)	
Startup Diversity	0.2974		-0.1810		0.4878	+	0.3252	+	-0.0920		0.4205	
	(0.1910)		(0.3339)		(0.280)		(0.1762)		(0.3132)		(0.2283)	
Age Range	-0.0065		-0.0149		-0.0009		-0.0032		-0.0123		0.0039	
	(0.0116)		(0.0225)		(0.0145)		(0.0107)		(0.0211)		(0.0134)	
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0124		-0.0243		0.0413		-0.0210		-0.0723		0.0069	
	(0.0325)		(0.0508)		(0.00458)		(0.0300)		(0.0476)		(0.0421)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2835		1.3077	**	-0.0761		0.2809		1.029	*	0.0165	
	(0.2176)		(0.4629)		(0.2554)		(0.2008)		(0.4384)		(0.2351)	

Table 4.16, Page 2. Ordinary Least Squares Regression for Assistance Provided and Team Diversity

	Unique Assistance Types						Average Number of Assistance Types					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.0090		-0.2165		0.1071		0.043		-0.0705		0.0316	
	(0.2501)		(0.4457)		(0.3180)		(0.2308)		(0.4182)		(0.2926)	
Parent	0.2528		-0.1408		0.4552		-0.4372		0.0265		-0.1152	
	(0.2243)		(0.3714)		(0.2879)		(0.2070)		(0.3485)		(0.2650)	
Number of Children under 6	0.0849		0.404	+	-0.0493		0.1098		0.3141		0.0801	
	(0.1356)		(0.2125)		(0.1860)		(0.1251)		(0.1989)		(0.1712)	
Own Home	-0.0622		0.446		-0.4778		0.113		0.0962		0.0671	
	(0.2319)		(0.4121)		(0.3099)		(0.2140)		(0.3867)		(0.2853)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.059	***	0.0567	*	0.0594	*	0.056	***	0.0542	*	0.0617	**
	(0.0171)		(0.0262)		(0.0244)		(0.0158)		(0.0246)		(0.0225)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1095	+	0.1279		0.0892		0.0813		0.0886		0.0498	
	(0.0566)		(0.0834)		(0.0838)		(0.0522)		(0.0782)		(0.0771)	
Home Business	-0.0773		0.073		-0.0411		0.1314		0.0709		0.292	
	(0.1923)		(0.3149)		(0.2612)		(0.1774)		(0.2954)		(0.2404)	
High Technology	0.1447		1.2541	+	0.013		0.1836		1.0323		-0.0641	
	(0.3197)		(0.6611)		(0.4029)		(0.2950)		(0.6203)		(0.3709)	
Service/Retail	0.0015		-0.7318	+	0.3691		0.1516		-0.2481		0.3539	
	(0.2320)		(0.4329)		(0.3098)		(0.2140)		(0.4061)		(0.2852)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0064		0.0592		-0.0933		-0.0127		-0.0803		-0.0379	
	(0.0910)		(0.1560)		(0.1992)		(0.0840)		(0.1463)		(0.1097)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0005		0.0006		-0.0005		-0.0001		0.0021		-0.0032	
	(0.0011)		(0.0046)		(0.0012)		(0.0010)		(0.0043)		(0.0011)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0103		0.0054		0.0518	*	0.0129		0.0067		0.0488	*
	(0.0096)		(0.0112)		(0.0249)		(0.0088)		(0.0105)		(0.0299)	
South	0.3121		0.0559		0.4099		0.1492		-0.0256		0.231	
	(0.1962)		(0.3412)		(0.2555)		(0.1810)		(0.3201)		(0.2351)	
Constant	2.3945	*	2.7412		3.2961	*	3.219	***	3.1776	+	4.2819	***
	(1.0359)		(1.9043)		(1.3054)		(0.9558)		(1.7866)		(1.2016)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
R^2	0.2202		0.3409		0.2929		0.1455		0.2541		0.2324	
F Statistic	3.28	***	2.72	***	3.21	***	2.4	***	2.41	***	2.23	***
df	30,287		29,112		29.146		30,287		29,112		29.146	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.17. Logistic Regression for Introductions and Team Diversity

	Any			Most Important		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men[a]	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	0.1702	-	-	0.1553	-	-
	(0.4554)			(0.3417)		
Age	-0.0183	0.0174	-0.0435	-0.0230	-0.00007	-0.0450 *
	(0.0185)	(0.0315)	(0.0324)	(0.0159)	(0.0291)	(0.0223)
African American/Hispanic	0.7083	0.7654	0.5946	0.3921	0.8319	0.297
	(0.5962)	(0.7690)	(1.0521)	(0.3481)	(0.5891)	(0.4851)
Log of Industry Experience	0.024	0.0074	0.0626	0.0057	-0.0246	0.0217
	(0.0441)	(0.0910)	(0.0614)	(0.0370)	(0.0506)	(0.0616)
Startup Experience	0.379	0.4891	0.6665	0.0146	-0.0959	-0.0258
	(0.4007)	(0.7387)	(0.6620)	(0.3061)	(0.5063)	(0.4819)
Occupational SEI	0.0091	0.0294 *	-0.0123	0.0113 +	0.0215 *	0.0025
	(0.0092)	(0.0129)	(0.0209)	(0.0066)	(0.0101)	(0.0089)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.4430	-2.1392 **	-1.8493 +	-0.0193	-0.4879	-0.9523
	(0.6130)	(0.8293)	(1.0802)	(0.3908)	(0.5850)	(1.0167)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	-0.1642	-0.6301	0.4127	-0.1023	-0.0557	0.0521
	(0.5461)	(1.9856)	(0.7168)	(0.3419)	(0.5607)	(0.5411)
Team Size	0.3373	0.3803	0.9215	0.222	-0.4289	0.0521
	(0.4485)	(0.8571)	(0.9640)	(0.2327)	(0.5965)	(0.5411)
Multiple Relationships	0.1366	-1.1310	-0.5557	-0.8610	0.2525	-1.5452
	(0.8884)	(1.8180)	(1.8415)	(0.6242)	(1.3191)	(0.9515)
Ethnic Diversity	1.292	0.8931	-	0.7692 +	1.6949 *	0.7414
	(1.1022)	(1.2216)		(0.4651)	(0.7895)	(0.6222)
Sex Diversity	0.2216	-1.1366	0.0714	0.0145	-0.2607	0.082
	(0.5605)	(1.3803)	(0.8496)	(0.4329)	(0.6599)	(0.7264)
Occupational SEI Range	-0.0031	0.0062	-0.0149	0.0025	0.0119	-0.0005
	(0.0100)	(0.0177)	(0.0155)	(0.0071)	(0.0135)	(0.0101)
Startup Diversity	0.4707	0.4725	0.8014	-0.5510 +	0.277	-1.1053 *
	(0.4377)	(0.7309)	(0.7940)	(0.3298)	(0.4908)	(0.5225)
Age Range	-0.0152	-0.1270 **	0.0399	0.0256	-0.0491	0.0566 *
	(0.0224)	(0.0453)	(0.0575)	(0.0170)	(0.0351)	(0.0232)
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0502	0.0508	0.0811	0.0062	-0.0594	0.0284
	(0.0599)	(0.1094)	(0.1027)	(0.0306)	(0.0774)	(0.0772)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.0150	4.2377 ***	-1.2397 *	0.0403	0.8574	-0.1715
	(0.4751)	(1.3272)	(0.5481)	(0.3395)	(0.6288)	(0.4593)

Table 4.17, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Introductions and Team Diversity

	Any			Most Important		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men[a]	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Controls						
Married	-0.0802	-0.1516	-0.6247	1.2924 **	1.3261 +	1.2218 *
	(0.5031)	(0.8126)	(1.0167)	(0.4333)	(0.6834)	(0.5931)
Parent	0.7635	0.226	1.3967 +	-1.0064 **	-1.0490 +	-1.4152 **
	(0.4937)	(0.7546)	(0.7298)	(0.3448)	(0.5862)	(0.4917)
Number of Children under 6	-0.2929	-0.0840	-0.1628	0.4258 *	0.374	0.5903 *
	(0.2525)	(0.3339)	(0.4342)	(0.1832)	(0.2960)	(0.2690)
Own Home	0.0005	0.1898	-0.9327	0.1906	-0.0052	0.2188
	(0.5141)	(0.7112)	(0.8327)	(0.3696)	(0.5609)	(0.5213)
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0327	0.0744	0.0327	-0.0343	-0.0342	-0.0319
	(0.0310)	(0.0648)	(0.0809)	(0.0269)	(0.0375)	(0.0422)
Log of Hours Invested	0.1921	-0.0204	0.2273	0.1505	0.059	0.2017
	(0.1383)	(0.1401)	(0.2220)	(0.1021)	(0.1638)	(0.1417)
Home Business	-0.2525	-0.8143	0.1301	-0.1080	-0.1606	-0.1435
	(0.3842)	(0.6865)	(0.5785)	(0.2960)	(0.4328)	(0.4882)
High Technology	0.3787	0.6153	0.3779	-0.6366	-1.4236	-0.8818
	(0.8190)	(1.3353)	(1.1076)	(0.4952)	(0.9737)	(0.7797)
Service/Retail	-0.0147	-1.6191 +	0.4092	0.0697	-0.0729	-0.0406
	(0.4863)	(0.8656)	(0.9619)	(0.3933)	(0.6076)	(0.5461)
Industry Failure Rate	-0.1115	-0.6615	-0.0199	-0.0952	-0.3357	0.007
	(0.2098)	(0.4145)	(0.3406)	(0.1399)	-0.2366	(0.1957)
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0009	-0.0127	-0.0014	0.0028	-0.0007	0.0037
	(0.0021)	(0.0089)	(0.0078)	(0.0018)	(0.0076)	(0.0030)
Income in 10,000s	0.0089	0.0149	0.122 *	-0.0023	-0.0006	0.0239
	(0.0210)	(0.0111)	(0.0617)	(0.0122)	(0.0104)	(0.0432)
South	-0.2091	-0.2243	-0.2509	0.3199	-0.4132	0.7444
	(0.4388)	(0.6287)	(0.7327)	(0.3092)	(0.5060)	(0.4800)
Constant	0.4543	7.9736	-0.8673	-1.8795	1.2955	-2.2762
	(1.9903)	(6.6739)	(4.2578)	1.5891	(3.1381)	(2.5737)
N	318	142	150	318	142	176
X^2	31.63	42.44 +	43.25 *	36.16	30.97	31.86
df	30	29	28	30	29	29
Pseudo R^2	0.1244	0.3223	0.2678	0.1084	0.1737	0.1801

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Men on teams with ethnic diversity all report introduction assistance, so that variable and 26 observations were dropped.

Table 4.18. Logistic Regression for Information and Team Diversity[a]

	Most Important Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.5194		-		-	
	(0.3535)					
Age	-0.0211		-0.0201		-0.0249	
	(0.0175)		(0.0285)		(0.0249)	
African American/Hispanic	-1.2438	***	-2.9967	*	-1.3172	*
	(0.3777)		(1.2104)		(0.5699)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0606		0.0287		-0.1660	*
	(0.0375)		(0.0581)		(0.0663)	
Startup Experience	-0.2763		0.0631		-0.2288	
	(0.3194)		(0.4782)		(0.5546)	
Occupational SEI	0.0187	**	-0.0075		0.0472	***
	(0.0070)		(0.0110)		(0.0125)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.551		-0.3564		0.7773	
	(0.4224)		(0.7424)		(0.7733)	
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.6272	+	0.4508		1.329	*
	(0.3342)		(0.5856)		(0.5324)	
Team Size	0.543	*	0.6246		0.744	*
	(0.2527)		(0.5106)		(0.3178)	
Multiple Relationships	-0.0637		0.8782		-0.5597	
	(0.5592)		(1.0523)		(0.7537)	
Ethnic Diversity	-0.6206		-0.6540		-0.6191	
	(0.4529)		(0.9814)		(0.5826)	
Sex Diversity	-0.7886		-0.4473		-1.6993	**
	(0.3968)		(0.6776)		(0.6158)	
Occupational SEI Range	0.0078		-0.0122		0.0087	
	(0.0080)		(0.0125)		(0.0111)	
Startup Diversity	0.3368		-0.2545		0.7298	
	(0.3164)		(0.5420)		(0.4998)	
Age Range	-0.0082		-0.0176		-0.0040	
	(0.0214)		(0.0311)		(0.0275)	
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0021		0.0265		0.0664	
	(0.0515)		(0.0917)		(0.0771)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.5074		0.6657		-0.8948	+
	(0.3673)		(0.6986)		(0.5232)	

Table 4.18, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Information and Team Diversity[a]

	Most Important Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls						
Married	0.213		-0.0921		0.2186	
	(0.4122)		(0.6841)		(0.6236)	
Parent	0.1345		-0.5769		0.5987	
	(0.3551)		(0.5689)		(0.5672)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.8563	***	-0.9336	**	-1.1546	**
	(0.2580)		(0.3380)		(0.4223)	
Own Home	-0.5662		-0.5101		-0.7333	
	(0.3808)		(0.7621)		(0.5586)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0311		-0.0417		-0.0713	
	(0.0251)		(0.0446)		(0.0463)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0414		0.1306		-0.1835	
	(0.0840)		(0.1112)		(0.1490)	
Home Business	-0.2114		-0.5672		-0.0869	
	(0.3012)		(0.5218)		(0.4576)	
High Technology	0.0767		1.2532		-0.3468	
	(0.5201)		(1.0836)		(0.6956)	
Service/Retail	0.212		0.6429		-0.3482	
	(0.4176)		(0.7568)		(0.6704)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.1308		-0.1015		-0.0179	
	(0.1574)		(0.2466)		(0.2558)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0005		-0.0072		0.0009	
	(0.0013)		(0.0071)		(0.0016)	
Income in 10,000s	0.011		0.0247	+	-0.0475	
	(0.0129)		(0.0133)		(0.0432)	
South	0.1641		0.4388		0.0262	
	(0.3108)		(0.5920)		(0.4250)	
Constant	-1.2070		-0.6506		-3.4395	
	(1.5326)		(2.6198)		(2.1833)	
N	318		142		176	
X^2	58.64	**	38.07		47.77	*
df	30		29		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.1863		0.2551		0.3017	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Because the vast majority of respondents reported that a team member provided information, I only display results for whether a team member provided information as the most important resource.

Table 4.19. Logistic Regression for Training and Team Diversity

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	0.1721		-		-		-0.4730		-		-	
	(0.3487)						(0.4287)					
Age	0.0004		-0.0012		0.0098		0.0045		0.0339		-0.0003	
	(0.0160)		(0.0256)		(0.0231)		(0.0195)		(0.0322)		(0.0269)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.2584		0.3786		-0.2629		-0.0491		0.678		-0.2311	
	(0.3516)		(0.7125)		(0.4617)		(0.3901)		(0.7915)		(0.5195)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0010		-0.0784		0.0527		0.0198		-0.1302	+	0.1285	*
	(0.0379)		(0.0600)		(0.0534)		(0.0392)		(0.0778)		(0.0641)	
Startup Experience	0.5077		0.0495		0.7389		0.1408		0.0512		0.1265	
	(0.3321)		(0.6422)		(0.5005)		(0.4045)		(0.7008)		(0.7147)	
Occupational SEI	-0.0063		-0.0158		-0.0058		0.0014		-0.0078		-0.0020	
	(0.0067)		(0.0111)		(0.0112)		(0.0078)		(0.0134)		(0.0129)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.4208		-1.9902	**	0.2255		-0.4793		-0.6944		-0.3223	
	(0.4509)		(0.7340)		(0.8689)		(0.6124)		(0.7411)		(1.3406)	
Team Characteristics												
Tie Strength	0.5453		0.7005		0.5218		0.6857		2.1244		0.4941	
	(0.4576)		(0.7253)		(0.5644)		(0.4851)		(1.7260)		(0.6248)	
Team Size	0.3765		-0.7765		0.2785		-0.1738		-0.7088		-0.0990	
	(0.3425)		(0.8559)		(0.4178)		(0.3595)		(0.7962)		(0.4289)	
Multiple Relationships	0.7544		4.5498	+	0.7234		1.2686	+	2.7069		1.4646	
	(0.6900)		(2.3547)		(0.9321)		(0.7152)		(1.6882)		(0.9238)	
Ethnic Diversity	-0.5517		-0.8665		-1.0410		-0.3225		-1.0847		-0.4191	
	(0.5120)		(0.8904)		(0.7449)		(0.5796)		(1.1975)		(0.6645)	
Sex Diversity	-0.3907		-1.5130	+	-0.6863		-0.7139		-0.9984		-0.5064	
	(0.4594)		(0.8562)		(0.6638)		(0.5142)		(0.7707)		(0.6928)	
Occupational SEI Range	0.0008		-0.0110		0.0015		0.0051		-0.0330		0.0138	
	(0.0081)		(0.0146)		(0.0118)		(0.0095)		(0.0220)		(0.0139)	
Startup Diversity	0.0302		-1.3056	**	0.531		-1.2200	**	-1.6210	+	-1.5722	*
	(0.3238)		(0.5073)		(0.4828)		(0.4165)		(0.9782)		(0.6386)	
Age Range	0.05	+	0.0786	+	0.0419		0.0195		0.0354		0.0161	
	(0.0268)		(0.0461)		(0.0311)		(0.0206)		(0.0457)		(0.0288)	
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	-0.0846		-0.1154		-0.1376	+	0.0992	+	0.2058	*	-0.0330	
	(0.0523)		(0.0953)		().0819)		(0.0529)		(0.0987)		(0.0871)	
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.3992		2.2386	**	0.1415		0.1661		-0.2598		0.341	
	(0.3658)		(0.7855)		(0.4312)		(0.4470)		(0.7548)		(0.6354)	

Table 4.19, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Training and Team Diversity

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls												
Married	0.2897		1.0084		0.0548		0.6581		0.0974		0.6347	
	(0.4253)		(0.7569)		(0.5831)		(0.5365)		(1.2755)		(0.7350)	
Parent	0.6838	+	0.1135		1.2156	+	0.3032		0.5296		0.6448	
	(0.4071)		(0.5768)		(0.6272)		(0.4534)		(0.7685)		(0.7205)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.1410		0.3682		-0.3181		0.2527		0.8115	+	0.1006	
	(0.2046)		(0.3388)		(0.2852)		(0.2350)		(0.4838)		(0.2963)	
Own Home	0.0684		0.5092		-0.1383		-0.1188		1.1711		-0.2516	
	(0.3648)		(0.6844)		(0.5637)		(0.4198)		(0.7438)		(0.7232)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0342		0.0038		-0.0662		-0.0912	**	0.0056		-0.1218	**
	(0.0282)		(0.0590)		(0.0408)		(0.0313)		(0.0567)		(0.0466)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.2868	**	0.2127		0.4486	**	0.3465	**	-0.0077		0.5329	**
	(0.1058)		(0.1487)		(0.1524)		(0.1286)		(0.1651)		(0.1912)	
Home Business	-0.0160		-0.3646		0.3345		0.297		0.2416		0.2027	
	(0.3183)		(0.5644)		(0.4778)		(0.3661)		(0.6380)		(0.6184)	
High Technology	0.6364		1.7078		0.3577		-0.4799		0.0258		-0.4944	
	(0.5630)		(1.0612)		(0.7207)		(0.5813)		(1.2915)		(0.7674)	
Service/Retail	0.2667		-1.5745		1.0357	+	-0.5813		-1.0467		-0.4817	
	(0.4005)		(1.2749)		(0.5784)		(0.4019)		(0.6469)		(0.5538)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0942		-0.1506		-0.1538		0.1206		-0.2317		0.098	
	(0.1581)		(0.3272)		(0.1974)		(0.1646)		(0.2958)		(0.2291)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0006		0.0012		0.0013		0.0003		-0.0178		0.0016	
	(0.0016)		(0.0105)		(0.0019)		(0.0015)		(0.0126)		(0.0019)	
Income in 10,000s	0.0084		0.032		-0.0045		0.0114		0.0988		-0.0163	
	(0.0186)		(0.0804)		(0.0465)		(0.0107)		(0.1000)		(0.0483)	
South	0.2354		-0.9257		0.6905		-0.2776		-0.1491		-0.3654	
	(0.3149)		(0.6365)		(0.4527)		(0.3470)		(0.6584)		(0.5166)	
Constant	-2.9548		2.6555		-3.8503		-5.5142	*	-6.5944		-5.4885	+
	(2.0471)		(3.4846)		(2.4556)		(2.2373)		(5.7245)		(3.0732)	
N	318		142		176		318		142		176	
X^2	35.09		39.54	+	34.35		45.49	*	29.12		34.67	
df	30		29		29		30		29		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.1336		0.2832		0.2026		0.1768		0.3298		0.233	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

