Entrepreneurs or Employees: What Chinese Citizens Encouraged to Become by Social Attitudes?

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Abstract

The traditional way of the "troika" cannot support sustainable development for China, and future economic growth should be pushed by entrepreneurship, which can be the key to innovation. The paper analyses the importance and necessity of entrepreneurship in the context of China and its current situation systematically, and methodically studies whether it is entrepreneurs or employees that social attitudes encourage citizens to become. Using Chinese General Social Survey data, the paper explores the essentiality of social attitudes from three perspectives: social equity, social happiness and social trust that can reflect the social atmosphere, and examines the influential factors in terms of personal characteristics through an empirical approach. The paper finds that citizens' feelings and perceptions of social equity and social happiness have a significant positive impact on encouraging them to be entrepreneurs, with positive factors such as income, social security and children, and negative factors such as education, political identity and hukou. The effect can be more significant for urban citizens than rural ones; men and women are affected differently by the same factors in their choice to become employees or entrepreneurs.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship; Social Attitude; Equity; Happiness; Social Atmosphere; Chinese General Social Survey

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1. Introduction

Based on marketisation and liberalisation, China's economy has grown rapidly, and industrialisation and urbanisation have seen China leap to be the world's second largest economy now, which can be attributed to that it was driven by the "troika". China, however, faces challenges that may be larger due to the current state of investment, consumption and export. It is a must to keep the mind open to avoid stagnation, and it is significant to seek or create new opportunities for development.

It is entrepreneurship that can help to provide effective and reliable opportunities for China; entrepreneurship, regarded as an important force in stimulating innovation, can promote economic growth vigorously (Schumpeter, 1934). However, compared with the "troika", it is not an easy task, hard to control and manipulate, and often means starting from scratch. Entrepreneurs need to industriously overcome social obstacles to allow the enterprises to survive and grow with limited resources by innovation stemming from entrepreneurship. Therefore, as intelligent and courageous doers of creative destruction, entrepreneurs with entrepreneurship, who are always trying to accomplish more high-risk and uncertain activities, have their own attitudes, and they have to be in a certain social environment based on a certain social atmosphere and social attitudes of others. Social attitudes, shared by social groups, are people's comprehensive disposition towards other members of society or overall view on social issues, reflecting the evaluative manners that individuals tend to think and behave; it can be considered as part of vivid external manifestations or specific concrete reflections of informal institutions, and such socially transmitted information, based on normative and cognitive pillars, including cultures, ethics and norms, may be elusive, but the intrinsic value is worthy of further study in the regard, for there must be links with the societal structure that prepare indicators like stratification, mobility and risk tolerance as influential factors to decision making - to most of the decisions that the social groups may make. They are important factors affecting entrepreneurship, so social attitudes are deemed to considerably determine whether citizens become entrepreneurs or employees; the social attitudes, at least, act as encouragement or discouragement. For example, Krys et al. (2018) stated that open societies can foster four altruistic attitudes, including trust and minimization of materialistic pressure, and found the mechanism promoting satisfaction, which can be linked with entrepreneurship due to the confidence and expectations it inspires.

Nowadays, the factors that affect entrepreneurship have been studied more and more; governments and institutions have increasingly attached more importance to entrepreneurs, as entrepreneurship is able to do a favour to develop the economy, create new positions to improve employment, and build a sustainability framework.

Although previous entrepreneurship research has covered a very wide range of topics, the relevant independent theoretical framework needs to be further developed, and an issue of great magnitude is that the relationship between entrepreneurship and social atmosphere has not been elucidated, and the influence of social attitudes shaped by the social atmosphere is unclear, which has become an obstacle to advancing entrepreneurship theory research. Therefore, a more systematic and in-depth study of the relationship between entrepreneurship and social attitudes is necessary to further reveal how to effectively motivate entrepreneurship.

Hence, for the study, the paper will focus primarily on social attitudes, which are categorised into three subjective feelings, namely social equity, social happiness and social trust. Then, controlling for influences on individuals, the corresponding data from the CGSS will be used to examine the impact of the three attitudes of social equity, social happiness and social trust on entrepreneurship in China. The potential new findings of the paper can be the relations between entrepreneurship and social attitudes, and the effects of other variables on it, which can help researchers to be equipped with opposite or supportive evidence about what may have an impact on entrepreneurship. To address the issues, the paper reviews the literature in the second section, analysing the various factors that influence entrepreneurship and exploring its relationship with social attitudes. In the third section, the paper selectively analyses the background and situation step by step, showing the importance and necessity; in the fourth section, materials and methods are presented, and the paper advances the research based on CGSS data. After describing the data and model, the paper starts in the fifth section with correlation analysis and regression analysis to see the connection between social attitudes and entrepreneurship; for gender and urban-rural location, the paper provides an analysis of heterogeneity in the gender and urban-rural location of entrepreneurs, followed by an explanation. Finally, in the sixth section of the paper, conclusions are drawn, with proposals for sustainable economic development in terms of institutions, systems, etc.