Table 4.20. Logistic Regression for Personal Services and Team Diversity

	Any			Most Important		
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women[a]	Men
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.2770	-	-	-0.7451	-	-
	(0.3254)			(0.5360)		
Age	0.0019	-0.0257	0.0112	-0.0803 **	-0.1037 *	-0.1035
	(0.0161)	(0.0305)	(0.0241)	(0.0313)	(0.0501)	(0.0654)
African American/Hispanic	-0.1325	0.9009	-0.5511	-0.0513	-0.1049	0.3541
	(0.3482)	(0.5937)	(0.4852)	(0.5254)	(1.3330)	(1.3279)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0100	-0.0326	0.0015	0.0348	-0.1040	0.0784
	(0.0334)	(0.0530)	(0.0512)	(0.0597)	(0.1209)	(0.1404)
Startup Experience	0.3042	0.5666	0.494	0.5699	0.3148	1.4738
	(0.3098)	(0.6198)	(0.4722)	(0.4691)	(1.2224)	(1.2804)
Occupational SEI	-0.0096	-0.0022	-0.0217 *	-0.0223 *	-0.0282	-0.0497 *
	(0.0066)	(0.0099)	(0.0101)	(0.0106)	(0.0323)	(0.0236)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.1454	-1.0899	-0.3839	0.1923	-5.4890 **	-0.3000
	(0.4128)	(0.6738)	(0.7596)	(0.6598)	(1.7862)	(1.3684)
Team Characteristics						
Tie Strength	0.6578	0.7387	0.6868	3.1318 **	-	1.7759
	(0.5601)	(0.6641)	(1.0357)	(1.1884)		(1.5599)
Team Size	-0.6980 *	-0.9149	-0.9692 +	0.0754	7.2494 *	-2.3749
	(0.3269)	(0.7687)	(0.5274)	(0.5415)	(3.0152)	(1.6747)
Multiple Relationships	0.589	0.8815	0.7415	-0.4098	-11.3294 *	-1.2559
	(0.6379)	(1.5631)	(0.9710)	(1.1361)	(4.5261)	(2.0296)
Ethnic Diversity	0.3237	1.085	0.5023	0.3501	2.2075	1.3039
	(0.4627)	(0.7616)	(0.6097)	(0.6244)	(1.3570)	(1.8252)
Sex Diversity	1.0331 *	0.6117	1.152	0.969	0.8553	3.3148
	(0.4600)	(0.7227)	(0.7323)	(0.7640)	(1.2983)	(3.1228)
Occupational SEI Range	0.0047	-0.0111	0.014	-0.0060	-0.0210	0.0015
	(0.0073)	(0.0128)	(0.0099)	(0.0123)	(0.0422)	(0.0188)
Startup Diversity	0.5378 +	0.5839	0.612	0.4346	-1.9663	0.9878
	(0.2947)	(0.5092)	(0.4031)	(0.4861)	(2.1243)	(0.8178)
Age Range	0.0212	0.0001	0.0409	0.0188	-0.2150 *	0.2094 *
	(0.0190)	(0.0348)	(0.0267)	(0.0277)	(0.0993)	(0.0778)
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0284	-0.0072	0.1117	-0.0415	-0.3358	0.0786
	(0.0461)	(0.0724)	(0.0714)	(0.0867)	(0.2267)	(0.1649)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.0047	1.8469 **	-0.1335	-0.04082	6.2872 **	-0.8738
	(0.0073)	(0.6560)	(0.4459)	(0.5804)	(2.2170)	(1.5423)

Table 4.20, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Personal Services and Team Diversity

	Any						Most Important					
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women[a]		Men	
Controls												
Married	-0.3843		-1.0428		-0.2927		1.1738	+	2.5811	+	3.7948	**
	(0.4013)		(0.8027)		(0.5746)		'(0.6665)		(1.4164)		(1.4462)	
Parent	0.8852	*	-0.3225		1.4859	**	1.6306	*	-0.2510		5.9663	**
	(0.3592)		(0.5668)		(0.5336)		(0.6746)		(1.3831)		(2.0938)	
Number of Children under 6	0.5191	*	1.236	**	0.2559		-0.2133		0.0109		-0.4573	
	(0.2347)		(0.4177)		(0.3279)		(0.2683)		(0.4824)		(0.5838)	
Own Home	-0.4752		0.4377		-0.8322		-0.5482		-1.7536		-1.2601	
	(0.3710)		(0.6387)		(0.5916)		(0.5724)		(1.1664)		(1.6211)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0558	*	0.0757		0.0362		-0.0403		-0.0109		-0.0299	
	(0.0283)		(0.0476)		(0.0465)		(0.0389)		(0.4823)		(0.0778)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0404		0.283		-0.1321		0.1941		0.6293	*	-0.0913	
	(0.0851)		(0.1719)		(0.1450)		(0.1705)		(0.3161)		(5421)	
Home Business	0.1908		0.6127		0.1328		-0.7193		-0.4876		-1.6391	
	(0.2939)		(0.4711)		(0.4356)		(0.4753)		(1.0701)		(1.1909)	
High Technology	0.789		1.6405	+	0.7493		0.3215		0.4649		0.3824	
	(0.5246)		(0.9762)		(0.6730)		(0.7824)		(2.4645)		(1.5695)	
Service/Retail	0.5917		0.413		0.2573		1.8708	**	1.6987		2.839	*
	(0.3272)		(0.6008)		(0.5246)		(0.6199)		(1.0940)		(1.2606)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.0004		0.2004		0.0385		-0.1493		0.7181		-0.4751	
	(0.1485)		(0.2530)		(0.2120)		(0.3362)		(1.0197)		(0.4398)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0055		-0.0160		-0.0078		0.0058	**	-0.0380	+	0.0109	*
	(0.0040)		(0.0105)		(0.0052)		(0.0021)		(0.0197)		(0.0052)	
Income in 10,000s	0.043		0.149	*	0.0252		-0.0025		0.0267	+	0.0484	
	(0.0335)		(0.0752)		(0.0477)		(0.0104)		(0.0148)		(0.0632)	
South	0.7304	*	0.4791		0.8534	+	-0.1927		-2.3483	*	0.1757	
	(0.3145)		(0.4802)		(0.4548)		(0.4734)		(1.0002)		(1.0932)	
Constant	-3.0096		-5.1170	+	-1.4604		-10.746	**	-20.0223		-6.3809	
	(2.3421)		(2.6233)		(4.1644)		(4.1381)		(10.7098)		(6.5749)	
N	318		142		176		318		113		176	
X^2	69.62	***	39.43	+	49.39	*	57.47	**	38.2		56.97	**
df	30		29		29		30		28		29	
Pseudo R^2	0.2207		0.3105		0.3033		0.3304		0.4192		0.5717	

+=p<=.1, *=p<.05, **=p<.01, ***=p<=.001

Robust standard errors in ( )

[a] Only women on spouse/kin teams reported a team member providing personal assistance as the most important assistance, so tie strength and 29 observations were dropped from the analysis.

Table 5.1. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Abandoned Startup Activities

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-0.3236	-0.3221	-	-	-	-
	(0.2911)	(0.2998)				
Age	0.0056	-0.1550	-0.0009	-0.2067 +	0.0071	-0.1248
	(0.0145)	(0.0737)	(0.0235)	(0.1139)	(0.0189)	(0.1076)
African American/Hispanic	-0.4251	-0.5596 +	0.2431	0.3077	-0.7055 +	-0.8928 *
	(0.3192)	(0.3300)	(0.4948)	(0.5420)	(0.4236)	(0.4556)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0226	-0.0216	-0.0405	-0.0347	-0.0227	-0.0099
	(0.0320)	(0.0337)	(0.0444)	(0.0482)	(0.0473)	(0.0553)
Startup Experience	0.0037	0.0594	0.0367	-0.0245	0.03	0.1366
	(0.2663)	(0.2896)	(0.4063)	(0.4219)	(0.3704)	(0.4326)
Occupational SEI	0.0025	0.0075	-0.0005	-0.0002	-0.0003	0.0029
	(0.0055)	(0.0065)	(0.0080)	(0.0090)	(0.0081)	(0.0100)
Female Typed Occupation	0.0539	0.1365	-0.2424	-0.1064	0.3293	0.4268
	(0.3645)	(0.3745)	(0.3875)	(0.4201)	(0.7558)	(0.8759)
Supplemental Status Characteristics						
Age^2		0.0014		0.0025 +		0.0015
		(0.0009)		(0.0013)		(0.0012)
Log of Managerial Experience		0.0452		0.1182		-0.0132
		(0.0498)		(0.0839)		(0.0634)
Financial Education		-0.5636		-0.1352		-1.1449
		(0.5535)		(0.6789)		(0.8889)

Table 5.1, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Abandoned Startup Activities

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Accounting Education		0.1403		0.0003		-0.1773
		(0.3938)		(0.6342)		(0.6057)
Business Education		0.0587		0.0728		0.1192
		(0.1068)		(0.1924)		(0.1401)
Financial Experience		-0.2453		-0.0749		-0.6102
		(0.4352)		(0.6268)		(0.6770)
Accounting Experience		0.0605		0.7943		-0.4103
		(0.4347)		(0.6539)		(0.7217)
Business Experience		-0.0187		-0.1815		0.0836
		(0.0843)		(0.1377)		(0.1242)
Bachelor's Degree		-0.4055		0.0453		-0.2250
		(0.3192)		(0.5639)		(0.4564)
Mail Questionnaire		-0.5387		-0.7155		-0.1729
		(0.4853)		(0.8666)		(0.6803)
Ever Out of Labor Force		0.3228		0.5663		-0.4268
		(0.4262)		(0.6565)		(0.7095)
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force		-0.0988		0.6283		-0.2451
		(0.3554)		(0.7016)		(0.4850)
Controls						
Married	0.7193 *	0.7257 *	0.6331	0.7905	0.9632 *	1.0321 *
	(0.3203)	(0.3258)	(0.5047)	(0.5407)	(0.4541)	(0.4577)
Parent	-0.2735	-0.2018	0.0162	0.0878	-0.6520	-0.6266
	(0.3184)	(0.3457)	(0.5076)	(0.5574)	(0.4351)	(0.5127)
Number of Children under 6	0.1242	0.1279	0.031	-0.1876	0.1873	0.193
	(0.1592)	(0.1694)	(0.2509)	(0.2865)	(0.2036)	(0.2186)

Table 5.1, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Abandoned Startup Activities

	Entire Sample				Women				Men			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
Own Home	-0.1929		-0.0762		-0.0577		-0.3598		-0.0919		0.0166	
	(0.3364)		(0.3461)		(0.4709)		(0.5365)		(0.4691)		(0.5169)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0769	***	-0.0761	***	-0.0907	**	-0.0849	*	-0.0708	*	-0.0725	*
	(0.0227)		(0.0219)		(0.0338)		(0.0338)		(0.0318)		(0.0317)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0306		-0.0374		-0.0321		-0.0624		-0.0265		-0.0339	
	(0.0451)		(0.0493)		(0.0562)		(0.0594)		(0.0609)		(0.0708)	
Home Business	0.1605		0.1943		-0.3555		-0.2860		0.3554		0.3547	
	(0.2817)		(0.2883)		(0.4173)		(0.4429)		(0.3894)		(0.4723)	
High Technology	0.5456		0.5051		-0.8779		-1.2340		0.8823		0.7545	
	(0.4852)		(0.5161)		(0.8210)		(0.8568)		(0.6299)		(0.6976)	
Service/Retail	-0.1731		-0.2373		0.0547		0.0012		-0.3085		-0.4566	
	(0.3455)		(0.3546)		(0.7358)		(0.7524)		(0.4591)		(0.4765)	
Rate	0.0004		0.0355		-0.0151		0.0192		0.0283		0.0897	
	(0.1296)		(0.1332)		(0.2559)		(0.2597)		(0.1762)		(0.1855)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0105	+	-0.0114	*	0.0047		0.0012		-0.0247	*	-0.0250	*
	(0.0058)		(0.0057)		(0.0039)		(0.0042)		(0.0104)		(0.0107)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0171		-0.0068		-0.1378	+	-0.0776		0.0524		0.0506	
	(0.0463)		(0.0345)		(0.0800)		(0.0641)		(0.0514)		(0.0572)	
South	0.0116		-0.0406		-0.6237		-0.6266		0.391		0.3217	
	(0.2901)		(0.3020)		(0.4946)		(0.5578)		(0.3986)		(0.4302)	
Constant	-1.1279		1.177		-0.0052		3.7598		-1.8410		0.4236	
	(1.1139)		(1.7930)		(1.8758)		(2.7818)		(1.5904)		(2.6737)	
N	479		479		240		240		239		239	
X^2	30.02	+	37.92		21.75		34.65		21.05		35.15	
df	20		32		19		31		19		31	
Pseudo R^2	0.0688		0.0936		0.1169		0.1675		0.102		0.1454	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.1, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Operating Business

	Entire Sample		Women			Men		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1		Model 2	Model 1		Model 2
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	0.2129	0.2865	-		-	-		-
	(0.2423)	(0.2649)						
Age	0.0086	-0.0190	-0.0203		-0.1771	0.0296	+	0.1074
	(0.0117)	(0.0681)	(0.0187)		(0.1218)	(0.0161)		(0.0949)
African American/Hispanic	-0.3948	-0.2808	0.4885		0.7268	-0.7625	+	-0.6317
	(0.2561)	'(0.2616)	(0.3733)		(0.4416)	(0.4057)		(0.4017)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0298	0.0414	0.0287		0.064	0.0323		0.0439
	(0.0293)	(0.0301)	(0.0414)		(0.0447)	(0.0441)		(0.0462)
Startup Experience	-0.2753	-0.2993	0.1378		0.083	-0.5209		-0.4669
	(0.2297)	(0.2347)	(0.3239)		(0.3622)	(0.3268)		(0.3359)
Occupational SEI	0.0057	0.0023	0.0132	+	0.0139	0.0014		-0.0016
	(0.0047)	(0.0055)	(0.0071)		(0.0086)	(0.0072)		(0.0085)
Female Typed Occupation	0.0027	-0.0321	0.0446		-0.0311	0.0213		0.0293
	(0.2909)	(0.2981)	(0.3441)		(0.3802)	(0.7143)		(0.7330)
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2		0.0003			0.0019			-0.0009
		(0.0008)			(0.0014)			(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience		-0.0218			-0.0228			-0.0335
		(0.0392)			(0.0631)			(0.0554)
Financial Education		0.4393			1.0369			0.2565
		(0.4206)			(0.6675)			(0.6180)

Table 5.1, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Operating Business

	Entire Sample			Women				Men	
	Model 1	Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1	Model 2
Accounting Education		0.6408	+			0.7147			0.7388
		(0.3706)				(0.4931)			(0.5900)
Business Education		-0.1296				-0.2702	+		-0.1102
		(0.0883)				(0.1419)			(0.1225)
Financial Experience		0.1247				0.1976			-0.0041
		(0.3468)				(0.4511)			(0.5193)
Accounting Experience		-0.5876	+			-1.1093	*		-0.3192
		(0.3334)				(0.463)			(0.5375)
Business Experience		0.0888				0.2159	+		0.0311
		(0.0776)				(0.1215)			(0.1131)
Bachelor's Degree		0.4423				0.2387			0.4543
		(0.2692)				(0.3920)			(0.4112)
Mail Questionnaire		0.4455				0.0874			0.4177
		(0.4007)				(0.6174)			(0.5982)
Ever Out of Labor Force		-0.6657				-0.3384			-0.4713
		(0.3917)				(0.5160)			(0.7676)
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force		0.0489				-0.8526	+		0.362
		(0.2981)				(0.4564)			(0.4270)
Controls									
Married	0.0231	-0.0000		0.513		0.51		-0.4187	-0.4338
	(0.2644)	(0.2775)		(0.3847)		(0.4280)		(0.3879)	(0.4178)
Parent	0.0128	0.0872		-0.6994	+	-0.7185		0.5108	0.5304
	(0.2653)	(0.2902)		(0.3893)		(0.4452)		(0.3815)	(0.4112)
Number of Children under 6	-0.1731	-0.1959		-0.2938		-0.2115		-0.0581	-0.1289
	(0.1778)	(0.1726)		(0.2863)		(0.2999)		(0.2345)	(0.2411)

Table 5.1, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Operating Business

	Entire Sample				Women				Men			
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2	
Own Home	-0.0655		-0.0260		0.0783		0.2986		-0.0040		-0.0194	
	(0.2810)		(0.2945)		(0.3996)		(0.4234)		(0.3982)		(0.4290)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0405		0.0394		0.029		0.0239		0.0524		0.0544	
	(0.0281)		(0.0282)		(0.0386)		(0.0378)		(0.0371)		(0.0381)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.0711		0.0639		0.1184		0.1475		0.056		0.0297	
	(0.0849)		(0.0833)		(0.0874)		(0.0998)		(0.1347)		(0.1255)	
Home Business	-0.4604	*	-0.4129		-0.1834		-0.0591		-0.5080		-0.5095	
	(0.2272)		(0.2352)		(0.3314)		(0.3471)		(0.3284)		(0.3539)	
High Technology	-0.8508	*	-0.8872		-1.5663	*	-1.8921	**	-0.6496		-0.6884	
	(0.4025)		(0.4078)		(0.6539)		(0.7241)		(0.5322)		(0.5378)	
Service/Retail	-0.3345		-0.4605		-1.1952	*	-1.6375	**	0.1269		0.0873	
	(0.2888)		(0.2952)		(0.5306)		(0.5794)		(0.3939)		(0.4008)	
Rate	0.2041	+	0.2374	+	0.2864		0.3857	+	0.305		0.3385	
	(0.1204)		(0.1272)		(0.1909)		(0.2094)		(0.1989)		(0.2084)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0014		0.0013		-0.0047		-0.0034		0.0021	+	0.0022	+
	(0.0010)		(0.0011)		(0.0042)		(0.0040)		(0.0011)		(0.0012)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0024		-0.0035		0.0011		0		0.0178		0.0158	
	(0.0092)		(0.0102)		(0.0088)		(0.0100)		(0.0386)		(0.0478)	
South	0.0003		-0.0191		-0.2264		-0.6200		-0.0151		-0.0333	
	(0.2351)		(0.2436)		(0.3540)		(0.3894)		(0.3308)		(0.3446)	
Constant	-2.4931	*	-2.4798		-1.8141		1.0176		-4.1995	*	-6.2957	*
	(1.1643)		(1.6932)		(1.5522)		(2.6983)		(2.0365)		(2.6532)	
N	479		479		240		240		239		239	
X^2	28.94	+	44.13	+	23.95		39.34		27.53	+	30.9	
df	20		32		19		31		19		31	
Pseudo R^2	0.0605		0.0894		0.1126		0.1882		0.0951		0.118	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.1, Page 7. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Continued Entrepreneurial Activity

	Entire Sample		**Women**		**Men**	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	0.3217	0.3576	-	-	-	-
	(0.2326)	(0.243)				
Age	-0.0037	0.0271	-0.0281	0.0136	0.0072	0.1064
	(0.0115)	(0.0632)	(0.0191)	(0.1053)	(0.0155)	(0.0923)
African American/Hispanic	0.1468	0.2154	0.2319	0.0979	0.116	0.2107
	(0.2494)	(0.2523)	(0.3970)	(0.4541)	(0.3410)	(0.3604)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0517 *	0.0503 +	0.0545	0.075 +	0.0447	0.0237
	(0.0261)	(0.0173)	(0.0373)	(0.0407)	(0.0388)	(0.0436)
Startup Experience	0.3234	0.2954	0.4708	0.5608	0.2677	0.1969
	(0.2179)	(0.2317)	(0.3155)	(0.3541)	(0.3010)	(0.3289)
Occupational SEI	-0.0026	-0.0070	0.0108	0.0102	-0.0093	-0.0134
	(0.0047)	(0.0055)	(0.0068)	(0.0075)	(0.0067)	(0.0083)
Female Typed Occupation	-0.1245	-0.1970	0.2313	0.0853	-0.9054	1.1174 +
	(0.2770)	(0.2810)	(0.3296)	(0.3465)	(0.6236)	(0.6622)
Supplemental Status Characteristics						
Age^2		-0.0003		-0.0005		-0.0012
		(0.0007)		(0.0012)		(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience		-0.0396		-0.0618		-0.0291
		(0.0381)		(0.0688)		(0.0535)
Financial Education		0.3381		0.3695		0.7508
		(0.4109)		(0.6111)		(0.5852)

Table 5.1, Page 8. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Continued Entrepreneurial Activity

	Entire Sample		Women		Men	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Accounting Education		0.0106		-0.0725		0.2592
		(0.3343)		(0.5045)		(0.4986)
Business Education		-0.0043		-0.0129		-0.0797
		(0.0860)		(0.1471)		(0.1236)
Financial Experience		0.3109		0.1464		0.4677
		(0.3428)		(0.4557)		(0.5714)
Accounting Experience		-0.1660		-0.4262		-0.1599
		(0.3378)		(0.4799)		(0.5496)
Business Experience		0.093		0.1451		0.0881
		(0.0740)		(0.1223)		(0.1119)
Bachelor's Degree		0.2419		-0.4258		0.4217
		(0.2528)		(0.3954)		(0.3817)
Mail Questionnaire		0.2334		-0.0380		0.0976
		(0.2528)		(0.5999)		(0.5243)
Ever Out of Labor Force		-0.3024		-0.3758		0.7764
		(0.3596)		(0.5999)		(0.6393)
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force		-0.2025		-1.1906 *		0.0698
		(0.2886)		(0.4674)		(0.4181)
Controls						
Married	-0.2939	-0.3197	-0.1186	-0.2654	-0.5042	-0.5804
	(0.2437)	(0.2543)	(0.3561)	(0.3656)	(0.3411)	(0.3734)
Parent	0.1031	0.1147	-0.2737	-0.3107	0.4614	0.4431
	(0.2530)	(0.2685)	(0.3777)	(0.3961)	(0.3628)	(0.4016)
Number of Children under 6	-0.2075	-0.1882	-0.3465 +	-0.1826	-0.1421	-0.1597
	(0.1516)	(0.1534)	(0.2075)	(0.2342)	(0.2272)	(0.2195)

Table 5.1, Page 9. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 1: Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes. Dependent Variable: Continued Entrepreneurial Activity

	Entire Sample				Women				Men		
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2		Model 1		Model 2
Own Home	0.2511		0.2363		0.4523		0.629		0.1694		0.1402
	(0.2618)		(0.2729)		(0.3883)		(0.4022)		(0.3598)		(0.3870)
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0582	**	0.0554	**	0.0468		0.0411		0.0642	*	0.0667
	(0.0214)		(0.0208)		(0.0321)		(0.0335)		(0.0287)		(0.0291)
Log of Hours Invested	0.1155	+	0.1181	*	0.175		0.1857		0.082		0.0871
	(0.0620)		(0.0568)		(0.1068)		(0.1186)		(0.0804)		(0.0774)
Home Business	-0.3488		-0.3696		0.2377		0.268		-0.5882	+	-0.7171
	(0.2220)		(0.2261)		(0.3383)		(0.3509)		(0.3018)		(0.3319)
High Technology	-0.7139	+	-0.7790	+	-0.3919		-0.3457		-0.6235		-0.6863
	(0.3838)		(0.4031)		(0.6165)		(0.6826)		(0.5072)		(0.5364)
Service/Retail	-0.2187		-0.1684		-0.3622		-0.4495		-0.0771		-0.0452
	(0.2975)		(0.3005)		(0.5469)		(0.5596)		(0.4063)		(0.4144)
Rate	0.1608		0.1467		0.1501		0.2032		0.1988		0.2142
	(0.1089)		(0.1077)		(0.2054)		(0.2045)		(0.1468)		(0.1525)
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0025		0.0025		-0.0037		-0.0032		0.0045		0.0051
	(0.0017)		(0.0018)		(0.0038)		(0041)		(0.0032)		(0.0034)
Income in 10,000s	-0.0018	+	-0.0231	*	-0.0110		-0.0173	+	-0.0123		-0.0175
	(0.0092)		(0.0114)		(0.0087)		(0.0097)		(0.0353)		(0.0413)
South	-0.0728		-0.0655		0.3334		0.2094		-0.3835		-0.3367
	(0.2326)		(0.2444)		(0.3443)		(0.3976)		(0.3236)		(0.3437)
Constant	-0.8568		-1.6084		-1.0172		-1.3053		-0.9245		-3.1252
	(0.9551)		(1.5081)		(1.7239)		(2.3638)		(1.3328)		(2.3352)
N	479		479		240		240		239		239
X^2	40.77	**	55.71	**	33.46		55.86	**	26.45		38.93
df	20		32		19		31		19		31
Pseudo R^2	0.0777		0.1		0.1277		0.1829		0.1		0.1372