2. Literature Review

To achieve innovation, Schumpeter (1934) argued that new products, new methods of production, new markets, new materials and sources, and new forms of organisation shall be necessary for new combinations, and Schumpeter referred to people whose basic function are to achieve new combinations as entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs, working on creative destruction, are the main creators of innovation that can be the main drivers of economic development, while entrepreneurship and it are closely related and progressing together. Since Schumpeter's brilliant insights into economic development, the literature analysing entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship

had followed, and it has been proven that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs are formed in the counteraction of the social environment, which Schumpeter believed manifests in many ways, resulting in an ultimate need for innovation. Social environment, coupled with social atmosphere and attitudes, can be the root cause of innovation, and entrepreneurship is seen as a source of technological progress and innovation, which can be the most crucial driver of economic growth (Acs and Audretsch, 1990; Audretch and Keilbach, 2004; Audretsch et al., 2006; Pietak, 2014).

The connotation of innovation has been expanded and deepened on the basis of Schumpeter's ideas (McDaniel, 2000; Abouzeedan, 2010). For example, according to Hongbin Li (2012), Haner (2002) directed the research toward innovation quality; Godoe (2011) explored the soul of innovation created by the imagination from an aesthetic perspective. In addition to the information above, scholars have endowed a clearer definition to "entrepreneur" as distinct from capitalist or any small business owner; recently, entrepreneurs have been identified with more characteristics, such as entrepreneurial vision, personal need for achievement, attitude to risk and confidence (Lee et al., 2004; Djankov et al., 2006). The studies are valuable and have much to offer. Entrepreneurs must demonstrate the ability to realise innovation, overcome social resistance and have skills to consistently apply new methods to generate new combinations (Carland, 2009). As the connotations of innovation and entrepreneurs themselves and the subjects of innovation have become broader and more diverse together, the factors that influence entrepreneurship have also increased; certainly, its definition is still evolving. Like innovation, the term entrepreneur remains, in general, an ill-defined construct.

Whilst existing research can be already outstanding and of high quality, there will be scope for further exploration of its relevance as socio-economic realities change and academic theories advance. The academic sector has begun to develop models that incorporate antecedents and consequences for more systematic analysis, such as through intent, feasibility and desirability have proven to be important. However, the impact of the external environment, which contains informal institutions, on individuals, processes and organisations has not received enough attention. Urban and Kujinga (2017) made it clear that a large proportion of the studies were either case-based or focus on examining the government regulatory environment, and there has been a considerable amount of similar literature; most of the existing literature has been rigorous and scientific enough, but the amount cannot reflect the importance of the issues, and the concerns can also be viewed from a wider perspective, which means that informal institutions should be concerned (Valdez, 2013; Shu et al., 2019). Other aspects, that are relatively lacking, also deserve to be explored.

Hongbin Li (2012) argued that entrepreneurship also has a significant positive

impact on economic growth in China, and that the existing results and findings are suitable and applicable even after controlling the demographic and institutional variables. As the world's second-largest economy and the largest developing country, China's experiences and data are valuable and deserve more attention and focus, as they may help to analyse the factors influencing entrepreneurial intentions to discover what exactly influences entrepreneurship, both relatively hard and soft antecedents. There is a lot of literature in Chinese that demonstrates the importance, impact and meaning of innovation-driven development in China and, indeed, the factors that promote entrepreneurship, are very valuable; however, there is not much research on what can promote it, and most of the research now revolves around micro-levels such as the individual or the family. At the macro level, several studies focus on the digital economy and digital finance; as to frontiers, they may be amazing and interesting, but at the same time they are currently rather vaguely defined when the situation of the digital economy has flourished but cannot be said to have matured absolutely (Xie, 2018; Li, 2021). It may be too early to be able to summarise what exactly the impact can be. Is it a powerful externality shock? Is it possible to analyse it based on deconstructionism? These issues may have to be studied in further depth. Delving further into micro or macro causes by improving understanding of these influences is important to explain the context, origins, development and meaning of innovation and entrepreneurship (Baierl et al., 2014; Schlaegel and Koenig, 2014). Mair and Noboa (2003) argued that it is beneficial to investigate the sources of the intention to establish a business; it is worthwhile to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the society as well as the individual.

The research of Newth and Woods (2014) must be highly enlightening, as they thought that social entrepreneurship emerged from social and historical contexts, which brought the institutional norms, routines, and conventions that may challenge and constrain innovation. Newth and Woods also considered resistance as a positive force for innovation, and context can compel it too. In addition to the studies mentioned above, Block et al. (2017) reviewed more literature, and offered insights as well. As in Block's text, most governments in developed countries spend large amounts of money to stimulate entrepreneurship, either by stimulating citizens to start their own businesses through many means, including education, or as service-oriented governments that help citizens to start their own businesses through tax breaks and reduced approval processes; innovative entrepreneurship is rooted in the connection between the individual and opportunity (Shane, 2003); opportunities based on knowledge, technology or research-driven opportunities are strong support for innovative entrepreneurship (Acs et al., 2009); socio-economic and personality characteristics such as academic education and technical background make innovative

entrepreneurship more likely (Shane, 2000; Koellinger, 2008; Turker, 2009). F Hoos added that passion plays an essential role and has a positive social impact. In addition to the opportunities and personal characteristics of the entrepreneur, the environmental context and the resources from the stakeholders also have an impact (Eisenhardt and Schoonhoven, 1996). For example, U Stephan et al. (2015) confirmed the effects on social entrepreneurship of informal normative institutions, such as socially supportive cultural norms, or weak-tie social capital, the findings were used and examined by new studies in China (Huang et al., 2021). In addition, F Hoos (2018), paid attention to a group of social entrepreneurs, who have suffered from social injustice or have been impacted by environmental issues, and they have dedicated their lives to correcting past wrongs. Hoos, when talking about how to measure and control sustainability, found that entrepreneurship can create social value and have a positive impact on society, which may mean that entrepreneurship can imply a change in society and can be closely linked to the social climate and social attitudes; it can have a positive effect compared to the society of the past, so society may be improved as a result. The comprehensive analysis has been carried out, but most of the studies ended up coming back to the individual level. Informal institutions have been valued, as the studies Stephan and Huang have done; the insights can be helpful actually, offering some new factors to research.

Innovation, a remarkable engine of economic development, should be created by private entrepreneurs, as it is private entrepreneurs that innovate, and the results of successful entrepreneurship are economic development, as well as equal rights, peace, freedom, and progress of technology, economy and society. Sandal (2017) argued that the aforementioned conditions are essential to spreading democracy around the world and those successful entrepreneurs cannot be replaced by government power. Sandal stated that such a process of wealth creation lay the foundation for democracy; without democracy, the economy promoted in another form under an irrational system, sustainable development cannot be achieved. Without freedom, equity and rule of law, the social attitudes, formed under the influence of political power, organisational structure, institutions and culture, may build barriers to innovation. Chadee and Roxas (2013) found that despite innovation capacity could mediate the effects of institutions on firm performance, the state of regulatory quality, rule of law and corruption inhibited firm innovation and performance, and future research should pay more attention to informal institutions. Krieger and Meierrieks (2017) estimated and showed that the effect of inequality on economic freedom is negative, which should be due to the economic power of elites being converted into political power, discouraging innovation and competition. Wegner (2019), presented the idea that a different institutional environment, for entrepreneurship, has been built by the

autocratic regimes from those in democratic capitalist societies. Without democracy that guarantees equity, innovative outsiders cannot have the ability to challenge incumbents with creative destruction based on protection by the rule of law, as the autocratic power of neo-patrimonialism tends to constrain entrepreneurship. The power, causing rent creation and power maintenance, would result in that dynamism of economies would be impeded in the long term; although, in the short term, it may boost the economic development by inducing the entrepreneurs with some inappropriate benefits, but such a way should be unsustainable due to significant limitation of innovation (Baumol, 1990; North et al., 2009; Acemoglu and Robinson, 2012; Elert and Henrekson, 2017). As democracy does cause growth, the beneficial social atmosphere and attitudes can help entrepreneurship; however, without institutional democracy, many factors would lead to a formation of specific social atmosphere or attitudes which may be harmful (Acemoglu et al., 2019).

Besides, entrepreneurship research is centred on entrepreneurial opportunities, the development of which is embedded in specific entrepreneurial contexts, and the two are inextricably linked. And Zhou (2022) found that, in China, people's entrepreneurial behaviour has significantly reduced their life satisfaction, but the more optimistic their expectations of the future or the more social capital they had, the more it would help to reduce the negative impact, which has offered opportunities to study about the impact of social attitudes, social equity, social happiness and social trust included, on entrepreneurship in China that can reflect social inclusion and openness. The paper cited the research of Valdez and Richardson (2013), which suggested that differences in values, beliefs, and abilities may play a greater role than purely economic considerations, to summarize the cornerstone of the paper - conservatively, entrepreneurship is particularly relevant to the current socio-economic environment, which can be a catalyst for innovation and entrepreneurship; but it can also be a hindrance, and if a society is highly centralised, where there is an extreme lack of freedom, where resources are scarce and unevenly distributed, and where people are unhappy and have no hope in life, it may be difficult for both innovation and entrepreneurship to survive. Due to the fact that the relationship between social attitudes and entrepreneurship needs to be studied, the paper discusses the issue from social equity, social happiness and social trust, and hopes contributions can be made.

3. Historical Background and Institutional Foundation

3.1 Economy: Past and Present

During the past process of marketisation and liberalisation, China's economy has grown at a rapid pace, driven by the "troika", and rapid industrialisation and

urbanisation have seen China leap to become the world's second-largest economy. China, however, faces a number of challenges, as history has shown. The investment, consumption and export that underpinned its rapid growth are becoming less powerful, so it is important to learn from the theories and experiences of modern economics and to avoid stagnation in order to seek new opportunities for development.

As far as the current situation of the "troika" is concerned, China now has to find some solutions to pursue quality development. Investment is usually defined as investment in infrastructure development, investment in fixed assets, mainly real estate, and investment in the expansion of enterprises; it can be made by the government, by enterprises or by individuals, in a wide range of formal or informal organisations, etc. The current state of investment is that even if the central bank provides benefits to enterprises through monetary policy, enterprises still do not have the will to expand because their investment confidence and expectations are very poor; real estate investment is waisted, citing land finance, with land auctions in some regions mainly supported by state-owned enterprises and only a few private real estate companies entering; infrastructure development once helped China to accomplish a series of achievements, and made an outstanding contribution to employment and economic growth, and there is still room for it. The government has been able to mitigate the economic downturn through investment in infrastructure; and now, China's industrialisation and urbanisation have been very well accomplished in the south-east, mainly in the coastal cities, where China's progress arguably has been of very high quality, ambitious and magnificent in the last two decades in the world. And the concentration of development in coastal cities has left China with remaining areas that are still developable. Investment in county infrastructure can promote the urbanisation of laggard counties, allowing some of the now relatively backward counties, which in the past tended to have a net outflow of population, to take on more relatively low-level industries, increasing employment in the counties and helping local economic development. On the other hand, more efforts have been made to build up the countryside, the rural areas, investing in water facilities, roads and cold chain logistics to develop commerce and facilitate the development of China's domestic market. The idea draws on the experience of the PRC in establishing the new China in 1949. The emphasis on building various irrigation facilities, which can ultimately increase food production, is very beneficial. At the same time, China is also developing wind energy, so overall, although investment by enterprises and individuals is down, the government is still working on it - in the short term, it could ease the bursting of the bubble.