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Unique Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.3431		-		-		0.3668	
	(0.3008)						(0.2708)	
Age	-0.1262	+	-0.2302	*	-0.1355		0.0086	
	(0.0753)		(0.1020)		(0.1068)		(0.0720)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.5224		0.3446		-0.8957	*	-0.3286	
	(0.3314)		(0.5447)		(0.4479)		(0.2689)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0242		-0.0495		-0.0086		0.0496	
	(0.0340)		(0.0524)		(0.0564)		(0.0310)	
Startup Experience	0.0668		0.1307		0.0861		-0.2668	
	(0.2988)		(0.4237)		(0.4340)		(0.2436)	
Occupational SEI	0.0065		-0.0032		0.0027		0.0041	
	(0.0065)		(0.0096)		(0.0099)		(0.0056)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.0845		-0.1719		0.4243		-0.0130	
	(0.3702)		(0.4283)		(0.8758)		(0.3117)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	0.0015	+	0.0028	*	0.0016		0	
	(0.0009)		(0.0019)		(0.0012)		(0.0008)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0421		0.1096		-0.0088		-0.0245	
	(0.0492)		(0.0783)		(0.0629)		(0.0423)	
Financial Education	-0.5391		-0.4281		-1.1345		0.3957	
	(0.5610)		(0.7100)		(0.8776)		(0.4494)	
Accounting Education	0.1007		-0.0984		-0.2427		0.7529	*
	(0.3985)		(0.6778)		(0.6127)		(0.3750)	
Business Education	0.0423		0.1294		0.1089		-0.1228	
	(0.1087)		(0.1937)		(0.1420)		(0.0917)	
Financial Experience	-0.2639		-0.0357		-0.7171		0.1354	
	(0.4424)		(0.6799)		(0.6942)		(0.3623)	
Accounting Experience	0.1044		0.9234		-0.3573		-0.7207	*
	(0.4365)		(0.6576)		(0.7309)		(0.3550)	
Business Experience	-0.0140		-0.1591		0.0907		0.0899	
	(0.0835)		(0.1443)		(0.1236)		(0.0799)	
Bachelor's Degree	-0.4075		-0.0170		-0.1793		0.4719	+
	(0.3188)		(0.5183)		(0.4704)		(0.2720)	
Mail Questionnaire	-0.6544		-0.7451		-0.2657		0.7349	+
	(0.5043)		(1.0330)		(0.6836)		(0.3886)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.3823		0.7304		-0.3144		-0.7933	*
	(0.4363)		(0.6875)		(0.7267)		(0.3886)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.1517		0.469		-0.2922		0.166	
	(0.3665)		(0.7249)		(0.4985)		(0.3062)	

Table 5.2, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Unique Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	0.2729		0.935	*	0.0878		-0.3454	+
	(0.2006)		(0.3987)		(0.2650)		(0.1885)	
Unique Assistance Types	-0.1539	*	-0.3148	**	-0.1133		0.2349	***
	(0.0735)		(0.1215)		(0.1034)		(0.640)	
Controls								
Married	0.836	*	0.8518		1.111	*	-0.2679	
	(0.3305)		(0.5767)		(0.4479)		(0.3037)	
Parent	-0.1909		0.3493		-0.6348		0.0291	
	(0.3455)		(0.5028)		(0.5165)		(0.2975)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1163		-0.2145		0.1741		-0.1480	
	(0.1692)		(0.2941)		(0.2201)		(0.1735)	
Own Home	-0.0218		-0.3032		0.116		-0.1390	
	(0.3407)		(0.5683)		(0.4925)		(0.3025)	
Log of DollarsInvested	-0.0728		-0.0790	*	-0.0649	*	0.0335	
	(0.0220)		(0.0372)		(0.0314)		(0.0284)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0281		-0.0427		-0.0249		0.0582	
	(0.0489)		(0.636)		(0.0700)		(0.0917)	
Home Business	0.186		-0.3307		0.2644		-0.3884	
	(0.2871)		(0.4592)		(0.4532)		(0.2457)	
High Technology	0.416		-1.4206		0.7086		-0.7969	
	(0.5128)		(0.9289)		(0.6797)		(0.4335)	
Service/Retail	-0.2007		0.2495		-0.4064		-0.5250	
	(0.3674)		(0.9214)		(0.4933)		(0.3218)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0158		-0.0013		0.0703		0.2766	*
	(0.1359)		(0.2935)		(0.1900		(0.1253)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0123	*	0.0021		-0.0265	*	0.002	
	(0.0059)		(0.0040)		(0.0109)		(0.0012)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0035		-0.1076	+	0.0569		-0.0065	
	(0.0330)		(0.0635)		(0.0568)		(0.0099)	
South	-0.0211		-0.5768		0.3507		-0.0667	
	(0.3072)		(0.5561)		(0.4366)		(0.2516)	
Constant	1.4982		2.9813		0.9037		-3.4849	+
	(1.8480)		(2.5602)		(2.7409)		(1.8258)	
N	479		240		239		479	
X^2	41.76		44.7	+	37.37		68.5	***
df	34		33		33		34	
Pseudo R^2	0.1052		0.2076		0.1529		0.1194	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.2, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Unique Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating		
	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Respondent Characteristics					
Female	-	-	0.3892	-	-
			(0.2439)		
Age	-0.1723	0.1636	.0375)	0.0256	0.1181
	(0.1135)	(0.1004)	(0.0658)	(0.1036)	(0.0923)
African American/Hispanic	0.7102	-0.6896	0.1872	0.0519	0.2326
	(0.4404)	(0.4272)	(0.2647)	(0.4649)	(0.3749)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0783 +	0.0389	0.0528 +	0.085 *	0.0207
	(0.0464)	(0.0468)	(0.0276)	(0.0421)	(0.0446)
Startup Experience	0.0871	-0.4341	0.314	0.5337	0.273
	(0.3753)	(0.3451)	(0.236)	(0.3493)	(0.3339)
Occupational SEI	0.0141	-0.0007	-0.0062	0.01	-0.0139
	(0.0090)	(0.0087)	(0.0055)	(0.0078)	(0.0085)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0539	0.1407	-0.1748	0.1064	-1.1547 +
	(0.3790)	(0.7906)	(0.2789)	(0.1710)	(0.6734)
Supplemental Status Characteristics					
Age^2	0.0019	-0.0014	-0.0005	-0.0006	-0.0013
	(0.0013)	(0.0011)	(0.0008)	(0.0012)	(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0085	-0.0539	-0.0411	-0.0538	-0.0384
	(0.0648)	(0.0611)	(0.0381)	(0.0687)	(0.0548)
Financial Education	1.1038	0.1253	0.3239	0.5042	0.7721
	(0.7063)	(0.6665)	(0.4114)	(0.6108)	(0.5759)
Accounting Education	0.8642 +	0.9125	0.0511	-0.0036	0.3331
	(0.4982)	(0.6034)	(0.3314)	(0.5132)	(0.4959)
Business Education	-0.2865 *	-0.1116	0.0048	-0.0306	-0.0843
	(0.1406)	(0.1287)	(0.0864)	(0.1441)	(0.1242)
Financial Experience	0.1758	0.1432	0.3143	0.166	0.5547
	(0.4664)	(0.5384)	(0.3470)	(0.4626)	(0.5869)
Accounting Experience	-1.2067 *	-0.4702	-0.2030	-0.4899	-0.2214
	(0.5090)	(0.5565)	(0.3669)	(0.4807)	(0.5472)
Business Experience	0.1885	0.0583	0.0879	0.1168	0.0862
	(0.1260)	(0.1134)	(0.0744)	(0.1151)	(0.1221)
Bachelor's Degree	0.401	0.4248	0.2391	-0.3328	0.367
	(0.4098)	(0.4156)	(0.2525)	(0.3872)	(0.3835)
Mail Questionnaire	0.2964	0.7456	0.3515	0.0214	0.2281
	(0.6617)	(0.6134)	(0.3867)	(0.6581)	(0.5405)
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.4376	-0.8887	-0.3818	-0.5033	0.6095
	(0.5217)	(0.7484)	(0.3618)	(0.4642)	(0.6595)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.6924	0.55	-0.1477	-1.0867 *	0.1558
	(0.4725)	(0.4414)	(0.2943)	(0.4832)	(0.4237)

Table 5.2, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Unique Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	-0.6952	+	-0.3093		-0.1915		-0.7205	*	0.0286	
	(0.4080)		(0.2447)		(0.1752)		(0.3429)		(0.2127)	
Unique Assistance Types	0.2719	*	0.2694	**	0.1243	*	0.2246	*	0.0844	
	(0.1160)		(0.0937)		(0.0600)		(0.1024)		(0.0800)	
Controls										
Married	0.2799		-0.7750	+	-0.4325	+	-0.3581		-0.6745	+
	(0.4773)		(0.4670)		(0.2599)		(0.4003)		(0.3679)	
Parent	-0.7676	+	0.4379		0.0967		-0.4733		0.423	
	(0.4603)		(0.4541)		(0.2694)		(0.3956)		(0.4042)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.2690		-0.0409		-0.1706		-0.1735		-0.1281	
	(0.2902)		(0.2665)		(0.1588)		(0.2336)		(0.2392)	
Own Home	0.2073		-0.1952		0.19		0.5921		0.0724	
	(0.4568)		(0.4460)		(0.2743)		(0.4332)		(0.3848)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0207		0.04		0.0539	*	0.0343		0.0602	*
	(0.0416)		(0.0384)		(0.0211)		(0.0354)		(0.0292)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1567		0.018		0.1121	+	0.1826		0.0819	
	(0.1066)		(0.1299)		(0.0585)		(0.1283)		(0.0786)	
Home Business	-0.1098		-0.5186		-0.3604		0.2327		-0.6223	+
	(0.3619)		(0.3749)		(0.2306)		(0.3585)		(0.3420)	
High Technology	-1.9562	**	-0.5536		-0.7508	+	-0.3127		-0.7285	
	(0.7485)		(0.5972)		(0.4084)		(0.7225)		(0.5499)	
Service/Retail	-1.8279	***	0.0218		-0.1931		-0.5844		-0.0786	
	(0.5607)		(0.4417)		(0.3092)		(0.6011)		(0.4369)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.415	*	0.4114	*	0.1688		0.2333		0.2443	
	(0.2070)		(0.1964)		(0.1085)		(0.2104)		(0.1573)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0034		0.0029	*	0.0029		-0.0033		0.0052	
	(0.0046)		(0.0014)		(0.0019)		(0.0047)		(0.0033)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0003		0.01		-0.0257		-0.0180	+	-0.0197	
	(0.0098)		(0.0424)		(0.0119)		(0.0099)		(0.0396)	
South	-0.6570	+	-0.1177		-0.0845		0.1705		-0.3463	
	(0.3963)		(0.3606)		(0.2479)		(0.4131)		(0.3471)	
Constant	1.4152		-8.2331		-2.0011		-0.6634		-3.8894	
	(2.7215)		(2.7383)		(1.5897)		(2.4186)		(2.3931)	
N	240		239		479		240		239	
X^2	46.62	+	46.99	+	58.16	**	55.7	**	44.12	+
df	33		33		34		33		33	
Pseudo R^2	0.2171		0.1557		0.1086		0.2058		0.1451	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Average Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned			**Operating**
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample
Respondent Characteristics				
Female	-0.3269	-	-	0.3505
	(0.3002)			(0.2707)
Age	-0.1355	-0.2348 *	-0.1435	0.0185
	(0.0754)	(0.1012)	(0.1066)	(0.0714)
African American/Hispanic	-0.5207	0.3296	-0.8887 *	-0.3231
	(0.3297)	(0.5483)	(0.4453)	(0.2708)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0231	-0.0507	-0.0071	0.0468
	(0.0377)	(0.0529)	(0.0557)	(0.0308)
Startup Experience	0.0678	0.0726	0.0943	-0.2720
	(0.2996)	(0.4235)	(0.4370)	(0.2432)
Occupational SEI	0.0066	-0.0030	0.0029	0.0035
	(0.0064)	(0.0098)	(0.0099)	(0.0056)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.1092	-0.1617	0.4636	-0.0443
	(0.3754)	(0.4340)	(0.8791)	(0.3091)
Supplemental Status Characteristics				
Age^2	0.0016	0.0028	0.0017	-0.0001
	(0.0009)	(0.0012)	(0.0012)	(0.0008)
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0393	0.1144	-0.0143	-0.0209
	(0.0493)	(0.0800)	(0.0631)	(0.0425)
Financial Education	-0.5566	-0.3459	-1.1768	0.4111
	(0.5599)	(0.7126)	(0.8730)	(0.4474)
Accounting Education	0.0963	-0.0329	-0.2694	0.7812 *
	(0.3978)	(0.6742)	(0.6165)	(0.3745)
Business Education	0.0488	0.1048	0.1193	-0.1339
	(0.1072)	(0.1932)	(0.1405)	(0.0908)
Financial Experience	-0.2773	-0.0388	-0.7408	0.1345
	(0.4385)	(0.6786)	(0.6862)	(0.3588)
Accounting Experience	0.1013	0.7918	-0.3273	-0.7189 *
	(0.4360)	(0.6478)	(0.7263)	(0.3516)
Business Experience	0.0488	-0.1481	0.0909	0.0895
	(0.1072)	(0.1436)	(0.1231)	(0.0797)
Bachelor's Degree	-0.4011	-0.0012	-0.1703	0.4681 +
	(0.3183)	(0.5137)	(0.4694)	(0.2727)
Mail Questionnaire	-0.6560	-0.7658	-0.2523	0.7128 +
	(0.5034)	(1.0520)	(0.6778)	(0.4121)
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.4042	0.7693	-0.3093	-0.8074 *
	(0.4366)	(0.7059)	(0.7236)	(0.3935)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.1612	0.4345	-0.2966	0.1677
	(0.3656)	(0.7312)	(0.4989)	(0.3040)

Table 5.3, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Average Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	0.2132		0.7838	*	0.0567		0.1961	
	(0.1743)		(0.3382)		(0.2340)		(0.1635)	
Average Number of Assistance Types	-0.1920	*	-0.3436	*	-0.1512		0.2509	***
	(0.0843)		(0.1395)		(0.1244)		(0.0732)	
Controls								
Married	0.8507	*	0.8477		1.1357	*	-0.2533	
	(0.3306)		(0.5845)		(0.4517)		(0.3015)	
Parent	-0.2074		0.309		-0.6626		0.0654	
	(0.3494)		(0.5046)		(0.5220)		(0.2953)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1142		-0.1935		0.1696		-0.1523	
	(0.1704)		(0.2937)		(0.2207)		(0.1714)	
Own Home	-0.0207		-0.3194		0.1314		-0.1286	
	(0.3417)		(0.5780)		(0.4975)		(0.3009)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0727	***	-0.0776	*	-0.0636	*	0.0352	
	(0.0218)		(0.0369)		(0.0313)		(0.0283)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.270		-0.0397		-0.0237		0.0563	
	(0.0492)		(0.0640)		(0.0701)		(0.0904)	
Home Business	0.2074		-0.2955		0.2833		-0.3996	
	(0.2866)		(0.4656)		(0.4489)		(0.2457)	
High Technology	0.4195		-1.4860		0.7064		-0.8125	
	(0.5128)		(0.9492)		(0.6717)		(0.4311)	
Service/Retail	-0.1668		0.3777		-0.3826		-0.5569	
	(0.3667)		(0.9682)		(0.4876)		(0.3198)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0198		-0.0326		0.0778		0.2767	
	(0.1358)		(0.3028)		(0.1901)		(0.1249)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0119	*	0.0024		-0.0258		0.002	
	(0.0057)		(0.0039)		(0.0108)		(0.0013)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0045		-0.1042	+	0.0559		-0.0067	
	(0.0348)		(0.0615)		(0.0567)		(0.0100)	
South	-0.0201		-0.6025		0.3632		-0.0490	
	(0.3061)		(0.5525)		(0.4340)		(0.2513)	
Constant	1.6585		3.489		0.9615		-3.7587	
	(1.8566)		(2.5702)		(2.7651)		(1.8040)	
N	479		240		239		479	
X^2	42.16		44.92	+	36.66		65.54	***
df	34		33		33		34	
Pseudo R^2	0.1067		0.208		0.1542		0.1163	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.3,Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Average Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating		
	Women	Men	Entire Sample	Women	Men
Respondent Characteristics					
Female	-	-	0.3891	-	-
			(0.2442)		
Age	-0.1678	0.184 +	0.0474	0.0306	0.1303
	(0.1110)	(0.1012)	(0.0658)	(0.1027)	(0.0929)
African American/Hispanic	0.6828	-0.6856	0.186	0.0555	0.228
	(0.4415)	(0.4348)	(0.2640)	(0.4623)	(0.3746)
Log of Industry Experience	0.0777	0.0325	0.0522 +	0.0861 *	0.0182
	(0.0457)	(0.0464)	(0.0276)	(0.0421)	(0.0445)
Startup Experience	0.1112	-0.4630	0.3146	0.5715	0.2595
	(0.3570)	(0.3411)	(0.2368)	(0.3496)	(0.3363)
Occupational SEI	0.0137	-0.0017	-0.0063	0.0098	-0.0141
	(0.0089)	(0.0087)	(0.0055)	(0.0078)	(0.0086)
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0766	0.0781	-0.1944	0.0909	-1.1682 +
	(0.3792)	(0.7810)	(0.2799)	(0.3474)	(0.6738)
Supplemental Status Characteristics					
Age^2	0.0018	-0.0017	-0.0006	-0.0007	-0.0015
	(0.0013)	(0.0011)	(0.0008)	(0.0012)	(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0090	-0.0465	-0.0398	-0.0546	-0.0371
	(0.0649)	(0.0618)	(0.0380)	(0.0689)	(0.0545)
Financial Education	1.0628	0.1732	0.3324	0.4737	0.7793
	(0.7217)	(0.6566)	(0.4125)	(0.6070)	(0.5727)
Accounting Education	0.8485 +	0.9814	0.0686	-0.0364	0.3834
	(0.5017)	(0.5914)	(0.3316)	(0.5128)	(0.4960)
Business Education	-0.2752 *	-0.1349	-0.0002	-0.0213	-0.0905
	(0.1393)	(0.1266)	(0.0858)	(0.1445)	(0.1227)
Financial Experience	0.1714	0.182	0.3216	0.1599	0.6054
	(0.4648)	(0.5365)	(0.3464)	(0.4656)	(0.5875)
Accounting Experience	-1.1353 *	-0.5755	-0.2099	-0.4274	0.3834
	(0.5049)	(0.5560)	(0.3371)	(0.4783)	(0.4960)
Business Experience	0.1873	0.0671	0.0874	0.1133	0.0902
	(0.1261)	(0.1141)	(0.0746)	(0.1149)	(0.1132)
Bachelor's Degree	0.3659	0.4498	0.2409	-0.3465	0.3749
	(0.4078)	(0.4195)	(0.2537)	(0.3881)	(0.3863)
Mail Questionnaire	0.3181	0.6983	0.3648	0.064	0.2356
	(0.6527)	(0.6125)	(0.3869)	(0.6684)	(0.5371)
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.4626	-0.8527	-0.4048	-0.5263	0.5804
	(0.5226)	(0.7616)	(0.3626)	(0.4705)	(0.6599)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.7023	0.5399	-0.1368	-1.0886	0.1679
	(0.4707)	(0.4410)	(0.2942)	(0.4864)	(0.4253)

Table 5.3, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 3: Average Contributions and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	-0.5032		-0.1747		0.1598		-0.6000	*	-0.0006	
	(0.3583)		(0.2129)		(0.1513)		(0.2960)		(0.1909)	
Average Number of Assistance Types	0.283	*	0.3129	**	0.1685	*	0.2614	*	0.1553	+
	(0.1305)		(0.1117)		(0.0672)		(0.1117)		(0.0938)	
Controls										
Married	0.3115		-0.7802		-0.4489	+	-0.3673		-0.7085	+
	(0.4682)		(0.4627)		(0.2593)		(0.3955)		(0.3728)	
Parent	-0.7622		0.4908		0.1096		-0.4696		0.4474	
	(0.4571)		(0.4469)		(0.2704)		(0.3941)		(0.4096)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.2648	+	-0.0310		-0.1701		-0.1784		-0.1193	
	(0.2876)		(0.2639)		(0.1597)		(0.2340)		(0.2470)	
Own Home	0.2095		-0.2043		0.1808		0.5953		0.0438	
	(0.4556)		(0.4415)		(0.2762)		(0.4358)		(0.3898)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0203		0.0406		0.0539	**	0.0349		0.0581	*
	(0.0412)		(0.0385)		(0.0201)		(0.0354)		(0.0291)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1508		0.0185		0.1112	+	0.1777		0.0813	
	(0.1055)		(0.1310)		(0.0587)		(0.1283)		(0.0789)	
Home Business	-0.1284		-0.5446		-0.3730		0.2179		-0.6454	+
	(0.3643)		().3775)		(0.2319)		(0.3567)		(0.3428)	
High Technology	-1.9336	**	-0.5723		-0.7450	+	-0.2945		-0.6898	
	(0.7457)		(0.5962)		(0.4071)		(0.7259)		(0.5454)	
Service/Retail	-1.8836	***	0.0026		-0.2206		-0.6713		-0.1138	
	(0.5690)		(0.4445)		(0.3098)		(0.6197)		(0.4404)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.4298	*	0.4066		0.1721		0.2568		0.2535	
	(0.2106)		(0.1936)		(0.1085)		(0.2153)		(0.1573)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0037		0.003		0.0031		-0.0034		0.0055	+
	(0.0047)		(0.0015)		(0.0020)		(0.0047)		(0.0032)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0082		0.0104		-0.0265	*	-0.0188		-0.0218	
	(0.0099)		(0.0420)		(0.0120)		(0.0099)		(0.0389)	
South	-0.5970		-0.1200		-0.0886		0.2017		-0.3762	
	(0.3919)		(0.3586)		(0.2485)		(0.4140)		(0.3490)	
Constant	1.0677		-8.6248	***	-2.2315		-1.0191		-4.1510	+
	(2.6713)		(2.6940)		(1.5854)		(2.4182)		(2.3969)	
N	240		239		479		240		239	
X^2	45.33	+	48.75	*	59.19	**	56.07	**	45.14	+
df	33		33		34		33		33	
Pseudo R^2	0.2145		0.1546		0.1118		0.2089		0.1499	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						**Operating**	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	0.044		-		-		0.007	
	(0..432)						(0.445)	
Age	-0.164	+	-0.280	*	--0.133		-0.027	
	(0.085)		(0.115)		(0.128)		(0.079)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.900		0.761		-1.064		0.149	
	(0.873)		(1.820)		(0.910)		(0.780)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.199	**	0.187		0.257	*	-0.128	*
	(0.072)		(0.116)		(0.123)		(0.065)	
Startup Experience	0.409		1.1506		0.735		-0.919	+
	(0.644)		(1.047)		(0.993)		(0.528)	
Occupational SEI	0.024	+	-0.009		0.031		-0.004	
	(0.013)		(0.023)		(0.022)		(0.013)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.449		0.427		1.217		-0.340	
	(0.430)		(0.484)		(1.042)		(0.324)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	0.002	+	0.002	*	0.001		0	
	(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.045		0.139	+	-0.026		-0.019	
	(0.052)		(0.076)		(0.071)		(0.039)	
Financial Education	-0.486		-0.433		-1.041	+	0.515	
	(0.552)		(0.751)		(0.858)		(0.432)	
Accounting Education	0.125		-0.057		-0.328		0.692	+
	(0.406)		(0.749)		(0.602)		(0.380)	
Business Education	0.073		0.215		0.131		-0.157	+
	(0.105)		(0.212)		(0.141)		(0.091)	
Financial Experience	-0.493		-0.318		-1.147		0.141	
	(0.428)		(0.623)		(0.648)		(0.358)	
Accounting Experience	0.095		0.667		-0.156		-0.587	+
	(0.429)		(0.666)		(0.669)		(0.343)	
Business Experience	0.016		-0.088		0.116		0.067	
	(0.089)		(0.157)		(0.133)		(0.078)	
Bachelor's Degree	-0.457		-0.231		-0.421		0.474	
	(0.316)		(0.452)		(0.471)		(0.290)	
Mail Questionnaire	-0.666		-0.242		-0.261		0.616	
	(0.508)		(0.950)		(0.725)		(0.401)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.586		0.703		0.203		-0.824	*
	(0.433)		(0.668)		(0.745)		(0.392)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.264		0.526		-0.343		0.226	
	(0.381)		(0.751)		(0.535)		(0.302)	

Table 5.4, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	-0.031		0.815	*	-0.070		0.101	
	(0.148)		(0.345)		(0.203)		(0.123)	
Proportion Black/Hispanic	0.436	*	-0.584		0.203		-0.538	
	(0.941)		(1.884)		(1.001)		(0.846)	
Proportion Female	-0.443		3.19	*	-1.986	*	0.145	
	(0.550)		(1.294)		(1.010)		(0.525)	
Average Occupational SEI	-0.020		-0.003		-0.032		0.008	
	(0.014)		(0.027)		(0.021)		(0.014)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	-0.333		-1.260		-0.713		0.736	
	(0.736)		(1.168)		(1.065)		-0.586	
Average Age	0.036		0.072		0.024		0.025	
	(0.038)		(0.067)		(0.062)		(0.035)	
Average Industry Experience	-0.315	***	-0.345	**	-0.391	**	0.249	**
	(0.086)		(0.135)		(0.147)		(0.080)	
Proportion with Female-Typed Ocupation	-0.696		-1.221	+	-1.161		0.678	+
	(0.498)		(0.727)		(0.896)		(0.396)	

Table 5.4, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Controls								
Married	0.805	*	1.124	+	1.447	**	-0.143	
	(0.340)		(0.625)		(0.494)		(0.282)	
Parent	-0.151		-0.042		-0.717		0.118	
	(0.352)		(0.618)		(0.527)		(0.300)	
Number of Children under 6	0.102		-0.276		0.176		-0.170	
	(0.186)		(0.326)		(0.233)		(0.184)	
Own Home	0.016		-0.592		0.417		-0.024	
	(0.365)		(0.616)		(0.533)		(0.297)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.086	***	-0.094	**	-0.071	*	0.054	+
	(0.024)		(0.036)		(0.034)		(0.030)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.038		-0.092		-0.044		0.053	
	(0.052)		(0.067)		(0.075)		(0.088)	
Home Business	0.132		-0.652		0.175		-0.320	
	(0.289)		(0.444)		(0.462)		(0.247)	
High Technology	0.45		-1.650	*	0.729		-0.985	*
	(0.531)		(0.826)		(0.701)		(0.429)	
Service/Retail	-0.413		0.099		-0.734		-0.327	
	(0.383)		(0.883)		(0.538)		(0.297)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.078		0.074		0.118		0.21	
	(0.137)		(0.296)		(0.198)		(0.131)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.012	*	0.003		-0.033	**	0.002	
	(0.006)		(0.005)		(0.012)		(0.002)	
Income in 10,000s	0.001		-0.067		0.095		-0.004	
	(0.016)		(0.070)		(0.061)		(0.013)	
South	-0.180		-0.562		0.176		0.072	
	(0.314)		(0.493)		(0.481)		(0.250)	
Constant	1.655		-0.074		0.433		-3.462	+
	(1.985)		(3.152)		(3.105)		(1.855)	
N	477		240		237		477	
X^2	53.73	+	49.21		48.56		61.56	*
df	40		39		39		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.1355		0.2424		0.2141		0.1213	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.4, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				**Active or Operating**					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics										
Female	-		-		0.059		-		-	
					(0.391)					
Age	-0.240		0.109		0.039		0.024		0.127	
	(0.136)		(0.112)		(0.072)		(0.124)		(0.107)	
African American/Hispanic	0.053		0.208		0.389		0.913		-0.201	
	(2.291)		(1.026)		(0.821)		(1.187)		(0.938)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.112		-0.204		-0.151	*	-0.195		-0.168	+
	(0.089)		(0.098)		(0.060)		(0.094)		(0.099)	
Startup Experience	-1.060		-1.260	+	0.241		-0.586		0.076	
	(1.060)		(0.755)		(0.479)		(1.110)		(0.677)	
Occupational SEI	0.017		-0.026		-0.190	+	0.009		-0.041	*
	(0.023)		(0.018)		(0.011)		(0.019)		(0.017)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.456		-0.600		-0.616	+	-0.350		-2.316	**
	(0.446)		(0.748)		(0.336)		(0.430)		(0.815)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics										
Age^2	0.002		-0.001		-0.000		-0.000		-0.001	
	(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.018		-0.032		-0.040		-0.069		-0.025	
	(0.063)		(0.059)		(0.039)		(0.069)		(0.060)	
Financial Education	1.426	*	0.301		0.281		0.77		0.699	
	(0.658)		(0.670)		(0.422)		(0.651)		(0.598)	
Accounting Education	0.556		1.006		0.064		-0.104		0.425	
	(0.513)		(0.643)		(0.346)		(0.529)		(0.535)	
Business Education	-0.305	*	-0.191		-0.023		-0.110		-0.145	
	(0.142)		(0.136)		(0.087)		(0.160)		(0.126)	
Financial Experience	0.154		0.205		0.44		0.359		0.746	
	(0.464)		(0.540)		(0.333)		(0.478)		(0.536)	
Accounting Experience	-1.071	*	-0.506		-0.170		-0.150		-0.464	
	(0.512)		(0.561)		(0.338)		(0.535)		(0.531)	
Business Experience	0.153		0.052		0.074		0.033		0.14	
	(0.128)		(0.112)		(0.080)		(0.115)		(0.123)	
Bachelor's Degree	0.277		0.662		0.247		-0.313		0.516	
	(0.436)		(0.463)		(0.259)		(0.402)		(0.394)	
Mail Questionnaire	0.201		0.582		0.361		-0.344		0.33	
	(0.656)		(0.625)		(0.402)		(0.668)		(0.594)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.341		-1.206		-0.513		-0.514		0.358	
	(0.520)		(0.779)		(0.369)		(0.487)		(0.702)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.843		0.651		-0.073		-1.112	*	0.229	
	(0.515)		(0.434)		(0.311)		(0.535)		(0.487)	

Table 5.4, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				**Active or Operating**					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	-0.404		0.185		0.086		-0.703		0.296	
	(0.274)		(0.180)		(0.118)		(0.260)		(0.180)	
Proportion Black/Hispanic	0.845		-1.233		-0.227		-0.657		0.518	
	(2.228)		(1.178)		(0.871)		(1.133)		(1.009)	
Proportion Female	-1.437		0.739		0.277		-2.484	*	0.153	
	(1.185)		(0.916)		(0.491)		(1.092)		(0.799)	
Average Occupational SEI	0.005		0.026		0.017		0.012		0.032	+
	(0.027)		(0.019)		(0.012)		(0.023)		(.017)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	1.353		1.086		-0.005		1.275		0.109	
	(1.102)		(0.894)		(0.542)		(1.192)		(0.784)	
Average Age	0.06		0.031		0		-0.012		0.006	
	(0.065)		(0.046)		(0.032)		(0.058)		(0.046)	
Average Industry Experience	0.295	**	0.351	**	0.292	***	0.414	***	0.28	*
	(0.110)		(0.123)		(0.074)		(0.114)		(0.121)	
Proportion with Female-Typed Ocupation	0.839		1.116		0.903	*	1.133	+	1.717	*
	(0.581)		(0.731)		(0.394)		(0.648)		(0.711)	

Table 5.4, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5a: Average Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls										
Married	0.463		1.021	*	-0.383		-0.470		-0.810	*
	(0.454)		(0.471)		(0.267)		(0.416)		(0.390)	
Parent	-0.818	+	0.795		0.019		-0.408		0.332	
	(0.462)		(0.500)		(0.276)		(0.424)		(0.430)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.178		-0.116		-0.146		-0.110		-0.070	
	(0.308)		(0.302)		(0.158)		(0.255)		(0.232)	
Own Home	(0.433)		-0.154		0.21		0.872	+	-0.042	
	(0.436)		(0.454)		(0.290)		(0.459)		(0.430)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.032		0.058		0.065	**	0.068	+	0.069	*
	(0.046)		(0.040)		(0.022)		(0.039)		(0.030)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.156		0.021		0.12	*	0.198		0.115	
	(0.108)		(0.149)		(0.061)		(0.146)		(0.082)	
Home Business	0.076		-0.381		-0.276		0.545		-0.562	
	(0.382)		(0.420)		(0.240)		(0.396)		(0.380)	
High Technology	-2.097	*	-0.949		-0.934	*	-0.200		-1.100	+
	(0.850)		(0.614)		(0.412)		(0.811)		(0.593)	
Service/Retail	-1.768	**	0.32		0.01		-0.527		0.204	
	(0.579)		(0.429)		(0.315)		(0.609)		(0.460)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.324		0.364		0.124		0.168		0.225	
	(0.222)		(0.233)		(0.111)		(0.219)		(0.169)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.005		0.004		0.003		-0.006		0.008	*
	(0.004)		(0.003)		(0.002)		(0.005)		(0.003)	
Income in 10,000s	0.004		0.006		-0.035		-0.016		-0.042	
	(0.011)		(0.056)		(0.026)		(0.011)		(0.041)	
South	-0.666		0.195		0.038		0.12		-0.221	
	(0.423)		(0.364)		(0.253)		(0.415)		(0.379)	
Constant	2.354		-8.329		-2.461		1.391		-5.094	+
	(3.206)		(3.034)		(1.626)		(2.734)		(2.747)	
N	240		237		477		240		237	
X^2	51.85	+	43.13		69.19	**	73.23	***	48.73	
df	39		39		40		39		39	
Pseudo R^2	0.2349		0.1827		0.1376		0.2645		0.1922	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.172		-		-		0.117	
	(0.455)						(0.372)	
Age	-0.114	+	-0.299	**	-0.180		-0.050	
	(0.078)		(0.106)		(0.126)		(0.072)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.903		1.028		-1.268	+	0.088	
	(0.602)		(1.453)		(0.712)		(0.449)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.107		0.13		0.214		-0.044	
	(0.071)		(0.082)		(0.176)		(0.050)	
Startup Experience	0.266		1.344	+	-0.012		-0.317	
	(0.542)		(0.791)		(0.732)		(0.378)	
Occupational SEI	0.019		-0.005		0.041	+	-0.005	
	(0.013)		(0.015)		(0.022)		(0.011)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.12		-0.348		1.008		0.054	
	(0.393)		(0.434)		(0.946)		(0.316)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	0.001		0.003	*	0.002		0	
	(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.04		0.105		-0.030		-0.016	
	(0.050)		(0.071)		(0.067)		(0.042)	
Financial Education	-0.593		-0.568		-1.341		0.707	
	(0.571)		(0.796)		(1.004)		(0.449)	
Accounting Education	0.095		-0.007		-0.381		0.64	+
	(0.413)		(0.743)		(0.628)		(0.378)	
Business Education	0.086		0.126		0.211		-0.153	+
	(0.111)		(0.200)		(0.158)		(0.091)	
Financial Experience	-0.493		-0.446		-1.230	+	0.11	
	(0.445)		(0.723)		(0.732)		(0.355)	
Accounting Experience	0.063		0.621		-0.270		-0.552	
	(0.500)		(0.666)		(0.682)		(0.341)	
Business Experience	0.011		-0.040		0.1		0.058	
	(0.092)		(0.153)		(0.131)		(0.078)	
Bachelor's Degree	-0.515		-0.134		-0.406		0.535	+
	(0.316)		(0.478)		(0.454)		(0.288)	
Mail Questionnaire	-0.532		0.019		-0.143		0.545	
	(0.513)		(0.988)		(0.701)		(0.403)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.412		0.486		0.034		-0.717	+
	(0.429)		(0.672)		(0.728)		(0.388)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.148		0.729		-0.349		0.146	
	(0.386)		(0.766)		(0.539)		(0.306)	

Table 5.5, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	0.007		0.777	*	-0.262		-0.252	
	(0.192)		(0.357)		(0.237)		(0.206)	
Any Caucasian	-0.474		0.696		-0.451		0.519	
	(0.620)		(1.456)		(0.727)		(0.486)	
Any Male	0.026		-0.041		-		-0.202	
	(0.502)		(0.743)				(0.433)	
Maximum Occupational SEI	-0.011		0.001		-0.031		0.011	
	(0.014)		(0.016)		(0.023)		(0.012)	
Any with Startup Experience	-0.250		-1.407	+	0.115		0.148	
	(0.537)		(0.730)		(0.704)		(0.367)	
Maximum Age	0.039		0.065		0.052	+	0.032	
	(0.025)		(0.048)		(0.028)		(0.021)	
Maximum Industry Experience	-0.180	*	-0.276	**	-0.284		0.136	*
	(0.081)		(0.096)		(0.200)		(0.062)	
Any Male-Typed Occupation	0.073		-1.151		0.68		0.563	
	(0.344)		(0.840)		(0.458)		(0.346)	

Table 5.5, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Controls								
Married	0.846	*	0.85		1.155	**	-0.175	
	(0.332)		(0.611)		(0.446)		(0.289)	
Parent	-0.164		0.407		-0.551		0.095	
	(0.350)		(0.548)		(0.514)		(0.298)	
Number of Children under 6	0.119		-0.331		0.143		-0.176	
	(0.176)		(0.362)		(0.229)		(0.180)	
Own Home	0.024		-0.469		0.366		-0.060	
	(0.356)		(0.547)		(0.514)		(0.300)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.083	***	-0.101	**	-0.059	+	0.047	
	(0.023)		().033)		().031)		(0.028)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.048		-0.067		-0.076		0.048	
	(0.050)		(0.066)		(0.078)		(0.089)	
Home Business	0.135		-0.397		-0.001		-0.325	
	(0.287)		(0.449)		(0.425)		(0.248)	
High Technology	0.332		-1.762	*	0.607		-0.777	+
	(0.518)		(0.792)		(0.675)		(0.416)	
Service/Retail	-0.354		0.143		-0.546		-0.366	
	(0.366)		(0.815)		(0.493)		(0.308)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.064		0.117		0.095		0.229	+
	(0.133)		(0.815)		(0.187)		(0.129)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.012	*	0.003		-0.029	***	0.002	
	(0.006)		(0.005)		(0.010)		(0.002)	
Income in 10,000s	0		-0.089		0.084		-0.005	
	(0.027)		(0.072)		().062)		(0.010)	
South	-0.121		-0.738		0.118		0.051	
	(0.314)		(0.570)		(0.454)		(0.252)	
Constant	1.234		1.487		0.648		-3.313	+
	(1.921)		(3.176)		(3.000)		(1.938)	
N	477		240		237		477	
X^2	48.53		66.86	**	40.4		61.29	*
df	40		39		38		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.1174		0.2462		0.1845		0.1213	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.5, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating			**Active or Operating**				
	Women		Men	Entire Sample	Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-		-	0.149	-		-	
				(0.355)				
Age	-0.242	*	0.087	0.02	0.015		0.108	
	(0.122)		(0.100)	(0.066)	(0.112)		(0.104)	
African American/Hispanic	0.558		-0.159	0.474	0.386		0.398	
	(0.999)		(0.648)	(0.453)	(0.945)		(0.576)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.020		-0.069	-0.036	-0.049		-0.082	
	(0.063)		(0.092)	(0.051)	(0.063)		(0.106)	
Startup Experience	-0.031		-0.494	0.413	0.076		0.384	
	(0.674)		(0.517)	(0.395)	(0.801)		(0.516)	
Occupational SEI	0.003		-0.023	-0.014	0.013		-0.044	*
	(0.016)		(0.019)	(0.009)	(0.015)		(0.017)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.146		0.075	-0.135	0.208		-1.336	*
	(0.415)		(0.841)	(0.294)	(0.380)		(0.683)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	0.002		-0.001	-0.000	-0.000		-0.001	
	(0.001)		(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.002		-0.040	-0.037	-0.054		-0.036	
	(0.068)		(0.060)	(0.039)	(0.072)		(0.056)	
Financial Education	1.541	*	0.705	0.421	0.712		0.979	
	(0.678)		(0.680)	(0.428)	(0.644)		(0.646)	
Accounting Education	0.602		0.842	0.011	-0.080		0.27	
	(0.528)		(0.614)	(0.342)	(0.511)		(0.520)	
Business Education	-0.292	*	-0.198	-0.018	-0.032		-0.145	
	(0.140)		(0.136)	(0.088)	(0.145)		(0.132)	
Financial Experience	0.255		0.072	0.409	0.358		0.711	
	(0.467)		(0.534)	(0.351)	(0.469)		(0.587)	
Accounting Experience	-1.105	*	-0.447	-0.138	-0.251		-0.227	
	(0.514)		(0.556)	(0.336)	(0.517)		(0.539)	
Business Experience	0.15		0.045	0.066	0.037		0.085	
	(0.123)		(0.113)	(0.079)	(0.116)		(0.116)	
Bachelor's Degree	0.295		0.677	0.29	-0.330		0.484	
	(0.444)		(0.456)	(0.252)	(0.392)		(0.384)	
Mail Questionnaire	0.139		0.551	0.251	-0.443		0.129	
	(0.635)		(0.624)	(0.396)	(0.661)		(0.560)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.364		-0.911	-0.364	-0.442		0.501	
	(0.531)		(0.717)	(0.360)	(0.457)		(0.691)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.891	+	0.587	-0.176	-1.202	*	0.162	
	(0.535)		(0.439)	(0.304)	(0.522)		(0.444)	

Table 5.5, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	-0.851	*	-0.207		-0.067		-0.716	*	0.091	
	(0.417)		(0.277)		(0.158)		(0.306)		(0.202)	
Any Caucasian	-0.278		0.751		0.362		0.379		0.205	
	(0.961)		(0.722)		(0.461)		(0.903)		(0.603)	
Any Male	-0.742		-		-0.279		0.017		-	
	(0.629)				(0.411)		(0.623)			
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.02		0.022		0.008		-0.002		0.03	+
	(0.019)		(0.018)		(0.010)		(0.017)		(0.018)	
Any with Startup Experience	0.234		0.357		-0.081		0.543		-0.007	
	(0.666)		(0.516)		(0.395)		(0.788)		(0.517)	
Maximum Age	0.067	+	0.034		-0.007		-0.012		-0.007	
	(0.039)		(0.027)		(0.020)		(0.037)		(0.026)	
Maximum Industry Experience	0.178	*	0.159		0.128	*	0.208	**	0.139	
	(0.086)		(0.111)		(0.060)		(0.080)		(0.120)	
Any Male-Typed Occupation	1.609	**	0.368		0.285		1.009	+	-0.159	
	(0.604)		(0.473)		(0.301)		(0.567)		(0.381)	