Regarding consumption, the consumption of the population, including retail products and commodities. During the last forty years of marketisation, China has

developed well and joined the World Trade Organisation, gradually integrating into international trade. During the period, China's greatest advantage has been its population, which has enabled it to accelerate its industrialisation. China's demographic advantage is reflected in two ways, cheap labour on the supply side, and huge potential demand. The former lends itself to the development of labour-intensive manufacturing, and the latter implies a huge market. However, latent demand requires a rise in the population's wage income, without which they cannot freely buy what they want; that is to say, the two are opposite. China, the recipient of low-end manufacturing, achieved enormous economic growth through subcontracting based on its population, with a series of advantages that make many other Southeast Asian countries completely unable to compete with China because the population of China remained really quite large and objectively their hardworking may be amazing; but China also wanted to tap into its huge market. So it decided to make some of its own people rich - even though the gap between rich and poor in China has now proved to be far greater than expected and the "let some be rich first" arrangement has created huge contradictions and social crises, but the process has nevertheless begun, specifically through urbanisation, using houses to create the rich. As a result, the population's savings have been substantially transformed into expenditure, even on their income for the next 30 years. The consumption-driven economy worked well, while the indebtedness of the population surged by about 50%. The structure of China's economy is no longer entirely export-led and consumption and investment have started to increase. However, domestic finance in China is now severely affecting the real economy and financial capital continues to flow into real estate; although taxation finances infrastructure, the real estate bubble is still becoming too dangerous. Real estate has overdrawn the nation's consumption and the Chinese nationals has played up their tradition of becoming extremely frugal and hardworking. Loans have deterred the Chinese people from spending, and they cannot spend.

China, as a major manufacturing country, will have overcapacity because there is so much uncertainty about overseas demand. Industrial organisation theories have suggested that with capital coming and going freely, once an industry is profitable, capital will flock to it until there is excess capacity and no profit to be made, then it will exit. As a result, in marketisation and liberalisation, China has repeatedly experienced overcapacity. Stimulating domestic consumption can be used to solve it. And each time it happens, China responds based on Keynesian, and when there is excess capacity China increases spending to keep money and goods flowing. As the loan was expanded, consumption was stimulated.

But in the end, as in several economic crises that have occurred around the world over the last hundred years (and certainly there are some differences), the negative

consequences of China's economic policies are ultimately borne by its citizens. This is a departure from Keynesianism in its original sense, which advocated government intervention, with monetary and fiscal policy working in tandem to avoid overspending on the population's consumption. But China has not done like this, which means that domestic consumption in China will not be able to pull the economy forward in the short term. A vicious cycle began, with enterprises making less and less profit, and the epidemic and the Russia-Ukraine affair all driving up energy and raw material prices. Businesses are failing, and employment is inevitably much worse. The income of Chinese people is expected to fall, and with low levels of social security, their spending capacity falls further. And at this time, the Chinese government can not afford to make major reforms to the tax system; the push to integrate the national market is also difficult to achieve because of weak consumption. In terms of exports, the stability of China's manufacturing exports has suffered due to the epidemic and lockdown policies; monetary tightening policies have been implemented around the world and a few countries have reverted to trade protection. These factors have led to a reduction in global consumption and the departure of a few enterprises from China as some international capital entered South East Asia or India. Although China has an irreplaceable advantage in many sectors based on its accumulated technology and experience, the impact on the supply chain is still significant.

3.2 Entrepreneurship: Present and Future

As the paper mentioned above, to be detailed, over the past 40 years of reform and opening up, China has maintained an average annual economic growth level of 9.5%, gradually developing from one of the poorest countries in the world to the world's second-largest economy. From the supply side, capital investment and the shift of labour from low to high productivity sectors have formed the most important supply base driving China's rapid economic growth in the long term. From the demand side, the active integration into the economic globalisation and the opening up, such as the accession to the WTO, has provided relatively strong effective demand support for China to fully utilise its comparative advantages to participate in the international division of labour. The development economics perspective, represented by the demographic dividend, has convincing explanatory power. When China opened up its economy, it had an abundant supply of previously accumulated labour, which moved to the modern urban sector with higher levels of productivity and became the driving force behind the rapid industrialisation and urbanisation. On the one hand, the spread of compulsory education made China's labour resources better adapted to the needs of the labour market; on the other hand, a higher proportion of the working-age population corresponded to a higher social savings rate, which translated into higher

levels of investment through the financial system, thus expanding the capacity of the urban sector to absorb the transferred labour, creating a virtuous circle. At a time when the demographic dividend was the main driver of growth, entrepreneurship played a role in boosting the economy and employment. Entrepreneurial talent, on which entrepreneurship relies, was important and for many years was focused on the standardisation and professionalism of internal management and external operations, without the high costs of trial and error in the choice of business. However, China's working-age population peaked in 2011 and has been on a downward trend for a considerable period of history since then. At the same time, the potential growth rate of the Chinese economy will fall back to 6%. As a direct result of the change, the potential growth rate will fall as a result of a trend reversal in the age structure of the population and the disappearance of the demographic dividend.

Entrepreneurship can identify potential comparative advantages and new sources of sustainable economic growth. It is essentially an exercise in entrepreneurial talent and competition with each other. In terms of returns, success can generate a first mover advantage, thus making itself compatible with the market. Entrepreneurial success can help to make its potential comparative advantage visible, generating a huge demonstration effect and promoting the advancement of social production levels. In terms of cost, it effectively spreads risk through market-based mechanisms, and the failure of some does not translate into systemic economic risk and social cost, thus making the economy more adaptable and resilient.

Entrepreneurship in China is growing rapidly and is very diverse. Among the entrepreneurs, there are university graduates and returnees from overseas, as well as migrant workers. In the last ten years, the proportion of Chinese university students starting their own businesses has been increasing year on year, from less than 1% to around 4% at present. At the same time, the number of Chinese returnees has been increasing. In 2018, the number of returnees reached 519,400, and the proportion of returnees who started their own businesses was around 15%. Together, graduates and returnees constitute the main force of knowledge-intensive entrepreneurship, driving the flourishing development of innovation and entrepreneurship in China.

However, it is important to note that there are some problems in China. Firstly, national entrepreneurial awareness is still relatively weak and the proportion of entrepreneurs is low. Surveys[1] show that over 80% of parents want their children to become government officials, nearly 70% of parents disapprove of their children starting their own businesses, and less than 3% of parents want their children to start

1 Please see www.chinadaily.com.cn/regional/2015-01/30/content_19451520.htm?msclkid=aaff27d9cf9411ec91f25153fcd9bd6f cn.chinadaily.com.cn/a/202007/05/WS5f014de3a310a859d09d60ea.html and cn.chinadaily.com.cn/a/202104/26/WS6086605fa3101e7ce974c12c.html

their own businesses. At present, the proportion of Chinese university graduates who are entrepreneurs is still less than 5%, and entrepreneurs generally face financing difficulties. Nearly 90% of university students believe that a lack of capital is the main obstacle to starting a business, and another 80% of migrant workers believe that the most important thing missing in starting a business is capital. In recent years, with the rise of Internet finance and financial technology, new forms of intervention such as angel investment have significantly improved the entrepreneurial financing environment. However, such investment channels tend to focus on high-tech industries and high-value-added industries, or only have a preference for entrepreneurial projects with relatively manageable risks. As a result, their support role for different entrepreneurial actors is not yet possible to solve the financing problem. Thirdly, entrepreneurs and entrepreneurial projects show an excessive pursuit of short-term windfalls. Startup teams tend to choose startups with clear short-term return expectations or low upfront investment requirements, which is a kind of speculation that does not help economic development. Fourthly, the administrative efficiency of government departments needs to be improved, and the implementation of preferential policies for entrepreneurship is hardly satisfactory. In the context of relevant support policies, the administrative aspects related to entrepreneurship have been greatly simplified compared to the past, but the problem of complex business registration and approval procedures and high thresholds still hinders the development of innovation and entrepreneurship to a considerable extent. The laziness of the relevant departments and local governments has resulted in the lack of implementation of preferential policies and the failure to provide entrepreneurs with the assistance they deserve.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1 Samples and Data

The paper focuses on the relationship between social attitudes and entrepreneurship, with empirical data from CGSS2017[1], with three core explanatory variables and 11 control variables (see Tables 1 and 2). The focus of the paper is on

1 Started in 2003, CGSS is the earliest national, comprehensive and continuous academic survey programme in China. CGSS systematically and comprehensively collects data from society, communities, families and individuals at multiple levels, summarises trends in social change, explores issues of great scientific and practical significance, promotes the opening and sharing of domestic scientific research, provides data for international comparative studies, and serves as a multidisciplinary economic and social. It is a platform for data collection. Currently, CGSS data has become the most important source of data for the study of Chinese society, and is widely used in research, teaching and government decision-making. (Please see cgss.ruc.edu.cn)

social attitudes, which are described using social equity, social happiness and social trust. Data that did not function well, such as a large number of missing values, reflecting that the respondents were withholding too much information, has already been removed with the "drop if" command, resulting in a valid sample of 3,970. For other employment-related factors, the paper selects age, health, education, religion, hukou[1], personal income, social security, political identity, spouse, household income, children as control variables.