Table 5.5, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5b. Maximum Team Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				**Active or Operating**					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls										
Married	0.593		-0.855	*	-0.386		-0.287		-0.715	+
	(0.459)		(0.435)		(0.261)		(0.412)		(0.373)	
Parent	-1.052	*	0.691		0.041		-0.595		0.31	
	(0.467)		(0.482)		(0.276)		(0.425)		(0.416)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.149		-0.100		-0.169		-0.153		-0.085	
	(0.320)		(0.277)		(0.158)		(0.229)		(0.238)	
Own Home	0.432		-0.218		0.183		0.698		-0.087	
	(0.470)		(0.447)		(0.279)		(0.466)		(0.403)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.034		0.05		0.058	**	0.055		0.054	
	(0.046)		(0.038)		(0.022)		(0.037)		(0.030)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.169		0.007		0.119	+	0.195		0.11	
	(0.111)		(0.135)		(0.061)		(0.120)		(0.081)	
Home Business	-0.009		-0.359		-0.316		0.358		-0.503	
	(0.375)		(0.385)		(0.234)		(0.386)		(0.346)	
High Technology	-1.913	*	-0.547		-0.746	+	-0.174		-0.696	
	(0.806)		(0.559)		(0.409)		(0.767)		(0.548)	
Service/Retail	-1.845	**	0.185		-0.078		-0.516		0.037	
	(0.613)		(0.413)		(0.310)		(0.595)		(0.431)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.358		0.376	+	0.141		0.212		0.254	
	(0.224)		(0.213)		(0.110)		(0.224)		(0.165)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.004		0.003		0.002		-0.004		0.005	
	(0.005)		(0.002)		(0.002)		(0.005)		(0.003)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.002		0.026		-0.026		-0.018	+	-0.018	
	(0.010)		(0.052)		(0.012)		(0.010)		(0.043)	
South	-0.637		0.093		0.001		0.25		-0.149	
	(0.418)		(0.361)		(0.247)		(0.433)		(0.351)	
Constant	1.457		-8.226	**	-1.607		-0.391		-3.888	
	(3.039)		(3.006)		(1.677)		(2.738)		(2.493)	
N	240		237		477		240		237	
X^2	55.91	*	37.94		59.95	*	67.43	**	46.3	
df	39		38		40		39		38	
Pseudo R^2	0.2506		0.1645		0.1142		0.237		0.1595	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon					Operating			
	High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Respondent Characteristics									
Female	-2.627	+	0.675	1.028		-0.627		0.567	
	(1.448)		(0.690)	(1.704)		(1.055)		(0.764)	
Age	-0.779	*	-0.129	0.075		-0.199		0.086	
	(0.320)		(0.108)	(0.363)		(0.166)		(0.114)	
African American/Hispanic	-2.597		-0.946	-2.0188		1.339		-0.273	
	(3.701)		(1.210)	(1.652)		(1.171)		(1.076)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.711	**	0.171	0.297	*	-0.238		-0.162	
	(0.230)		(0.106)	(0.121)		(0.169)		(0.089)	
Startup Experience	3.482	*	0.382	0.463		-2.467	*	-0.695	
	(1.502)		(0.911)	(1.290)		(0.980)		(0.784)	
Occupational SEI	0.051		0.02	0.026		0.014		0.01	
	(0.047)		(0.020)	(0.039)		(0.024)		(0.021)	
Female-Typed Occupation	4.106	*	0.332	0.225		-2.464	*	-0.451	
	(1.651)		(0.498)	(1.340)		(1.146)		(0.410)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics									
Age^2	0.008	*	0.001	-0.002		0.002		-0.001	
	(0.003)		(0.001)	(0.005)		(0.002)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.132		0.056	0.164		0.033		-0.043	
	(0.199)		(0.064)	(0.134)		(0.177)		(0.050)	
Financial Education	3.006		-0.288	- 2.149		-0.273		0.986	+
	(2.260)		(0.639)	(1.737)		(1.198)		(0.546)	
Accounting Education	2.368		0.113	1.411		0.462		0.639	
	(1.924)		(0.450)	(1.278)		(1.129)		(0.459)	
Business Education	-0.605		0.087	-0.051		0.25		-0.261	*
	(0.411)		(0.120)	(0.280)		(0.292)		(0.114)	
Financial Experience	-1.361		-0.309	-1.509		0.433		-0.075	
	(1.529)		(0.521)	(1.262)		(1.104)		(0.492)	
Accounting Experience	0.876		-0.350	2.502		-1.879		-0.411	
	(1.501)		(0.509)	(1.459)		(1.356)		(0.435)	
Business Experience	0.061		0	-0.195		0.192		0.094	
	(0.378)		(0.109)	(0.235)		(0.329)		(0.095)	
Bachelor's Degree	-2.282	*	-0.377	-1.827		0.418		0.812	*
	(1.149)		(0.368)	(1.147)		(0.728)		(0.376)	

Table 5.6, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating			
	High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Mail Questionnaire	-2.962	+	-0.835		-1.432		-0.856		1.381	**
	(1.657)		(0.652)		(1.264)		(1.118)		(0.517)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.905		0.963	+	0.966		0.386		-1.222	*
	(1.186)		(0.538)		(1.216)		(1.191)		(0.501)	
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force	0.991		-0.611		-1.416		-0.658		0.366	
	(1.590)		(0.433)		(1.106)		(1.051)		(0.392)	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	0.982		-0.017		0.35		-0.622	+	0.03	
	(0.765)		(0.187)		(0.528)		(0.335)		(0.183)	
Proportion Black/Hispanic	2.171		0.504		4.21	*	-3.682	*	0.211	
	(5.269)		(1.317)		(2.103)		(1.504)		(1.145)	
Proportion Female	-1.862		-0.865		-0.428		0.426		-0.290	
	(4.145)		(0.813)		(1.996)		(1.556)		(0.801)	
Average Occupational SEI	-0.072		-0.016		-0.038		0.039		-0.011	
	(0.048)		(0.020)		(0.055)		(0.026)		(0.022)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	-4.427	*	-0.324		0.611		1.707		0.855	
	(2.184)		(1.001)		(1.445)		(1.067)		(0.854)	
Average Age	0.091		0.069		-0.037		0.084		-0.012	
	(0.129)		(0.057)		(0.104)		(0.063)		(0.58)	
Average Industry Experience	-0.626	*	-0.283	*	-0.513	*	0.324		0.286	**
	(0.273)		(0.117)		(0.257)		(0.224)		(0.105)	
Proportion with Female-Typed Occupation	-4.122		-0.536		1.58		5.649	***	0.351	
	(2.927)		(0.534)		(2.227)		(1.682)		(0.465)	
Controls										
Married	3.036		0.865	*	0.122		-0.804		-0.046	
	(2.317)		(0.381)		(1.530)		(0.837)		(0.326)	
Parent	1.086		-0.386		-1.287		0.705		0.005	
	(1.157)		(0.431)		(0.849)		(0.729)		(0.356)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.204		0.31		0.041		0.677		-0.246	
	(0.953)		(0.251)		(0.670)		(0.525)		(0.248)	

Table 5.6, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon					Operating			
	High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Own Home	2.977	*	-0.435		1.325	+	-0.040		0.132	
	(1.403)		(0.429)		(0.773)		(0.778)		(0.365)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.066		-0.087	**	-0.066		0.258	***	0.012	
	(0.120)		(0.028)		(0.064)		(0.074)		(0.034)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.605		-0.014		-0.205		0.121		0.078	
	(0.429)		(0.055)		(0.385)		(0.250)		(0.125)	
Home Business	0.96		0.256		-0.076		-0.446		-0.318	
	(1.162)		(0.357)		(0.802)		(0.650)		(0.308)	
High Technology	-1.186		0.848		1.765		-0.709		-1.386	*
	(2.102)		(0.649)		(1.201)		(1.101)		(0.589)	
Service/Retail	-0.862		-0.199		0.245		1.762	+	-0.893	
	(1.234)		(0.427)		(1.204)		(0.922)		-0.377	
Industry Failure Rate	0.169		0.016		-0.054		-0.741	*	0.446	**
	(0.894)		(0.160)		(0.350)		(0.357)		(0.161)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.062		-0.010	+	-0.012		0.015	+	0.002	
	(0.056)		(0.006)		(0.007)		(0.008)		(0.002)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.249		0.033		0.157		-0.008		-0.019	
	(0.183)		(0.051)		(0.125)		(0.020)		(0.044)	
South	-1.851		-0.099		-0.400		-0.373		0.024	
	(1.258)		(0.379)		(0.897)		(0.632)		(0.331)	
Constant	15.273	+	0.206		1.976		1.251		-6.390	**
	(8.493)		(2.170)		(7.420)		(5.178)		(2.426)	
N	130		347		119		130		347	
X^2	75.4	***	42.94		41.51		44.73		68.21	**
df	40		40		40		40		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.4784		0.1488		0.3511		0.3551		0.1832	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.6, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-1.254		1.307		-0.474		-0.320	
	(2.364)		(1.078)		(0.603)		(1.028)	
Age	1.662	*	0.048		0.078		0.017	
	(0.651)		(0.253)		(0.103)		(0.256)	
African American/Hispanic	-1.168		2.299		-0.033		-0.446	
	(1.502)		(1.673)		(0.988)		(1.276)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.285	+	-0.535	**	-0.174	+	-0.148	
	(0.167)		(0.184)		(0.091)		(0.128)	
Startup Experience	-0.258		-0.011		-0.088		0.218	
	(1.153)		(1.029)		(0.722)		(1.024)	
Occupational SEI	-0.076	*	0.009		-0.023		-0.033	
	(0.038)		(0.030)		(0.018)		(0.029)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-4.190	**	-3.706	**	-0.719		-1.488	
	(1.505)		(1.360)		(0.396)		(1.165)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	-0.019	*	-0.000		-0.001		0	
	(0.007)		(0.003)		(0.001)		(0.003)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.028		-0.041		-0.034		-0.102	
	(0.168)		(0.104)		(0.049)		().105)	
Financial Education	2.078		-1.934		0.715		3.193	*
	(1.667)		(1.280)		(0.519)		(1.500)	
Accounting Education	4.609	*	-0.239		-0.041		-0.533	
	(2.295)		(1.190)		(0.398)		(1.011)	
Business Education	-0.988	+	1.037	***	-0.112		-0.068	
	(0.575)		(0.302)		(0.107)		(0.220)	
Financial Experience	0.312		-0.181		0.585		-0.605	
	(1.651)		(1.235)		(0.450)		(1.130)	
Accounting Experience	-1.269		-3.167	**	0.254		-0.795	
	(2.624)		(1.110)		(0.411)		(1.100)	
Business Experience	0.056		0.446	+	0.042		0.466	
	(0.261)		(0.264)		(0.095)		(0.270)	
Bachelor's Degree	2.692		1.337	+	0.131		-0.278	
	(1.651)		(0.802)		(0.304)		(0.687)	

Table 5.6, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Mail Questionnaire	1.391		0.768		0.422		1.387	
	(1.654)		(1.397)		(0.506)		(0.950)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-6.622	*	2.415	+	-0.956	*	-0.829	
	(2.869)		(1.314)		(0.444)		(1.183)	
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force	3.569	+	-1.706		0.149		0.277	
	(2.121)		(1.269)		(0.368)		(0.854)	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	-0.346		-0.240		0.024		-0.129	
	(0.658)		(0.347)		(0.169)		(0.386)	
Proportion Black/Hispanic	0.744		-2.430		0.201		-0.634	
	(1.842)		(2.039)		(1.056)		(1.729)	
Proportion Female	3.131		1.379		0.961		0.208	
	(2.616)		(1.535)		(0.698)		(1.437)	
Average Occupational SEI	0.022		0.045	+	0.013		0.029	
	(0.044)		(0.027)		(0.019)		(0.027)	
Proportion with Startup Experience	-0.547		0.305		0.433		-1.349	
	(1.787)		(1.249)		(0.789)		(1.251)	
Average Age	0.052		-0.008		-0.014		0.008	
	(0.122)		(0.068)		(0.046)		(0.070)	
Average Industry Experience	0.828	**	0.716	**	0.331	***	0.356	+
	(0.311)		(0.260)		(0.104)		(0.202)	
Proportion with Female-Typed Occupation	-1.471		6.96	**	0.377		0.242	
	(1.606)		(2.639)		(0.451)		(1.295)	
Controls								
Married	-1.894		-1.685	+	-0.260		0.141	
	(1.467)		(1.016)		(0.317)		(0.941)	
Parent	2.573		0.554		-0.089		0.117	
	(1.573)		(0.790)		(0.340)		(0.968)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.638		-0.186		-0.125		-0.505	
	(1.008)		(0.536)		(0.217)		(0.537)	

Table 5.6, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c:Average Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		**Active or Operating**					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Own Home	-2.984	+	0.148		0.27		-1.585	+
	(1.659)		(0.889)		(0.353)		(0.813)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.107	+	0.3	***	0.048	+	0.042	
	(0.061)		(0.093)		(0.026)		(0.042)	
Log of Hours Invested	1.051	*	0.279		0.095		0.665	**
	(0.417)		(0.249)		(0.058)		(0.239)	
Home Business	-2.539		0.49		-0.427		-0.732	
	(1.572)		(0.656)		(0.293)		(0.653)	
High Technology	-1.693		-1.925	+	-1.023	*	-1.579	
	(1.774)		(1.126)		(0.502)		(1.067)	
Service/Retail	-0.578		-0.001		0.04		0.298	
	(1.339)		(1.167)		(0.370)		(0.702)	
Industry Failure Rate	1.187	+	0.347		0.133		-0.177	
	(0.633)		(0.507)		(0.132)		(0.256)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.009	**	0.002		0.006	+	0.009	*
	(0.004)		(0.010)		(0.003)		(0.004)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.073		-0.008		-0.077	*	-0.113	
	(0.161)		(0.019)		(0.036)		(0.078)	
South	0.485		0.015		0.141		0.188	
	(1.171)		(0.620)		(0.321)		(0.781)	
Constant	-45.294	**	-12.677		-1.739		-2.088	
	(17.339)		(7.736)		(1.967)		(4.526)	
N	119		130		347		119	
X^2	52.75	+	65.45	**	64.72	**	33.03	
df	40		40		40		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.5523		0.4128		0.1621		0.3033	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.7. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon				Operating					
	High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Respondent Characteristics										
Female	-3.469	**	0.421		-0.104		-0.150		0.276	
	(1.164)		(0.835)		(1.263)		(0.727)		(0.580)	
Age	-0.480	+	-0.180	+	0.361		-0.165		0.057	
	(0.259)		(0.107)		(0.406)		(0.170)		(0.102)	
African American/Hispanic	-2.354		-1.329		-1.127		-0.377		0.801	
	(2.338)		(0.830)		(1.099)		(0.925)		(0.561)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.22		0.152		0.227	+	-0.022		-0.014	
	(0.263)		(0.110)		(0.117)		(0.098)		(0.066)	
Startup Experience	0.536		0.454		1.619		-0.483		0.076	
	(1.132)		(0.721)		(1.171)		(0.689)		(0.599)	
Occupational SEI	0.018		0.033		0.045		0.019		-0.013	
	(0.037)		(0.024)		(0.036)		(0.019)		(0.019)	
Female-Typed Occupation	1.172		0.116		1.385		0.391		-0.301	
	(1.867)		(0.502)		(0.890)		(0.743)		(0.421)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics										
Age^2	0.005	*	0.001		-0.007		0.002		-0.001	
	(0.003)		(0.001)		(0.005)		(0.002)		(0.001)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.117		0.061		0.271	*	-0.028		-0.054	
	(0.176)		(0.066)		(0.120)		(0.110)		(0.050)	
Financial Education	-0.128		-0.494		-1.728		0.083		1.127	*
	(1.996)		(0.675)		(1.663)		(1.019)		(0.572)	
Accounting Education	2.148		0.161		2.639	+	0.569		0.671	
	(1.528)		(0.462)		(1.485)		(0.914)		(0.461)	
Business Education	-0.280		0.116		-0.289		0.155		-0.255	*
	(0.269)		(0.127)		(0.300)		(0.206)		(0.115)	
Financial Experience	-1.107		-0.268		-1.125		0.51		-0.119	
	(1.634)		(0.533)		(1.167)		(0.977)		(0.486)	
Accounting Experience	-0.086		-0.427		3.14	*	-1.030		-0.404	
	(1.728)		(0.508)		(1.389)		(1.070)		(0.435)	
Business Experience	0.633		-0.002		-0.197		-0.117		0.108	
	(0.495)		(0.110)		(0.225)		(0.286)		(0.093)	
Bachelor's Degree	-1.921	*	-0.416		-1.707		0.1		0.762	*
	(0.945)		(0.374)		(1.126)		(0.727)		(0.360)	

Table 5.7, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon				Operating					
	High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Mail Questionnaire	-1.761		-0.710		-2.503	+	-1.069		1.284	*
	(1.840)		(0.652)		(1.478)		(1.108)		(0.537)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.049		0.785		0.377		0.534		-1.210	*
	(1.711)		(0.555)		(1.130)		(0.874)		(0.501)	
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force	1.502		-0.536		-0.588		-0.972		0.381	
	(1.313)		(0.453)		(0.875)		(0.864)		(0.378)	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	0.577		-0.074		0.486		-0.666	+	-0.215	
	(0.796)		(0.267)		(0.746)		(0.384)		(0.274)	
Any Caucasian	-0.017		-0.924		-3.822	*	0.672		1.152	+
	(2.484)		(0.866)		(1.574)		(1.020)		(0.606)	
Any Male	-0.712		0.361		-2.063		-0.768		-0.066	
	(2.480)		(0.852)		(1.285)		(0.960)		(0.599)	
Maximum Occupational SEI	0.014		-0.024		-0.074		0.012		0.012	
	(0.038)		(0.024)		(0.045)		(0.021)		(0.020)	
Any with Startup Experience	-0.855		-0.434		-0.530		-0.123		-0.065	
	(1.207)		(0.711)		(0.867)		(0.578)		(0.605)	
Maximum Age	-0.068		0.096	*	0.069	+	0.045		0.032	
	(0.061)		(0.042)		(0.039)		(0.035)		(0.033)	
Maximum Industry Experience	0.147		-0.239	*	-0.262		0.135		0.088	
	(0.328)		(0.119)		(0.146)		(0.147)		(0.077)	
Any Male-Typed Occupation	-0.921		0.318		1.788	*	1.79	+	0.015	
	(1.436)		(0.440)		(0.902)		(1.051)		(0.431)	
Controls										
Married	1.955		1.044	**	0.406		-0.277		-0.131	
	(1.882)		(0.385)		(1.156)		(0.713)		(0.336)	
Parent	0.607		-0.413		-1.829	+	0.391		0.008	
	(1.251)		(0.437)		(1.040)		(0.658)		(0.357)	
Number of Children under 6	0.474		0.305		0.532		0.164		-0.222	
	(0.911)		(0.264)		(0.501)		(0.409)		(0.233)	

Table 5.7, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating			
	High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Own Home	3.137	*	-0.516		1.079		-0.243		0.024	
	(1.392)		(0.431)		(0.705)		(0.697)		(0.367)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.125		-0.091	***	-0.066		0.147	*	0.007	
	(0.115)		(0.028)		(0.058)		(0.066)		(0.032)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.482		-0.036		-0.349		0.073		0.076	
	(0.337)		(0.054)		(0.271)		(0.231)		(0.120)	
Home Business	0.648		0.282		0.155		-0.340		-0.394	
	(1.381)		(0.366)		(0.765)		(0.616)		(0.308)	
High Technology	-1.576		0.54		0.291		-0.833		-0.987	+
	(2.458)		(0.663)		(1.354)		(0.840)		(0.547)	
Service/Retail	-0.193		-0.156		0.36		1.6		-0.900	*
	(1.303)		(0.424)		(1.211)		(1.001)		(0.382)	
Industry Failure Rate	-0.404		0.07		-0.039		-0.535		0.458	**
	(0.639)		(0.161)		(0.295)		(0.328)		(0.159)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.049		-0.009		-0.008		0.014	+	0.002	
	(0.048)		(0.006)		(0.009)		(0.008)		(0.001)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.177		0.032		0.158		-0.019		-0.005	
	(0.239)		(0.056)		(0.129)		(0.016)		(0.041)	
South	-1.035		-0.086		-0.051		-0.633		0.122	
	(1.027)		(0.396)		(0.810)		(0.576)		(0.339)	
Constant	12.766	+	0.351		1.104		2.809		7.537	**
	(7.117)		(2.382)		(6.712)		(4.564)		(2.482)	
N	130		347		119		130		347	
X^2	82.59	***	48.88		47.83		40.75		62.4	*
df	40		40		40		40		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.4364		0.1617		0.3947		0.2603		0.1742	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.7, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.678		1.76	*	-0.217		-0.072	
	(1.528)		(0.827)		(0.582)		(0.792)	
Age	1.455	+	-0.088		0.109		-0.157	
	(0.758)		(0.201)		(0.096)		(0.256)	
African American/Hispanic	2.553		2.243		0.404		0.202	
	(1.776)		(1.577)		(0.610)		(0.975)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.103		-0.035		-0.063		0.03	
	(0.187)		(0.112)		(0.076)		(0.123)	
Startup Experience	-0.691		1.528	+	-0.026		-0.584	
	(1.619)		(0.878)		(0.559)		(0.761)	
Occupational SEI	-0.038		0.009		-0.028		-0.034	
	(0.042)		(0.023)		(0.017)		(0.026)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-6.348	**	0.008		-0.561		-1.202	
	(2.246)		(0.867)		(0.382)		(0.919)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
age-squared	-0.016	+	0.001		-0.001		0.003	
	(0.009)		(0.002)		(0.001)		(0.003)	
log of Managerial Experience	-0.054		-0.143		-0.035		-0.142	
	(0.141)		(0.115)		(0.049)		(0.109)	
Financial Education	0.586		0.202		0.807		2.567	
	(2.142)		(1.268)		(0.527)		(1.420)	
Accounting Education	4.576	*	-0.573		-0.080		-0.329	
	(2.261)		(0.992)		(0.396)		(1.000)	
Business Education	-0.744		0.713	**	-0.116		-0.002	
	(0.575)		(0.268)		(0.107)		(0.232)	
Financial Experience	0.636		-0.490		0.478		-0.481	
	(1.524)		(1.073)		(0.467)		(1.039)	
Accounting Experience	-3.023		-2.461	*	0.252		-1.196	
	(2.350)		(1.228)		(0.416)		(1.032)	
Business Experience	0.241		0.09		0.066		0.486	*
	(0.289)		(0.233)		(0.094)		(0.248)	
Bachelor's Degree	2.806	+	1.163		0.178		-0.150	
	(1.667)		(0.722)		(0.301)		(0.690)	