Table 1. Sample description (assignment)

Variable	Assignment
Entrepreneur	Yes = 1; No = 0 the paper assigns 0 to employment, including different types
Social equity	Strongly disagree = 1; ...; Strongly agree = 5
Social happiness	Strongly disagree = 1; ...; Strongly agree = 5
Social trust	Strongly disagree = 1; ...; Strongly agree = 5
Age	3 to 70 years old
Health	Very unhealthy = 1; ...; Very healthy = 5
Education	Illiterate or semiliterate = 1; ...; Primary = 3; ...; Dr = 13
Religion	Yes = 1; No = 0
Hukou	Rural hukou = 1; Urban hukou = 0
Personal income	900 to 9,930,000 CNY
Social security	Yes (participation) = 1; No = 0
Political identity	Member of CCP = 1; Member of other minority political parties or "no party affiliation" = 0
Spouse	Yes (have a spouse, any types) = 1; No = 0
Household income	960 to 9,888,888 CNY
Children	0 to 22

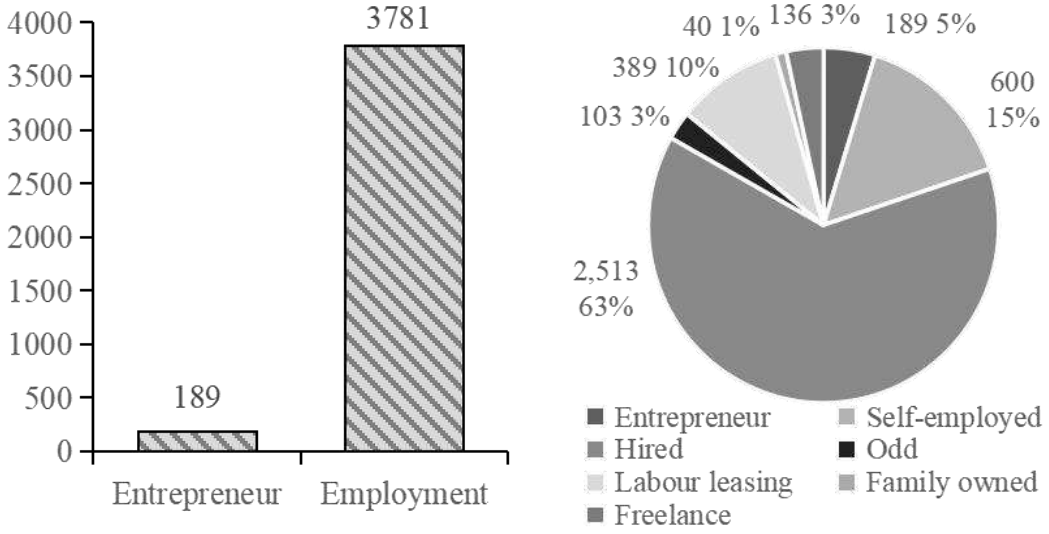
The Chinese General Social Survey (CGSS) of RUC is China's first nationwide, continuous and large-scale comprehensive social survey program. The CGSS program involves individuals in 125 counties (districts), 500 streets and towns, and more than 40,000 households in 28 provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities directly under the central government, systematically collecting real data on Chinese people

1 Hukou, is an official document issued by the Chinese government, certifying that the holder is a legal resident of a particular area. China's hukou system is a household registration system. Although China's hukou system dates back to ancient times, a more modern system has been introduced in 1958 to control the flow of resources from rural areas to urban centres. After Xiaoping Deng came to power in 1978, reforms began to narrow the gap between rural and urban hukou. Since then, reforms have been gradually implemented from the late 1970s to 2013. The current hukou system 2014 is intended to address the issues surrounding rapid urbanisation, but it may raise many other problems. The hukou has a more managerial sense, reflecting a certain political-philosophical orientation. Given its importance, it is included as a variable.

and Chinese society, which is of great theoretical and practical significance; the program is supported by central government and official research institutions, and its results are authoritative and representative.

(1) Dependent Variable

The CGSS data breaks down employment into self-employed, hired, odd, labour leasing, family owned and freelance, and the visualised results of the survey show that entrepreneurship is not a mainstream option, and its proportion is very low, compared with traditional forms.



Figures 1,2. Number and proportion of entrepreneurs and employees

With regard to entrepreneur and employee, in order to focus on the binary choice, the term "employment", including various forms, is used to distinguish from entrepreneurship.

Table 2. Statistics of different types of work

Types		Auxiliary additional notes	Numeric
Entrepreneur		Owners (or partners)	189
Employment	Self-employed	A way of employment with a lower threshold, a small-micro form, private or individually-owned	600
	Hired	A traditional form of work (with a regular employer)	2,513
	Odd	Part-time, casual, short-term (without a regular employer)	103
	Labour leasing	Labour dispatch, a special form of work in China, a form of supplementary employment, is the temporary supply of labour through an intermediary human resources agency that should be specifically licensed to provide such employees	389
	Family owned	Working / helping out in own family enterprise	40
	Freelance	Without a long-term commitment to any one employer	136

(2) Independent Variables

The following specific data are listed as microscopic keys to study the factors influencing entrepreneur in China.

a. Age. The age, has been controlled by many researchers when conducting studies, as well as education, income and social security (Kong, 2020; Wang, 2020; Cai, 2021; Wu, 2021; Zheng, 2021; Zhou, 2022; Wang, 2022). Many people believe that there is a relationship between entrepreneurship and age. Young people usually choose to be entrepreneurial because they have a lot of time, they can afford to lose and have a chance to start again if they fail, but older people don't do much and settle for the status quo because the cost of failure is higher for them than for young people.