Table 5.7, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Mail Questionnaire	3.554	*	-0.321		0.362		1.569	+
	(1.754)		(1.116)		(0.493)		(0.921)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-5.685	*	3.137	**	-0.837	+	-0.532	
	(2.712)		(1.159)		(0.454)		(1.315)	
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force	3.902		-2.508	*	0.049		0.291	
	(2.729)		(1.052)		(0.365)		(0.802)	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	-0.797		-0.471		-0.012		-0.482	
	(0.707)		(0.358)		(0.235)		(0.382)	
Any Caucasian	6.449	*	2.079		0.335		1.765	
	(2.879)		(1.492)		(0.627)		(1.130)	
Any Male	1.094		-0.507		-0.615		0.978	
	(3.650)		(1.239)		(0.633)		(1.265)	
Maximum Occupational SEI	-0.008		0.024		0.015		0.041	
	(0.044)		(0.020)		(0.017)		(0.026)	
Any with Startup Experience	-1.622		-0.563		0.35		-0.280	
	(1.100)		(0.892)		(0.551)		(0.797)	
Maximum Age	0.195		0.056		-0.038		-0.015	
	(0.123)		(0.040)		(0.036)		(0.054)	
Maximum Industry Experience	0.115		0.133		0.173	*	-0.021	
	(0.258)		(0.211)		(0.085)		(0.157)	
Any Male-Typed Occupation	-1.808		2.492	*	-0.131		-0.604	
	(1.516)		(1.147)		(0.384)		(0.728)	
Controls								
Married	-2.954		-1.633		-0.307		0.017	
	(2.644)		(1.082)		(0.316)		(1.020)	
Parent	3.615	**	0.659		-0.068		0.312	
	(1.248)		(0.753)		(0.338)		(0.946)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.384		-0.562		-0.101		-0.460	
	(1.038)		(0.407)		(0.224)		(0.531)	

Table 5.7, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 5c: Maximum Team Status, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating		Active or Operating					
	Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		Low-Contributing Teams (No Isolates)	
Own Home	-3.159	*	-0.218		0.278		-1.474	+
	(1.235)		(0.860)		(0.348)		(0.773)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.180	**	0.226	*	0.043	+	0.015	
	(0.058)		(0.095)		(0.025)		(0.038)	
Log of Hours Invested	1.013	*	0.385		0.106	+	0.634	**
	(0.507)		(0.249)		(0.058)		(0.231)	
Home Business	-3.088		0.151		-0.421		-0.859	
	(2.053)		(0.666)		(0.290)		(0.732)	
High Technology	-1.339		-2.218	+	-0.801		-0.780	
	(1.619)		(1.192)		(0.516)		(0.882)	
Service/Retail	-0.430		-0.976		-0.008		-0.086	
	(1.002)		(1.170)		(0.366)		(0.630)	
Industry Failure Rate	1.592	*	0.643		0.114		-0.113	
	(0.651)		(0.452)		(0.129)		(0.233)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.009	*	0.011		0.004	+	0.006	
	(0.003)		(0.010)		(0.003)		(004)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.176		-0.042	*	-0.072	*	-0.086	
	(0.162)		(0.018)		(0.034)		(0.073)	
South	1.547		-0.387		0.138		-0.001	
	(0.947)		(0.640)		(0.314)		(0.718)	
Constant	-55.905	*	-10.708	+	-1.164		-1.042	
	(26.949)		(5.903)		(2.074)		(4.481)	
N	119		130		347		119	
X^2	62.94	*	36.39		55.3	+	30.69	
df	40		40		40		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.5721		0.3636		0.1446		0.3087	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.8. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon			Operating
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample
Respondent Characteristics				
Female	-0.3779	-	-	0.3112
	(0.3198)			(0.2811)
Age	-0.0957	-0.2233 *	-0.1040	0.0067
	(0.0774)	(0.1062)	(0.1123)	(0.0686)
African American/Hispanic	-0.5433	0.2132	-0.9172 *	-0.2508
	(0.3660)	(0.5278)	(0.4597)	(0.2686)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0262	-0.0716	-0.0236	0.0425
	(0.0344)	(0.0630)	(0.0563)	(0.0298)
Startup Experience	0.056	0.0665	0.2233	-0.2668
	(0.3107)	(0.4543)	(0.4617)	(0.2419)
Occupational SEI	0.007	-0.0009	0.0001	0.0032
	(0.0065)	(0.0086)	(0.0100)	(0.0056)
Female-Typed Occupation	0.1853	-0.1840	0.5532	-0.1813
	(0.4074)	(0.4861)	(0.9626)	(0.3498)
Supplemental Status Characteristics				
Age^2	0.0012	0.0028 *	0.0013	0
	(0.0009)	(0.0013)	(0.0013)	(0.0008)
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0413	0.12	-0.0070	-0.0179
	(0.0507)	(0.0811)	(0.0690)	(0.0407)
Financial Education	-0.4868	-0.5511	-1.0486	0.513
	(0.5574)	(0.7648)	(0.8788)	(0.4319)
Accounting Education	0.1167	-0.0862	-0.2756	0.6114 +
	(0.4012)	(0.6986)	(0.6001)	(0.3694)
Business Education	0.0393	0.1424	0.0863	-0.1203
	(0.1083)	(0.1960)	(0.1358)	(0.0901)
Financial Experience	-0.2677	-0.4245	-0.7233	0.1083
	(0.4344)	(0.6836)	(0.6833)	(0.3513)
Accounting Experience	0.056	0.6239	-0.4055	-0.6538 +
	(0.4012)	(0.6750)	(0.6957)	(0.3440)
Business Experience	-0.0180	-0.1214	0.0912	0.0837
	(0.0850)	(0.1367)	(0.1277)	(0.0787)
Bachelor's Degree	-0.4138	-0.1436	-0.1256	0.4248
	(0.3234)	(0.4874)	(0.4560)	(0.2727)
Mail Questionnaire	-0.5059	-0.0769	-0.2266	0.6049
	(0.4805)	(1.0048)	(0.6447)	(0.4074)
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.383	0.4847	-0.1658	-0.7162
	(0.4288)	(0.6439)	(0.6854)	(0.4065)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.0758	0.7976	-0.2262	0.1291
	(0.3565)	(0.7351)	(0.5055)	(0.2988)

Table 5.8, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						**Operating**
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample
Team Characteristics							
Team Size	-0.0160		0.8714	+	-0.2346		-0.0940
	(0.2301)		(0.4870)		(0.3155)		(0.2227)
Ethnic Diversity	0.2584		1.646	+	-0.5365		-0.1041
	(0.5258)		(0.8585)		(0.7282)		(0.5097)
Gender Diversity	-0.7648	+	-0.5404		-1.1456	*	0.1196
	(0.3973)		(0.7564)		(0.5490)		(0.3658)
Occupational SEI Range	0.007		-0.0150		0.0181		0
	(0.0100)		(0.0252)		(0.0132)		(0.0094)
Startup Experience Diversity	-0.2824		-1.1804	*	0.099		-0.0613
	(0.3888)		(0.5551)		(0.5145)		(0.3272)
Age Range	0.0087		0.0085		0.0138		0.0328
	(0.0206)		(0.0368)		(0.0298)		(0.0202)
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0868		-0.0361		0.1304		-0.0058
	(0.0615)		(0.0896)		(0.0956)		(0.0552)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.1002		-0.3545		-0.1098		0.4322
	(0.4389)		(0.8686)		(0.6266)		(0.3762)

Table 5.8, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Controls								
Married	0.8789	**	0.7734		1.3668	**	-0.1760	
	(0.3355)		(0.5689)		(0.5263)		(0.2965)	
Parent	-0.3497		0.2573		-0.8392		0.1109	
	(0.3622)		(0.5859)		(0.5741)		(0.2965)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1658		-0.2175		0.2387		-0.1685	
	(0.1704)		(0.3190)		(0.2139)		(0.1735)	
Own Home	0.0174		-0.2799		0.0408		0.0182	
	(0.3516)		(0.5881)		(0.5132)		(0.2948)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0811	***	-0.0913	**	-0.0882	*	0.0399	
	(0.0234)		(0.0355)		(0.0366)		(0.0288)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0336		-0.0759		-0.0288		0.0588	
	(0.0490)		(0.0609)		(0.0738)		(0.0877)	
Home Business	0.2657		-0.4074		0.586		-0.3510	
	(0.3040)		(0.4503)		(0.5012)		(0.2484)	
High Technology	0.4459		-1.9771	*	0.9048		-0.9286	*
	(0.4874)		(0.9452)		(0.6561)		(0.4272)	
Service/Retail	-0.2500		0.1317		-0.5606		-0.4242	
	(0.3585)		(0.8816)		(0.5119)		(0.3063)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0314		0.1045		0.1033		0.2311	+
	(0.1336)		(0.2644)		(0.1980)		(0.1356)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0112	*	-0.0004		-0.0292	**	0.0012	
	(0.0055)		(0.0060)		(0.0113)		(0.0012)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0075		-0.1047		0.0713		-0.0016	
	(0.0324)		(0.0651)		(0.0611)		(0.0104)	
South	-0.0398		-0.6337		0.3616		0.0368	
	(0.3071)		(0.5060)		(0.4489)		(0.2468)	
Constant	0.8457		2.0183		0.1497		-3.1889	
	(1.9066)		(2.7945)		(2.8957)		(1.7712)	
N	479		240		239		479	
X^2	43.05		55.22	*	41.24		50.03	+
df	40		39		39		40	
Pseudo R^2	0.1091		0.2179		0.1813		0.1013	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.8, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics										
Female	-		-		0.452	+	-		-	
					(0.2542)					
Age	-0.1616		0.151		0.0294		-0.0018		0.1276	
	(0.1234)		(0.0957)		(0.0640)		(0.1065)		(0.0941)	
African American/Hispanic	0.9465	*	-0.6254		0.1807		0.1133		0.2116	
	(0.4646)		(0.4167)		(0.2751)		(0.4804)		(0.3922)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0879	+	0.0514		0.0534	+	0.0829	+	0.034	
	(0.4874)		(0.0456)		(0.0275)		(0.0458)		(0.0450)	
Startup Experience	0.0381		-0.4672		0.2952		0.6017	+	0.1826	
	(0.3638)		(0.3439)		(0.2454)		(0.3583)		(0.3490)	
Occupational SEI	0.0204		-0.0016		-0.0073		0.0098		-0.0139	+
	(0.0094)		(0.0089)		(0.0055)		(0.0077)		(0.0084)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0358		-0.3016		-0.3688		-0.0510		-1.3898	+
	(0.4565)		(0.9837)		(0.3064)		(0.4054)		(0.7525)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics										
Age^2	0.0017		-0.0014		-0.0004		-0.0004		-0.0015	
	(0.0015)		(0.0011)		(0.0008)		(0.0012)		(0.0011)	
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0269		-0.0320		-0.0404		-0.0629		-0.0376	
	(0.0663)		(0.0573)		(0.0383)		(0.0669)		(0.0536)	
Financial Education	1.4365	*	0.3385		0.3042		0.578		0.7467	
	(0.6641)		(0.6452)		(0.4140)		(0.6126)		(0.5674)	
Accounting Education	0.6095		0.7644		0.0656		-0.0501		0.37	
	(0.4942)		(0.5981)		(0.3367)		(0.5002)		(0.4994)	
Business Education	-0.3125	*	-0.1180		0.0034		-0.0515		-0.0836	
	(0.1396)		(0.1300		(0.0859)		(0.1466)		(0.1239)	
Financial Experience	0.2317		-0.0721		0.2903		0.2839		0.4562	
	(0.4637)		(0.5215)		(0.3362)		(0.4720)		(0.5681)	
Accounting Experience	-1.2281	**	-0.4437		-0.1936		-0.3704		-0.2090	
	(0.4678)		(0.5491)		(0.3366)		(0.4757)		(0.5325)	
Business Experience	0.2091		0.0313		0.0978		0.122		0.0899	
	(0.1229)		(0.1121)		(0.0756)		(0.1131)		(0.1134)	
Bachelor's Degree	0.2789		0.4887		0.2314		-0.2768		0.3661	
	(0.4254)		(0.4314)		(0.2539)		(0.3776)		(0.3817)	
Mail Questionnaire	0.2475		0.6139		0.3126		-0.2780		0.2593	
	(0.7061)		(0.6023)		(0.3882)		(0.6455)		(0.5508)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.2645		-0.6323		-0.4063		-0.4745		0.5777	
	(0.5003)		(0.8686)		(0.3646)		(0.4414)		(0.6562)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.8699	+	0.4853		-0.1464		-1.1748	*	0.1667	
	(0.4782)		(0.4228)				(0.4825)		(0.4301)	

Table 5.8, Page 5. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating			**Active or Operating**		
	Women	Men	Entire Sample		Women	Men
Team Characteristics						
Team Size	-0.8158	0.0001	0.0464		-0.5560	0.1755
	(0.6065)	(0.2673)	(0.1814)		(0.3992)	(0.2222)
Ethnic Diversity	-1.0032	-0.0477	0.0285		-0.3233	0.2713
	(1.1242)	(0.6146)	(0.4440)		(0.6818)	(0.6185)
Gender Diversity	0.0197	0.1265	0.427		0.7606	0.3524
	(0.6700)	(0.4884)	(0.3155)		(0.5434)	(0.4135)
Occupational SEI Range	0.0327	-0.0092	-0.0076		0.0032	-0.0122
	(0.01919)	(0.0140)	(0.0081)		(0.0159)	().0109)
Startup Experience Diversity	0.0389	0.2177	0.1039		0.5269	0.1601
	(0.5659)	(0.4590)	(0.2980)		(0.5264)	(0.4091)
Age Range	0.0352	0.0392	0.0079		-0.0027	0.0109
	(0.0359)	(0.0261)	(0.0192)		(0.0307)	(0.0244)
Industry Experience Range (Logged)	0.0724	-0.0533	-0.0884	+	-0.0721	-0.0824
	(0.0887)	(0.0856)	(0.0535)		(0.0781)	(0.0851)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	0.2063	0.5737	0.4479		0.5232	0.4414
	(0.7380)	(0.4950)	(0.3518)		(0.6307)	(0.5080)

Table 5.8, Page 6. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7: Diversity and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Operating or Active					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Controls										
Married	0.539		-0.6930		-0.4510	+	-0.3562		-0.7248	+
	(0.4607)		(0.4416)		(0.2647)		(0.3865)		(0.3900)	
Parent	-0.9557	*	0.6576		0.2117		-0.3597		0.5299	
	(0.4486)		(0.4715)		(0.2785)		(0.4286)		(0.4181)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.2042		-0.1256		-0.2041		-0.1861		-0.1832	
	(0.3006)		(0.2567)		(0.1559)		(0.2355)		(0.2219)	
Own Home	0.3012		-0.0004		0.1968		0.5759		0.1235	
	(0.5027)		(0.4380)		(0.2794)		(0.4223)		(0.3983)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0144		0.0564		0.0599	**	0.0428		0.0706	*
	(0.0411)		(0.0394)		(0.0216)		(0.0344)		(0.0300)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.2043		0.0016		0.109	+	0.1892		0.0705	
	(0.1068)		(0.1253)		(0.0561)		(0.1209)		(0.0763)	
Home Business	0.0851		-0.3881		-0.3894		0.3191		-0.6959	+
	(0.3634)		(0.4080)		(0.2377)		(0.3663)		(0.3613)	
High Technology	-1.8944	*	-0.8233		-0.8503	*	-0.2549		-0.8672	
	(0.7471)		(0.5729)		(0.4126)		(0.7374)		(0.5584)	
Service/Retail	-1.5821	**	0.1532		-0.1396		-0.6149		0.0243	
	(0.5695)		(0.4320)		(0.3146)		(0.6088)		(0.4565)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.3055		0.3063		0.1506		0.2092		0.1992	
	(0.2133)		(0.2164)		(0.1121)		(0.2123)		(0.1625)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0025		0.0024		0.0029		-0.0034		0.0059	+
	(0.0050)		(0.0015)		(0.0020)		(0.0044)		(0.0034)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0058		0.0136		-0.0219		-0.0160		-0.0281	
	(0.0110)		(0.0462)		(0.0132)		(0.0109)		(0.0407)	
South	-0.6556		0.027		-0.0424		0.2118		-0.3357	
	(0.3962)		(0.3545)		(0.2482)		(0.4106)		(0.3491)	
Constant	1.4235		-7.1106	**	-1.8016		0.1617		-3.7193	
	(2.9753)		(2.6136)		(1.5920)		(2.4979)		(2.4173)	
N	240		239		479		240		239	
X^2	59.04	*	37.33		57.75	*	61.31	*	42.05	
df	39		39		40		39		39	
Pseudo R^2	0.2214		0.1379		0.1125		0.2049		0.1543	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.9. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7a: Diversity, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		**Operating**		**Active or Operating**	
	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-6.3050 **	-0.1291	-0.0376	0.4962	2.0395 *	0.4461
	(2.0893)	(0.344)	(0.6443)	(0.3527)	(0.8611)	(0.3013)
Age	-0.6742	-0.0967	-0.1028	0.0879	-0.0249	0.0967
	(0.4161)	(0.0968)	(0.1733)	(0.0933)	(0.2312)	(0.0084)
African American/Hispanic	-4.2793	-0.6241	-0.8882	-0.1255	0.9227	0.1244
	(2.6397)	(0.4021)	(0.6435)	(0.3198)	(0.8248)	(0.3343)
Log of Industry Experience	0.6831 **	-0.0682 +	-0-.0140	0.056	-0.0899	0.0858 *
	(0.2646)	(0.0380)	(0.0651)	(0.0396)	(0.1065)	(0.0338)
Startup Experience	1.8365 +	0.0387	-0.5785	-0.0193	1.1494	0.2401
	(1.0323)	(0.3752)	(0.5493)	(0.3144)	(0.7615)	(0.2995)
Occupational SEI	-0.0436	0.0032	0.0186	0.0006	0.0243	-0.0098
	(0.0454)	(0.0068)	(0.0132)	(0.0070)	(0.0199)	(0.0066)
Female-Typed Occupation	3.7991 *	0.012	-0.9201	-0.2821	-1.8652 +	-0.4717
	(1.7616)	(0.4900)	(1.1588)	0.4344)	(0.9603)	(0.3509)
Supplemental Status Characteristics						
Age^2	0.0075 +	0.0015	0.0012	-0.0010	0.0036	-0.0013
	(0.0041)	(0.0011)	(0.0020)	(0.0011)	(0.0026)	(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0592	0.0428	0.0271	-0.0581	-0.0978	-0.0412
	(0..2572)	(0.0634)	(0.0874)	(0.0509)	(0.1025)	(0.0483)
Financial Education	-1.7596	-0.1261	-1.0026	0.9353	-1.4983	0.565
	(2.7052)	(0.6316)	(0.8696)	(0.5734)	(1.3153)	(0.5210)
Accounting Education	1.1939	0.227	0.5892	0.656	-0.2841	-0.0469
	(2.5362)	(0.4641)	(0.9170)	(0.4831)	(1.0274)	(0.3927)
Business Education	0.5104	0.0342	0.2737	-0.2427 *	0.9345 **	-0.0786
	(0.5184)	(0.1197)	(0.2323)	(0.1203)	(0.3503)	(0.1056)
Financial Experience	0.6037	0.0146	1.2564	-0.0987	0.48	0.3811
	(1.4524)	(0.5216)	(0.9116)	(0.5057)	(1.2508)	(0.4381)
Accounting Experience	1.194	-0.4332	-1.5176	-0.4574	-2.2117 *	0.185
	(2.5362)	-0.51	(1.0904)	(0.4599)	(1.1045)	(0.4176)
Business Experience	0.5104	-0.0145	-0.0842	0.1488	-0.0270	0.0998
	(0.5184)	().1115)	(0.2502)	(0.0990)	(0.2110)	(0.0943)

Table 5.9, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7a: Diversity, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		**Operating**		**Active or Operating**	
	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else
Bachelor's Degree	-2.3927	-0.0145	-0.2428	0.6705 +	1.2333	0.0753
	(1.5492)	(0.1115)	(0.6177)	(0.3461)	(0.8436)	(0.3096)
Mail Questionnaire	-4.2830 +	-0.7065	-1.0878	1.4836 **	-0.2865	0.55
	(2.2438)	(0.6048)	(1.0850)	(0.5380)	(1.2119)	(0.4889)
Ever Out of Labor Force	1.3231	0.7251	0.5434	-1.3450 **	2.6808 +	-0.9329 *
	(1.7346)	(0.5486)	(0.8927)	(0.5155)	(1.3766)	(0.4506)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	0.8386	-0.4022	-1.1207	0.3742	-2.2456 *	0.0845
	(1.7796)	(0.4180)	(0.8957)	(0.3868)	(1.1218)	(0.3503)
Team Characteristics						
Team Size	1.5983 +	0.0284	-0.3137	-0.2069	-0.2129	0.0295
	(0.8427)	(0.3167)	(0.3775)	(0.3099)	(0.3286)	(0.2953)
Ethnic Diversity	0.1461	0.8308	-1.5789	0.8322	0.0375	0.415
	(2.9177)	(0.6680)	(1.0833)	(0.7227)	(0.9914)	(.7230)
Gender Diversity	-4.8421 ***	-0.9129	0.3348	0.2666	1.2427	0.6657
	(1.4908)	(0.6234)	(0.7459)	(0.5288)	(0.8691)	(0.4817)
Occupational SEI Range	0.0645 +	-0.0166	-0.0089	0.0152	-0.0113	0.0002
	(0.0363)	(0.0160)	(0.0144)	(0.0146)	(0.0172)	().0137)
Startup Experience Diversity	-0.9914	-0.3511	-0.4566	-0.6370	0.3214	0.1173
	(1.1598)	(0.5532)	(0.4903)	(0.5472)	(0.6129)	(0.4587)
Age Range	-0.1675 *	0.0577 +	0.021	0.0557 *	0.039	-0.0137
	(0.0765)	(0.0350)	(0.0351)	(0.0275)	(0.0352)	(0.0311)
Industry Experience Range	0.4822 *	0.0379	0.0064	-0.1840 *	-0.0381	-0.1658 *
	(0.2237)	(0.0989)	(0.1003)	(0.0844)	(0.1272)	(0.0810)
Occupational Sex Typing Diversity	-0.3461	0.3548	1.5857 +	-0.2968	2.3761 *	-0.2690
	(1.6825)	(0.6437)	(0.9207)	(0.6396)	(1.0380)	(0.5302)
Controls						
Married	2.7818	1.0361 *	-0.6204	0.0898	-1.5724 *	-0.2703
	(2.8736)	(0.4096)	(0.7594)	().3553)	(0.7883)	(0.3198)
Parent	-1.1581	-0.3133	0.6811	-0.0949	0.6834	-0.0444
	(1.2076)	(0.4212)	(0.6791)	(0.3588)	(0.8677)	(0.3350)
Number of Children under 6	1.4939 +	0.2101	0.6811	-0.2498	-0.8474 +	-0.1165
	(0.8756)	().2553)	(0.6791)	(0.2576)	(0.4731)	(0.2202)
Own Home	5.8737 ***	-0.5718	-0.3349	0.1294	-0.1096	0.3265
	(1.5576)	(0.4208)	(0.6690)	(0.3752)	(0.9755)	(0.3358)
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.3361 **	-0.0825 ***	0.1715 **	-0.0155	0.2864 ***	0.037
	(0.1195)	(0.0280)	(0.0652)	(0.0343)	(0.0886)	(0.0261)
Log of Hours Invested	-0.6748	-0.0327	0.0718	0.0976	0.2238	0.0965 +
	(0.4832)	(0.0539)	(0.2263)	(0.1344)	(0.2489)	(0.0552)

Table 5.9, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 7a: Diversity, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		**Operating**		**Active or Operating**	
	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else
Home Business	-0.3662	0.358	-0.1367	-0.4363	0.5649	-0.6046 *
	(1.2286)	(0.3681)	(0.5891)	(0.3266)	(0.7762)	(0.2292)
High Technology	-0.8038	0.5901	-0.2217	-1.5176 **	-1.4015	-0.9989 +
	(3.1495)	(0.5987)	(0.9292)	(0.5908)	(1.0118)	(0.5151)
Service/Retail	1.0585	-0.1210	1.3493 +	-1.0685 **	-0.1801	-0.1490
	(1.5078)	(0.4014)	(0.8164)	(0.3797)	(0.9843)	(0.3552)
Industry Failure Rate	-0.8506	0.0137	-0.4577	0.5207 ***	0.3986	0.1597
	(0.8070)	(0.1624)	(0.3015)	(0.1604)	(0.3705)	(0.1304)
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0555	-0.0091	0.0176	0.0018	0.013	0.0059 *
	(0.0462)	(0.0057)	(0.0069)	(0.0015)	(0.0088)	(0.0027)
Income in 10,000s	-0.2661	0.0254	-0.0166	-0.0191	-0.0272 +	-0.0751 *
	(0.1949)	(0.0537)	(0.0131)	(0.0415)	(0.0142)	(0.0358)
South	-3.1361 *	0.0498	-0.1988	0.0069	0.0103	-0.0075
	(1.6027)	(0.3509)	(0.5164)	(0.3347)	(0.6057)	().3091)
Constant	22.1675 *	0.7748	3.2007	-6.7443 **	-7.6465	-2.3329
	(9.2375)	(2.1698)	(4.7790)	(2.3097)	(6.3982)	(1.9383)
N	130	349	130	349	130	349
X^2	71.16 **	44.26	41.58	65.9 **	43.55	49.09 *
df	40	40	40	40	40	40
Pseudo R^2	0.5208	0.147	0.2648	0.1819	0.3668	0.1444

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.10. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11 and 12: Relationships and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon			**Operating**
	Entire Sample	Women	Men	Entire Sample
Respondent Characteristics				
Female	-0.3305	-	-	0.3447
	(0.3032)			(0.2696)
Age	-0.1185	-0.2028 +	-0.1266	-0.0069
	(0.0751)	(0.1081)	(0.1112)	(0.0695)
African American/Hispanic	-0.5155	0.3925	-0.8632 +	-0.3222
	(0.3336)	(0.5684)	(0.4540)	(0.2666)
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0271	-0.0496	-0.0150	0.0491
	(0.0343)	(0.0536)	(0.0571)	(0.0302)
Startup Experience	0.0366	0.0521	0.0548	-0.2425
	(0.2967)	(0.4248)	(0.4369)	(0.2386)
Occupational SEI	0.0064	-0.0026	0.0023	0.0038
	(0.0064)	(0.0098)	(0.0099)	(0.0056)
Female-Typed Occupatoin	0.1587	-0.1706	0.4991	-0.0645
	(0.3774)	(0.4173)	(0.8837)	(0.3033)
Supplemental Status Characteristics				
Age^2	0.0014 +	0.0025 *	0.0015	0.0002
	(0.0009)	(0.0013)	(0.0013)	(0.0008)
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0455	0.1138	-0.0077	-0.0202
	(0.1078)	(0.0760)	(0.0634)	(0.0411)
Financial Education	-0.5554	-0.3625	-1.1921	0.404
	(0.5550)	(0.6725)	(0.8787)	(0.4378)
Accounting Education	0.1149	-0.0190	-0.2329	0.7126 +
	(0.3949)	(0.6224)	(0.6043)	(0.3742)
Business Education	0.0454	0.1215	0.1062	-0.1226
	(0.1078)	(0.1909)	(0.1400)	(0.0904)
Financial Experience	-0.2400	-0.1185	-0.7045	0.0973
	(0.4387)	(0.6551)	(0.7094)	(0.3562)
Accounting Experience	0.0594	0.8017	-0.3890	-0.6209 +
	(0.4354)	(0.6257)	(0.7328)	(0.3428)
Business Experience	-0.0088	-0.1540	0.1006	0.0817
	(0.0846)	(0.1351)	(0.1268)	(0.0794)
Bachelor's Degree	-0.3858	-0.0434	-0.1564	0.42
	(0.3181)	(0.5257)	(0.4728)	(0.2701)
Mail Questionnaire	-0.5910	-0.4968	-0.2261	0.5786
	(0.4951)	(0.9842)	(0.6845)	(0.4148)
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.348	0.5793	-0.3253	-0.7118 +
	(0.4356)	(0.6644)	(0.7270)	(0.3951)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.1243	0.6143	-0.2852	0.1013
	(0.3641)	(0.7069)	(0.5061)	(0.3011)

Table 5.10, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11 and 12: Relationships and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon						Operating	
	Entire Sample		Women		Men		Entire Sample	
Team Characteristics								
Team Size	0.0571		1.2655	+	0.0017		0.0435	
	(0.2787)		(0.7216)		(0.3584)		(0.1915)	
Tie Strength	-0.1556		-0.5926	+	-0.2031		0.1921	
	(0.1443)		(0.3061)		(0.1987)		(0.1232)	
Multiple Relationships	0.2276		-1.3166		0.1469		-0.4799	
	(0.7404)		(1.6785)		(1.0651)		(0.5296)	
Controls								
Married	0.8093	*	0.9205		1.1351	*	-0.1733	
	(0.3325)		(0.5836)		(0.4609)		(0.2943)	
Parent	-0.2177		0.298		-0.6799		0.085	
	(0.3431)		(0.5483)		(0.5260)		(0.2933)	
Number of Children under 6	0.1203		-0.2298		0.1787		-0.1662	
	(0.1678)		(0.2910)		(0.2186)		(0.1714)	
Own Home	-0.0327		-0.3468		0.1585		-0.0953	
	(0.3432)		(0.5595)		(0.4974)		(0.3013)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.0768	***	-0.0946	**	-0.0700	*	0.0386	
	(0.0225)		(0.0351)		(0.0324)		(0.0285)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.0318		-0.0650		-0.0244		0.0638	
	(0.0486)		(0.0621)		(0.0690)		(0.0898)	
Home Business	0.185		-0.4363		0.2739		-0.3760	
	(0.2925)		(0.4634)		-0.4698		(0.2430)	
High Technology	0.4243		-1.6570	+	0.691		-0.8135	+
	(0.5081)		(0.9186)		(0.6780)		(0.4347)	
Service/Retail	-0.2195		0.3311		-0.4339		-0.4882	
	(0.3619)		(0.9561)		(0.4822)		(0.3064)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0299		-0.0297		0.0797		0.2499	+
	(0.1346)		(0.3016)		(0.1885)		(0.1292)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0116	*	0.0021		-0.0262	*	0.0015	
	(0.0059)		(0.0045)		(0.0107)		(0.0011)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0061		-0.1176	+	0.0558		-0.0050	
	(0.0362)		(0.0681)		(0.0570)		(0.0100)	
South	-0.0485		-0.6398		0.3191		-0.0099	
	(0.3006)		(0.5585)		(0.4335)		(0.2447)	
Constant	1.4372		2.4576		0.7497		-3.2502	+
	(1.9212)		(2.7905)		(2.8782)		(.7873)	
N	479		240		239		479	
X^2	39.51		48.86	*	37.31		51.08	*
df	35		34		34		35	
Pseudo R^2	0.0975		0.196		0.1522		0.0986	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.10, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11 and 12: Relationships and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Respondent Characteristics										
Female	-		-		0.4142	+	-		-	
					(0.2490)					
Age	-0.1727		0.1304		0.0413		0.008		0.1374	
	(0.1221)		(0.0959)		(0.0631)		(0.1061)		(0.0930)	
African American/Hispanic	0.6656		-0.6555		0.2168		0.0292		0.2951	
	(0.4507)		(0.4161)		(0.2643)		(0.4721)		(0.3621)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0738		0.0482		0.0529		0.085	*	0.0258	
	(0.0453)		(0.0464)		(0.0274)		(0.0432)		(0.0427)	
Startup Experience	0.0875		-0.3931		0.3286		0.5313		0.2848	
	(0.3788)		(0.3420)		(0.2365)		(0.3596)		(0.3404)	
Occupational SEI	0.0153	+	-0.0014		-0.0062		0.0102		-0.0144	+
	(0.0091)		(0.0086)		(0.0055)		(0.0080)		(0.0086)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.0391		-0.0815		-0.2398		0.1033		-1.3338	+
	(0.3787)		(0.7895)		(0.2846)		(0.3395)		(0.7198)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics										
Age^2	0.0019		-0.0011		-0.0005		-0.0005		-0.0016	
	(0.0014)		(0.0011)		(0.0007)		(0.0012)		(0.0010)	
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0191		-0.0417		-0.0376		-0.0655		-0.0346	
	(0.0644)		(0.0600)		(0.0389)		(0.0684)		(0.0551)	
Financial Education	1.1238		0.2007		0.3164		0.519		0.7309	
	(0.6854)		(0.6458)		(0.4069)		(0.5996)		(0.5598)	
Accounting Education	0.771		0.8596		0.0488		-0.1219		0.2989	
	(0.5093)		(0.6005)		(0.3442)		(0.5250)		(0.4968)	
Business Education	-0.2865	*	-0.1139		-0.0014		-0.0305		-0.0823	
	(0.1417)		(0.5487)		(0.0850)		(0.1420)		(0.1211)	
Financial Experience	0.2128		0.0551		0.3087		0.2227		0.5392	
	(0.4629)		(0.5325)		(0.3479)		(0.4679)		(0.6005)	
Accounting Experience	-1.1384	*	-0.3856		-0.1789		-0.4663		-0.2122	
	(0.4845)		(0.5488)		(0.3387)		(0.4720)		(0.5478)	
Business Experience	0.1945		0.0379		0.0858		0.1296		0.0864	
	(0.1246)		(0.1140)		(0.0750)		(0.1137)		(0.1147)	
Bachelor's Degree	0.3756		0.4019		0.2246		-0.2866		0.3853	
	(0.4056)		(0.4198)		(0.2532)		(0.3872)		(0.3917)	
Mail Questionnaire	0.0563		0.589		0.3471		-0.1586		0.3577	
	(0.6452)		(0.6249)		(0.3798)		(0.6443)		(0.5244)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.325		-0.7028		-0.3947		-0.4005		0.4924	
	(0.5210)		(0.7866)		(0.3636)		(0.4494)		(0.6854)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.8314	+	0.4887		-0.1314		-1.2041	*	0.2585	
	(0.4728)		(0.4317)		(0.2895)		(0.4831)		(0.4242)	

Table 5.10, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11 and 12: Relationships and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Operating				Active or Operating					
	Women		Men		Entire Sample		Women		Men	
Team Characteristics										
Team Size	-0.7617		0.1175		0.2152		-1.1398	+	0.4919	
	(0.6090)		(0.2444)		(0.2188)		(0.613)		(0.3223)	
Tie Strength	0.4678		0.2137		0.035		0.5109	+	0.0015	
	(0.2840)		(0.1682)		(0.1183)		(0.2912)		(0.1801)	
Multiple Relationships	0.7869		-0.5763		-0.9566	+	1.6316		-1.5831	*
	(1.0121)		(0.7317)		(0.5627)		(1.0476)		(0.7855)	
Controls										
Married	0.3102		-0.6350		-0.3810		-0.3729		-0.6321	+
	(0.4764)		(0.4319)		(0.2602)		(0.4120)		(0.3745)	
Parent	-0.7416		0.5076		0.0951		-0.4479		0.3773	
	(0.4523)		(0.4445)		(0.2678)		(0.4005)		(0.4031)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.2338		-0.0730		-0.1703		-0.1751		-0.1253	
	(0.2869)		(0.2484)		(0.1561)		(0.2293)		(0.2420)	
Own Home	0.2339		-0.1401		0.2368		0.655		0.1438	
	(0.4468)		(0.4534)		(0.2750)		(0.4457)		(0.3953)	
Log of Dollars Invested	0.0331		0.0443		0.0524	*	0.0506		0.0558	+
	(0.0407)		(0.0382)		(0.0212)		(0.0342)		(0.0295)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.1583		0.0272		0.1185	*	0.196		0.0925	
	(0.1023)		(0.1314)		(0.0588)		(0.1221)		(0.0801)	
Home Business	-0.0469		-0.4651		-0.3264		0.317		-0.5752	+
	(0.3490)		(0.3754)		(0.2304)		(0.3665)		(0.3408)	
High Technology	-1.7421	*	-0.6258		-0.6775	+	-0.1297		-0.5073	
	(0.7461)		(0.5913)		(0.4089)		(0.7286)		(0.5512)	
Service/Retail	-1.7991	***	0.0427		-0.2160		-0.6207		-0.1196	
	(0.5623)		(0.4167)		(0.3049)		(0.6132)		(0.4296)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.413	+	0.3646	+	0.1494		0.2754		0.2208	
	(0.2113)		(0.2098)		(0.1092)		(0.2157)		(0.1588)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0025		0.0024	+	0.0023		-0.0029		0.0052	+
	(0.0039)		(0.0013)		(0.0016)		(0.0043)		(0.0030)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0003		0.0123		-0.0253	*	-0.0180	+	-0.0267	
	(0.0097)		(0.0469)		(0.0123)		(0.0099)		(0.0405)	
South	-0.6051		-0.0506		-0.089		0.1916		-0.4152	
	(0.3968)		(0.3550)		(0.2468)		(0.4137)		(0.3563)	
Constant	1.473		-7.4046	**	-2.3730		-0.0522		-4.7388	+
	(2.9540)		(2.7095)		(1.5766)		(2.5615)		(2.4716)	
N	240		239		479		240		239	
X^2	45.07	+	37.57		60.74	**	56.85	**	48.01	+
df	34		34		35		34		34	
Pseudo R^2	0.2026		0.1304		0.1069		0.2028		0.1573	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.11. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11a and 12a: Relationships, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon				Operating				Active or Operating			
	High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Respondent Characteristics												
Female	-3.2099	*	-0.0684		-0.2060		0.511		1.1071	+	0.394	
	(1.4667)		(0.3516)		(0.5905)		(0.3433)		(0.6113)		(0.3047)	
Age	-0.4638	+	-0.1055		-0.1538		0.0982		-0.0588		0.1081	
	(0.226)		(0.0953)		(0.1616)		(0.0926)		(0.1856)		(0.0863)	
African American/Hispanic	-2.7056		-0.5349		-1.1275	+	-0.0782		0.2566		0.2528	
	(2.6096)		(0.3813)		(0.6274)		(0.3250)		(0.7802)		(0.3175)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.4134		-0.0510		-0.0032		0.0537		-0.0422		0.077	*
	(0.2576)		(0.0388)		(0.0625)		(0.0391)		(0.0893)		(0.0338)	
Startup Experience	0.1051		0.1685		-0.7310		0.033		0.9337	+	0.2559	
	(0.8235)		(0.3560)		(0.5090)		(0.3031)		(0.5491)		(0.2899)	
Occupational SEI	0.0191		0.0048		0.0204	+	0.0015		0.0219		-0.0094	
	(0.0300)		(0.0066)		(0.0124)		(0.0069)		(0.0150)		(0.0066)	
Female-Typed Occupation	1.6599		0.1009		0.1432		-0.3023		-0.3839		-0.5127	
	(1.6866)		(0.4567)		(0.6798)		(0.3980)		(0.6818)		(0.3569)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics												
Age^2	0.005	*	0.0015		0.0018		-0.0011		0.0009		-0.0014	
	(0.0025)		(0.0011)		(0.0018)		(0.0011)		(0.0022)		(0.0010)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0695		0.0522		0.0132		-0.0501		-0.0599		-0.0280	
	(0.2040)		(0.0661)		(0.0895)		(0.0501)		(0.0933)		(0.0505)	
Financial Education	-0.0098		-0.2240		-0.4499		0.8616		-0.4560		0.627	
	(1.8501)		(0.6217)		(0.9690)		(0.5)536		(1.0240)		(0.4914)	
Accounting Education	2.6771		0.1454		0.7884		0.6518		-0.0227		-0.0797	
	(1.6311)		(0.4484)		(0.8898)		(0.4581)		().9019)		(0.3886)	
Business Education	-0.4737	+	0.0504		0.1538		-0.2371	*	0.64	**	-0.0854	
	(0.2859)		(0.1203)		(0.2136)		(0.1162)		(0.2409)		(0.1022)	
Financial Experience	-1.6372		0.0079		0.8708		-0.1630		0.4443		0.3672	
	(1.9084)		(0.5074)		(0.8661)		(0.4802)		(0.9967)		(0.4609)	
Accounting Experience	0.5265		-0.3368		-1.0406		-0.4104		-2.4599	*	0.1489	
	(0.3441)		(0.4975)		(0.9712)		(0.4254)		(1.0822)		(0.4136)	

Table 5.11, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11a and 12a: Relationships, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon				**Operating**				**Active or Operating**			
	High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else		High-Contributing Teams		Everyone Else	
Business Experience	0.5408		-0.0338		-0.0776		0.1189		0.086		0.0902	
	(0.3441)		(0.1058)		(0.2431)		(0.0929)		(0.2232)		(0.0897)	
Bachelor's Degree	-2.6307	**	-0.2754		-0.2107		0.6958	*	0.8006		0.1363	
	(0.8671)		(0.3607)		(0.5908)		(0.3379)		(0.6920)		(0.2983)	
Mail Questionnaire	-1.445		-0.8567		-1.2967		1.2907	*	-1.0991		0.5291	
	(1.9949)		(0.6081)		(1.1059)		(0.5368)		(1.2253)		(0.4626)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.9178		0.8411		0.5121		-1.1408	*	3.0024	**	-0.8812	+
	(1.1766)		(0.5302)		(0.8509)		(0.5368)		(1.0463)		(0.4529)	
Ever out of Full-Time Labor Force	2.353		-0.4986		-1.0602		0.2477		-2.7449	**	0.071	
	(1.4736)		(0.4129)		(0.8276)		().3707)		(0.9228)		(0.3389)	
Team Characteristics												
Team Size	0.9592		-0.0022		-0.2455		0.0515		-0.0798		0.3282	
	(0.7905)		(0.3787)		(0.4041)		(0.2776)		(0.4030)		(0.3522)	
Tie Strength	-0.9814		-0.0801		0.4839		-0.2066		1.2582	*	-0.0706	
	(0.9139)		(0.1919)		(0.5372)		(0.8091)		(0.6105)		(0.1819)	
Multiple Relationships	-2.5953		0.5077		-0.3426		-0.2066)		0.017		-1.5429	
	(2.0388)		(0.9852)		(1.1152)		(0.8091)		(1.0985)		(0.8660)	
Controls												
Married	1.581		0.917	*	0.0012		-0.0499		-1.2353	+	-0.3049	
	(1.7628)		(0.3987)		(0.7561)		(0.3431)		(0.7278)		(0.3160)	
Parent	0.3306		-0.3908		0.5119		-0.0409		0.8076		-0.0205	
	(1.3079)		(0.4127)		(0.6306)		(0.3461)		(0.7364)		(0.3325)	
Number of Children under 6	0.799		0.2481		0.0316		-0.1916		-0.7230	*	-0.0832	
	(1.1322)		(0.2503)		(0.3111)		(0.2459)		(0.3661)		(0.2117)	
Own Home	3.8706	**	-0.6074		-0.4300		0.0217		-0.3709		0.4363	
	(1.4595)		(0.4171)		(0.6530)		(0.3717)		(0.8277)		(0.3374)	
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.2019		-0.0854	***	0.1404	*	0.0002		0.2078	***	0.0365	
	(0.1419)		(0.0258)		(0.0688)		(0.0322)		(0.0645)		(0.0241)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.5202		-0.0127		0.0206		0.0897		0.1385		0.1034	+
	(0.3479)		(0.0563)		(0.2112)		(0.1223)		(0.2527)		(0.0570)	
Home Business	0.3728		0.269		-0.2563		-0.3847		0.29		-0.4585	
	(1.6491)		(0.3431)		(0.5494)		(0.2988)		(0.6561)		(0.2838)	
High Technology	-0.2806		0.8316		-0.5396		-1.2665	*	-1.4875		-0.8254	+
	(1.8065)		(0.6098)		(0.8904)		(0.5543)		(1.0919)		(0.5011)	