Others, however, believe that entrepreneurship has nothing to do with age and tend to say that entrepreneurship has to do with 'stage'. Entrepreneurship depends on a combination of personal qualities and objective environmental conditions. They argue that it is one-sided to say that a certain age group is better suited to entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship may require courage, confidence, strong personal and managerial skills and a dynamic mind, but they are not all determined by age.

b. Health. Health also has an impact. In terms of general perception, as entrepreneurship is a heavy and complex matter, entrepreneurs need to coordinate everything and also bear huge mental pressure, without good physical fitness may cause depression, and physical and mental health will be affected. According to Liu et al. (2022), in terms of the relationship between mental health status and individual entrepreneurial exit behaviour, the entrepreneurial exit behaviour of entrepreneurs is significantly influenced by their depressive state and exhibits unique local contextual characteristics in China (Cai, 2021; Wu, 2021; Zhou, 2022).

c. Education. As to education, Dickson et al. (2008) investigated the relationships through an analysis of research published between 1995 and 2006, with findings suggesting evidence supporting a positive impact on becoming an entrepreneur and entrepreneurial success, and Pruett et al. (2009) believed that entrepreneurship education may serve students better by increasing its focus on creativity and confidence. Linan and Fayolle (2015) pointed out that graduate needs for such education mismatched outcomes in terms of entrepreneurial skills, knowledge and attitudes, although most of them seemed to be satisfied with the outcomes. On the other hand, university-industry collaboration can promote academic entrepreneurship, so it has been a good idea for governments to invest in the education of entrepreneurship, on account of that for now supply and demand are not balanced (Block et al., 2017; Fischer et al., 2018).

The benefits advantages, imbalance and other results were agreed upon by many scholars who had a shared view that education did enhance entrepreneurship,

facilitating an increase in attitudes and perceived behavioral control (Shane, 2000; Koellinger, 2008; Turker, 2009; Rauch and Hulsink, 2015; Nabi, 2017). But in China, there is a more popular notion that it is only those with less education who choose to start their own business, which is not consistent with the findings of mainstream international research on entrepreneurship education. According to *the Report on China Youth Entrepreneurship* of Tsinghua University, about 60% of the entrepreneurs did not receive a higher education, and while it reflects a lack of understanding of entrepreneurship and a lagging level of entrepreneurship education in China, it is a situation that is worth considering and it may allow the research to produce some results that differ from the mainstream views.

d. Religion. The impact of religion on society and economy is profound and historically proven. During the period of the Great Geographical Discovery, religion was an important promoter in the development of Europe, either from disputes (including battles, or competitions they generated, which caused material progress) with other faiths, from doctrines and certain passions, or from the backlash of its own social influence; in short, a series of achievements were made under the impetus of religion. At the same time, it did not always play a positive role, for example by provoking long wars that led to the failure of further development in places where there was a first mover advantage (Pomeranz, 1998; Headrick, 2010; Crowley, 2015; Hoffman, 2015).

There should be a correlation between religion and entrepreneurship as well, which is highly context-specific and changes with the environment; where religion is of high importance, entrepreneurs tend to use religious criteria to guide their decisions, through pluralism and regulation (Dodd, 2007; Dada, 2009; Altinay, 2011; Nwankwom 2012; Audretsch, 2016; Henley, 2017). Some studies have concluded that religion objectively has an appreciable influence, while others have come to the opposite conclusion (Nair, 2006).

e. Hukou. Hukou is a vital micro-variable in China, as it is closely related to China's special internal migration of immigrants, and has a great impact on social networks, property rights and interests, labor relations, and population mobility. Generally, it can act as a hindrance because it is the government's policy to bind citizens.

f. Social-economic factors, including personal income, social security and political identity. In previous studies, it was also defined as social and economic characteristics, which includes representative economic and social characteristics of Chinese citizens in Chinese society, and the paper uses CGSS data that mainly reported personal income and social security, political identity included as a vital consideration in relevant research.

The prevailing social opinion in China now is that becoming a government worker is a stable investment because, given the nature of the country, such a job is likely to be immune to economic cycles and to be steadily better paid. However, Hongbin Li (2008) found that the performance of firms could be better when the entrepreneurs were CCP members in China, which could help them obtain loans from banks or other financial institutions, with CCP membership attached more importance in regions with weaker market institutions that the membership could make. Xiaoguang Fan and P Lv (2017) provided the answer for the proposition of "the social composition of private entrepreneurs" - whoever was within the system would be more likely to turn the profession to do big business successfully, and big business owners were more likely to have such experience, which means that they changed their jobs from government staff and the social identity of CCP member did much help, supported by P Lv (2020), Jiankun Liu and X He (2020) and J Du et al. (2022). As times change, when it comes to entrepreneurship, it is worth examining what role political identity actually has in China.

g. Family, including spouse, household income and the number of children. They are controlled to examine the influence of family, as common variables in related studies. People's entrepreneurial decisions are influenced by their family members, and women are particularly susceptible to their spouse. Women and men are more inclined to own businesses when they are married and have children, and family-related factors have a greater impact on women than on men (Guo and Werner, 2016; Friedson-Ridenou and Pierotti, 2019; Cuberes et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2022).

4.2 Prerequisites and Premises

a. The dependent variable must be a two-categorical variable with at least 1 independent variable that can be continuous or categorical.

b. Each observation is independent; the classification of categorical variables must be comprehensive and mutually exclusive.

c. The sample size is much larger than the number of independent variables.

d. No multicollinearity with sufficiently large effects between variables.

e. No obvious outliers and current data has been processed and is acceptable.