Table 5.11, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypotheses 11a and 12a: Relationships, Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		Operating		Active or Operating	
	Teams with high levels of contributions	Everyone Else	Teams with high levels of contributions	Everyone Else	Teams with high levels of contributions	Everyone Else
Service/Retail	-0.2308	-0.0417	1.1804	-1.0122 **	-0.5859	-0.1985
	(1.3030)	(0.3877)	(0.7261)	(0.3808)	(0.7622)	(0.3450)
Industry Failure Rate	-0.3322	-0.0221	-0.3967	0.4743 **	0.49	0.147
	(0.7505)	(0.1566)	(0.2717)	(0.1532)	(0.3034)	(0.1278)
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0853 *	-0.0099 +	0.0151 *	0.0018	0.0126	0.0041 *
	(0.0431)	(0.0058)	(0.0071)	(0.0012)	(0.0082)	(0.0018)
Income in 10,000s	-0.1720	0.0178	-0.0175	-0.0075	-0.0311 *	-0.0670 +
	(0.1603)	(0.0530)	(0.0135)	(0.0371)	(0.0132)	(0.0345)
South	-1.2540	0.019	-0.3705	0.0344	-0.3071	-0.0196
	(0.8914)	(0.3413)	(0.5421)	(0.3345)	(0.6022)	(0.3051)
Constant	11.4919	1.2846	3.6422	-6.9659 ***	-6.7070	-2.9863
	(8.0522)	(2.1425)	(4.8501)	(2.1761)	(5.6481)	(1.8809)
N	130	349	130	349	130	349
X^2	59.21 **	34.86	38.26	56.25 *	46.67 +	55.97 *
df	35	35	35	35	35	35
Pseudo R^2	0.4427	0.1229	0.2072	0.1582	0.2983	0.1393

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.12. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13: Teams' Moderating Effect on Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned				Operating			
	Team Members		Solo Entrepreneurs		Team members		Solo Entrepreneurs	
Respondent Characteristics								
Female	-0.4910		-0.1496		0.3476		0.6147	
	(0.4814)		(0.4775)		(0.4044)		(0.4702)	
Age	-0.0992		-0.2646	+	0.0634		0.0253	
	(0.1304)		(0.1402)		(0.1079)		(0.1008)	
African American/Hispanic	0.0385		-1.3867	*	-0.7282	+	-0.0329	
	(0.4632)		(0.6592)		(0.4108)		(0.3988)	
Log of Industry Experience	0.0387		-0.1147	*	0.0084		0.1115	*
	(0.0511)		(0.0574)		(0.0397)		(0.0549)	
Startup Experience	0.1695		-0.2259		-0.4663		0.457	
	(0.4020)		(0.5231)		(0.3491)		(0.4217)	
Occupational SEI	0.0102		0.0105		-0.0023		0.0082	
	(0.0107)		(0.0089)		(0.0087)		(0.0088)	
Female-Typed Occupation	0.3712		-0.2685		-0.2782		-0.1520	
	(0.5218)		(0.6431)		(0.4770)		(0.4914)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics								
Age^2	0.0008		0.0037	*	-0.0004		-0.0004	
	(0.0015)		(0.0016)		(0.0012)		(0.0011)	
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0496		0.12		-0.0172		-0.0891	
	(0.0710)		(0.1007)		(0.0574)		(0.0715)	
Financial Education	-1.1261		-0.2329		0.0139		1.4495	+
	(0.8792)		(0.8714)		(0.6837)		(0.7530)	
Accounting Education	0.5671		0.2991		1.571	*	-0.5487	
	(0.6190)		(0.5849)		(0.6255)		(0.6296)	
Business Education	-0.0573		0.0979		-0.1665		-0.1262	
	(0.1492)		(0.1538)		(0.1380)		(0.1448)	
Financial Experience	-0.4134		-0.8671		-0.0904		0.6813	
	(0.5347)		(0.6368)		(0.5221)		(0.5980)	
Accounting Experience	1.7751	*	-0.8461		-1.0240	+	0.0567	
	(0.7545)		(0.5727)		(0.5307)		(0.5561)	
Business Experience	-0.1750		0.1953		0.0544		-0.0476	
	(0.1363)		(0.1611)		(0.1139)		(0.1216)	
Bachelor's Degree	1.2035	*	0.3522		0.1851		0.638	
	(0.4756)		(0.5018)		(0.4146)		(0.4476)	
Mail Questionnaire	-1.0731		-0.7865		0.0819		1.3342	
	(0.7295)		(0.8086)		(0.5850)		(0.7704)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.3344		0.6606		-0.5559		-1.1856	+
	(0.7083)		(0.7051)		(0.6026)		(0.6819)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Froce	0.1723		-0.2775		-0.0579		0.1179	
	(0.5292)		(0.5701)		(0.4547)		(0.4395)	

Table 5.12, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13: Teams' Moderating Effect on Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandoned				Operating			
	Team Members		Solo Entrepreneurs		Team members		Solo Entrepreneurs	
Controls								
Married	0.5826		1.2259	*	-0.3632		0.175	
	(0.5416)		(0.5256)		(0.5267)		(0.4395)	
Parent	-0.5005		-0.0401		0.5617		-0.8838	+
	(0.4769)		(0.5622)		(0.4648)		(0.4881)	
Number of Children under 6	0.0436		78.36		-0.2791		-0.0079	
	(0.2314)		(0.3094)		(0.2844)		(0.3010)	
Own Home	0.5824		-1.1731	*	-0.5911		0.5723	
	(0.4760)		(0.5723)		(0.4846)		(0.5050)	
Log of Dollars invested	-0.0513		-0.0914	*	0.0234		0.081	
	(0.0322)		(0.0406)		(0.0343)		(0.0796)	
Log of Hours Invested	-0.2423		-0.0233		0.3122	**	-0.0206	
	(0.1659)		(0.0695)		(0.1142)		(0.1078)	
Home Business	-0.0676		0.1597		-0.4634		-0.4512	
	(0.3806)		(0.4984)		(0.3432)		(0.4489)	
High Technology	0.7887		0.2741		-0.7563		-1.3649	+
	(0.7184)		(0.8522)		(0.5587)		(0.7141)	
Service/Retail	-0.1563		-0.2513		0.1481		-1.2091	*
	(0.5583)		(0.5472)		(0.4118)		(0.5287)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0669		-0.0472		0.1484		0.4746	*
	(0.1909)		(0.2109)		(0.1659)		(0.2127)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0164	+	-0.0113		0.0043		-0.0017	
	(0.0085)		(0.0103)		(0.0030)		(0.0037)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0057		0.0366		-0.0083		-0.1526	*
	(0.0473)		(0.0704)		(0.0109)		(0.0742)	
South	-0.4909		0.4303		0.1915		-0.0319	
	(0.4414)		(0.4784)		(0.3502)		(0.4729)	
Constant	3.0079		3.1365		-4.1592		-4.5667	+
	(3.0345)		(2.8973)		(2.5976)		(2.3928)	
N	249		230		249		230	
X^2	27.29		49.42	*	35.52		53.96	**
df	32		32		32		32	
Pseudo R^2	0.1758		0.2484		0.1504		0.2283	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.12, Page 3. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13: Teams' Moderating Effect on Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Active or Operating			
	Team members		Solo Entrepreneurs	
Respondent Characteristics				
Female	0.5716		0.8657	*
	(0.3700)		(0.4418)	
Age	-0.0658		0.2645	*
	(0.1278)		(0.1157)	
African American/Hispanic	-0.2170		0.6127	
	(0.3820)		(0.4555)	
Log of Industry Experience	-0.0073		0.1865	***
	(0.0393)		(0.0464)	
Startup Experience	0.1899		0.7713	+
	(0.3458)		(0.4171)	
Occupational SEI	0.0016		-0.0193	*
	(0.0089)_		(0.0083)	
Female-Typed Occupation	-0.3421		-0.6007	
	(0.4011)		(0.4754)	
Supplemental Status Characteristics				
Age^2	0.0009		-0.0036	**
	(0.0016)		(0.0014)	
Log of Managerial Experience	-0.0313		-0.1198	
	(0.0565)		(0.0777)	
Financial Education	0.6711		0.4423	
	(0.6630)		(0.6615)	
Accounting Education	-0.0907		-0.3559	
	(0.5505)		(0.5014)	
Business Education	0.1616		-0.1255	
	(0.1386)		(0.1338)	
Financial Experience	-0.1573		1.5381	**
	(0.4857)		(0.5688)	
Accounting Experience	-1.1620	*	0.609	
	(0.5378)		(0.5340)	
Business Experience	0.1885		-0.1456	
	(0.1195)		(0.1215)	
Bachelor's Degree	0.1873		0.0721	
	(0.3885)		(0.3873)	
Mail Questionnaire	0.5165		0.0722	
	(0.5500)		(0.6587)	
Ever Out of Labor Force	0.6505		-1.1158	*
	(0.5336)		(0.5464)	
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	-0.6745		-0.1385	
	(0.4299)		(0.4643)	

Table 5.12, Page 4. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13: Teams' Moderating Effect on Status and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Active or Operating			
	Team members		Solo Entrepreneurs	
Controls				
Married	-0.0369		-0.1352	
	(0.4455)		(0.4222)	
Parent	0.4512		-0.6758	
	(0.4295)		(0.4601)	
Number of Children under 6	-0.4315	+	-0.1352	
	(0.2354)		(0.2383)	
Own Home	-0.3868		1.0629	*
	(0.4328)		(0.4399)	
Log of Dollars invested	0.0384		0.0468	
	(0.0283)		(0.0382)	
Log of Hours Invested	0.4274	***	0.0663	
	(0.1175)		(0.0565)	
Home Business	-0.2148		-0.4055	
	(0.3349)		(0.4022)	
High Technology	-1.0085	+	-1.1698	+
	(0.5850)		(0.6502)	
Service/Retail	-0.1803		-0.4278	
	(0.4394)		(0.5188)	
Industry Failure Rate	0.0574		0.4724	*
	(0.1474)		(0.1964)	
Net Worth in 10,000s	0.0033		0.0037	
	(0.0040)		(0.0041)	
Income in 10,000s	-0.0196	+	-0.1587	**
	(0.0107)		(0.0537)	
South	0.1253		-0.2626	
	(0.3663)		(0.4121)	
Constant	-1.8139		-5.2732	
	(2.7080)		(2.5775)	*
N	249		230	
X^2	41.72		62.37	***
df	32		32	
Pseudo R^2	0.1662		0.2579	

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

Table 5.13. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13a: Individual Status, Team Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		**Operating**		**Active or Operating**	
	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else
Respondent Characteristics						
Female	-2.8684 *	-0.0402	0.0213	0.4973	1.3783 *	0.3494
	(1.2192)	(0.3498)	(0.5983)	(0.3425)	(0.5921)	(0.2982)
Age	-0.5265 *	-0.1044	-0.1504	0.0957	0.0288	0.0984
	(0.2341)	(0.0941)	(0.1593)	(0.0912)	(0.1767)	(0.0899)
African American/Hispanic	-2.1368	-0.5454	-0.9880	-0.0730	0.2965	0.1824
	(2.1435)	(0.3677)	(0.6265)	(0.3180)	(0.7549)	(0.3163)
Log of Industry Experience	0.3089	-0.0450	0.0006	0.0497	-0.0166	0.075 *
	(0.2113)	(0.0379)	(0.0620)	(0.0394)	(0.0826)	(0.0324)
Startup Experience	0.0071	0.1574	-0.8034 +	0.0125	0.6591	0.2438
	(0.7791)	(0.3477)	(0.4821)	(0.2927)	(0.5084)	(0.2852)
Occupational SEI	0.0321	0.0052	0.0151	0.0011	0.0106	-0.0101
	(0.0284)	'(0.0067)	(0.0120)	(0.0068)	(0.0142)	(0.0066)
Female-Typed Occupation	1.0852	0.0686	0.1551	-0.3011	-0.2312	-0.4962
	(1.3619)	(0.4526)	(0.6893)	(0.3958)	(0.6625)	(0.3516)
Supplemental Status Characteristics						
Age^2	0.0055 *	0.0015	0.0018	-0.0010	0.00000043	-0.0013
	(0.0024)	(0.0011)	(0.0018)	(0.0011)	(0.0021)	(0.0011)
Log of Managerial Experience	0.0896	0.0501	0.012	-0.0505	-0.0975	-0.0321
	(0.1919)	(0.0633)	(0.0887)	(0.0494)	(0.0921)	(0.0492)
Financial Education	0.1368	-0.1891	-0.231	0.8631	-0.6733	0.6166
	(1.8537)	(0.6320)	(0.9423)	(0.5497)	(0.9716)	(0.5042)
Accounting Education	1.9563	0.1407	0.665	0.6369	-0.0772	-0.0735
	(1.6321)	(0.4522)	(0.8949)	(0.4542)	(0.8008)	(0.3903)
Business Education	-0.3601	0.0513	0.1188	-0.2376 *	0.6065 **	-0.0737
	(0.2637)	(0.1198)	(0.2262)	(0.1149)	(0.2201)	(0.1042)
Financial Experience	-1.1807	0.0392	0.8883	-0.1570	0.4496	0.2992
	(1.5501)	(0.5123)	(0.8184)	(0.4705)	(0.9090)	(0.4516)
Accounting Experience	0.4016	-0.3184	-0.9339	-0.4122	-2.0074 +	0.1643
	(1.6566)	(0.5042)	(0.9640)	(0.4244)	(1.0411)	(0.4153)
Business Experience	0.5451	-0.2753	-0.1130	0.1238	0.0052	0.0978
	(0.3772)	(0.3640)	(0.2285)	(0.0924)	(0.2183)	(0.0894)
Bachelor's Degree	-1.9219 *	-0.2753	-0.2385	0.7111 *	0.74	0.1109
	(0.8547)	(0.3640)	(0.5808)	(0.3353)	(0.6568)	(0.3000)
Mail Questionnaire	-2.1671	-0.8640	-1.2045	1.2556 *	-0.6672	0.4829
	(1.6639)	(0.5931)	(1.0412)	(0.5254)	(1.0969)	(0.4524)

Table 5.13, Page 2. Logistic Regression for Hypothesis 13a: Individual Status, Team Contributions, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

	Abandon		**Operating**		**Active or Operating**	
	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else	High-Contributing Teams	Everyone Else
Ever Out of Labor Force	-0.1208	0.8398	0.5087	-1.1508 *	2.5497 **	-0.8173 +
	(1.1577)	(0.5154)	(0.7913)	(0.5004)	(0.9295)	(0.4411)
Ever Out of Full-Time Labor Force	1.4608	-0.4773	-1.0636	0.2395	-2.4473 **	0.0326
	(1.1792)	(0.4051)	(0.8021)	(0.3676)	(0.8172)	(0.3443)
Controls						
Married	1.5736	0.8898 +	0.0774	-0.0021	1.0181	-0.2773
	(1.5260)	(0.5154)	(0.7452)	(0.3171)	(0.7843)	(0.3097)
Parent	0.8634	-0.3641	0.5967	-0.0393	0.6427	-0.0396
	(1.3629)	(0.4166)	(0.6146)	(0.3425)	(0.6953)	(0.3285)
Number of Children under 6	0.6164	0.2519	0.0368	-0.2085	-0.6332 +	-0.0871
	(0.8598)	(0.2535)	(0.3144)	(0.2420)	(0.3252)	(0.2118)
Own Home	3.2623 **	-0.6122	-0.2437	0.0356	-0.3961	0.3769
	(1.2210)	().4049)	(0.6486)	(0.3598)	(0.8261)	(0.3312)
Log of Dollars Invested	-0.1259	-0.0850 ***	0.1422 +	-0.0008	0.1898 **	0.0406 +
	(0.1035)	(0.0253)	(0.0736)	(0.0315)	(0.0642)	(0.0236)
Log of Hours Invested	-0.4647	-0.0151	0.0669	0.0894	0.2028	0.0985
	(0.2886)	(0.0565)	(0.2033)	(0.1204)	(0.2438)	(0.0560)
Home Business	0.2328	0.2636	-0.2072	-0.3955	0.253	-0.4722 +
	(1.3066)	(0.3354)	(0.5204)	(0.2915)	(0.6323)	(0.2784)
High Technology	-0.5636	0.9407	-0.7458	-1.2789 *	-1.4118	-0.9790 *
	(1.6251)	(0.6161)	(0.8628)	(0.5379)	(1.0358)	(0.4964)
Service/Retail	-0.3739	-0.0766	1.1384	-1.016 **	-0.4853	-0.1046
	(1.0401)	(0.3805)	(0.7008)	(0.3781)	(0.7347)	(0.3592)
Industry Failure Rate	-0.4449	-0.0190	-0.3998	0.4757 **	0.4654	0.1546
	(0.8194)	(0.1554)	(0.2600)	(0.1530)	(0.2939)	(0.1257)
Net Worth in 10,000s	-0.0581	-0.0100 +	0.0143 *	0.0018	0.0108	0.0045 *
	(0.0611)	(0.0058)	(0.0070)	(0.0012)	(0.0084)	(0.0023)
Income in 10,000s	-0.1380	0.021	-0.0188	-0.0071	-0.0318	-0.0665 *
	(0.1609)	(0.0506)	(0.0146)	(0.0378)	(0.0139)	(0.0337)
South	-1.0272	0.0375	-0.3130	0.0158	-0.3085	0.0131
	(0.7859)	(0.3442)	(0.5124)	(0.3326)	(0.5786)	(0.2995)
Constant	12.2601	1.2082	4.0547	-6.7690 ***	-5.2296	-2.4761
	(8.1164)	(1.9943)	(4.4675)	(2.0325)	(4.9373)	(1.8637)
N	130	349	130	349	130	349
X^2	41.27	33.29	32.87	55.18 **	43.03 +	52.06 *
df	32	32	32	32	32	32
Pseudo R^2	0.413	0.1205	0.1949	0.1574	0.2679	0.1287

+=<0.1, *=p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***=p<0.001

Robust standard errors in ()

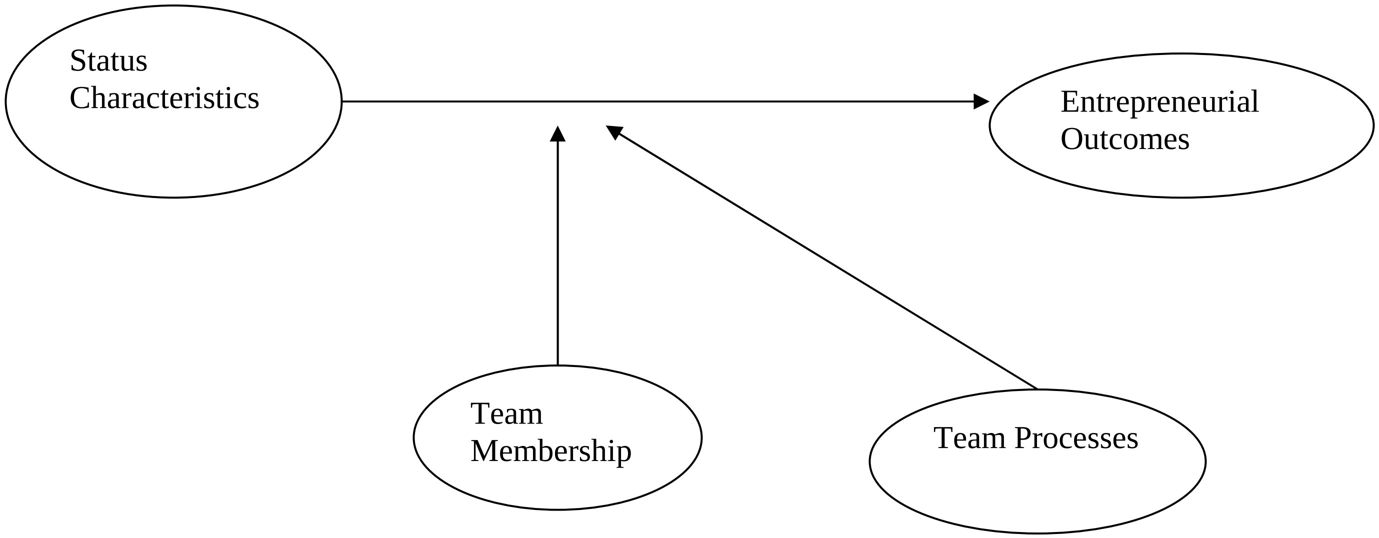

Figure 1: Individual Status, Teams, Team Processes, and Entrepreneurial Outcomes

Individual status will influence entrepreneurial outcomes (Hypothesis 1). This relationship will be moderated by membership in startup teams (hypothesis 13) and the effectiveness of team processes, that is, the extent to which team members contribute assistance (hypothesis 13a).

Figure 2: Hypothesis 2

Team member status characteristics will influence the number and types of contributions they are credited with providing.

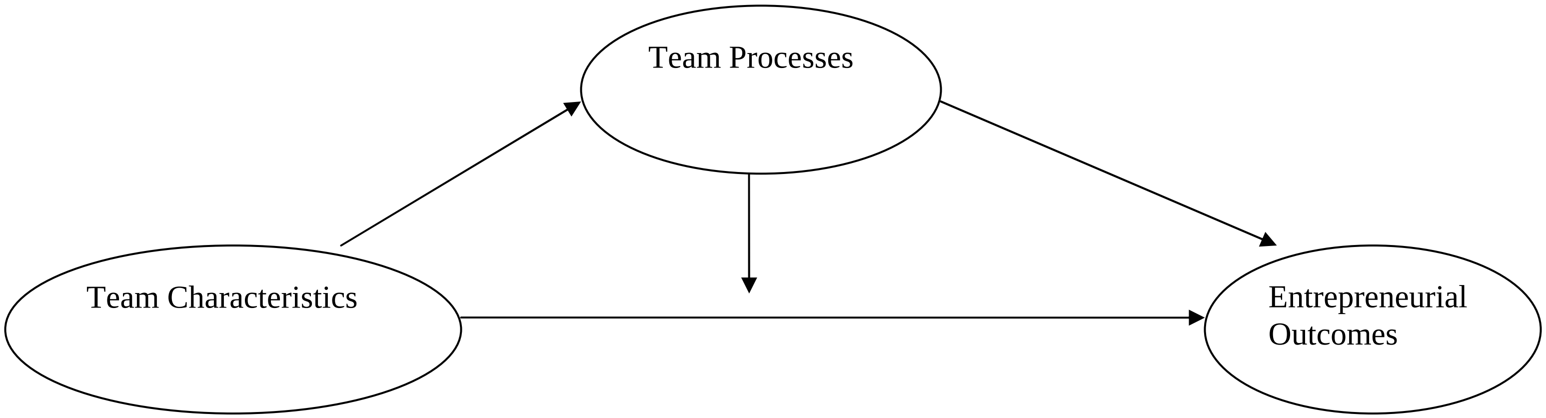

Figure 3: Team Resources and Processes

Team characteristics such as average and maximum status, diversity, and relationships among team members influence both team processes (Chapter 4) and entrepreneurial outcomes (Chapter 5). The effects of these characteristics on entrepreneurial outcomes are influenced by team processes. Includes hypotheses 3-12a.

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