Table 3. Multicollinearity test

a. Correlation test

	Social equity	Social happiness	Social trust	Age	Health	Education	Personal income
Social equity	1						
Social happiness	0.2739	1					
Social trust	0.3294	0.2038	1				

(Table. 3 Continued)

Age	0.0357	-0.0048	0.0859	1			
Health	0.0795	0.2142	0.0314	-0.2387	1		
Education	0.0529	0.1387	0.0423	-0.3433	0.1556	1	
Personal income	0.0379	0.1449	0.0126	-0.1949	0.1687	0.468	1
Spouse	-0.0128	-0.0701	-0.032	-0.4022	0.0919	0.2435	0.0235
Religion	-0.0276	0.0072	-0.021	0.0414	-0.0246	-0.0812	-0.0393
Social security	-0.0484	-0.0719	-0.0526	-0.0626	-0.0047	-0.1061	-0.0761
Political identity	0.08	0.1176	0.0703	0.0853	0.0361	0.2999	0.1774
Hukou	-0.0285	-0.0752	-0.0291	-0.0293	-0.018	-0.4575	-0.2837
Household income	0.0259	0.1654	0.0077	-0.2284	0.1828	0.4924	0.7716
Children	-0.003	-0.0043	0.017	0.3922	-0.1142	-0.3658	-0.17

	Spouse	Religion	Social security	Political identity	Hukou	Household income	Children
	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
(Continued)	1						
	-0.0143	1					
	0.0664	0.0129	1				
	-0.0503	-0.0617	-0.077	1			
	-0.0119	0.0065	0.0541	-0.1954	1		
	0.0504	-0.0239	-0.0761	0.1725	-0.298	1	
	-0.5023	0.0664	-0.0331	-0.0159	0.2211	-0.2177	1

b. VIF test

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
Household income	2.66	0.376198
Personal income	2.56	0.391039
Education	2	0.499595
Children	1.57	0.638535
Age	1.51	0.661176
Spouse	1.48	0.673982
Hukou	1.39	0.717378
Political identity	1.16	0.860757
Health	1.08	0.922374
Social security	1.03	0.97133
Religion	1.01	0.986367
Mean VIF	1.59	

4.3 Model Specification

The paper will be based on CGSS data, and the empirical analysis will be

conducted. The logistic model is used to model the factors influencing being entrepreneur as the dependent variable of the model is limited to 0 or 1. The logistic model can be transformed into a linear function. The logit formula is as follows.

$$Logit(P)=Ln[P/(1- P)] =\alpha +\sum\beta iXi+\varepsilon$$

P is the probability of being entrepreneur, 1-P is the probability of not being entrepreneur, which is of being employee in the sample. α is the regression constant; βi is the regression coefficient of each variable; Xi is each independent variable, and ε is the random error term.

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are shown (see Table 4). Data on personal and household income are taken as logarithms. Specific information will be presented hereinafter.

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Entrepreneur	3,970	0.0476071	0.2129602	0	1
Social equity	3,970	3.054912	1.044733	1	5
Social happiness	3,970	3.888917	0.7724163	1	5
Social trust	3,970	3.391436	1.043004	1	5
Age	3,970	18.23938	10.02943	3.24	70.56
Health	3,970	3.92267	0.8848063	1	5
Education	3,970	6.735768	3.393108	1	13
Personal income	3,970	10.6167	0.9391199	6.802395	16.11107
Hukou	3,970	0.1395466	0.3465597	0	1
Religion	3,970	0.0914358	0.2882641	0	1
Social security	3,970	1.079849	0.2710932	1	2
Political identity	3,970	0.1284635	0.3346473	0	1
Spouse	3,970	0.4387909	0.4963018	0	1
Household income	3,970	11.2271	0.94248	6.866933	16.10692
Children	3,970	1.199244	0.9298116	0	22

5. Empirical Results

5.1 Correlation Analysis

After correlation analysis, the correlations between social equity, happiness, trust and entrepreneurship have been examined and the results are shown (see Table 5). From the following results, it can be seen that social equity, social happiness and entrepreneurship have a significant positive correlation, with social equity and happiness as the main social attitudes set in the paper, indicating that the two variables

are suitable for the next step of regression analysis; for its correlation with social trust is not significant, the paper supposes that it is difficult to be significant enough.

Table 5. Correlation of major variables

	Entrepreneur	Social equity	Social happiness	Social trust
Entrepreneur	1			
Social equity	0.0335**	1		
Social happiness	0.0413***	0.2739***	1	
Social trust	0.0148	0.3294***	0.2038***	1

Notes: *** P<0.01, significant at 1% level; ** P<0.05, significant at 5% level; * P<0.1, significant at 10% level.

5.2 Baseline Regression

The results in (3) of regression one are in line with the correlation analysis of the paper that it is difficult to be significant enough for social trust. Based on (1) and (2), social equity and social happiness, however, are successfully proved that they have a significant positive impact on Chinese citizens being entrepreneurs, with coefficient values of 0.1559 and 0.2759. The former is significant at the 5% level and the latter is at the 1% level.

Table 6. Logit regression results of baseline

a. Regression one

	Entrepreneur		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Social equity	0.1559429** (0.0739724)		
Social happiness		0.2758768*** (0.1058578)	
Social trust			0.0680107 (0.0731318)
Intercept term	-3.484163*** (0.2484846)	-4.088251*** (0.4326121)	-3.228897*** (0.2635792)
Sample size	3,970	3,970	3,970
LR p-value	0.0030	0.0047	0.0006

The results of regression two, more variables controlled, show the significance like regression one too, and education has a negative impact while personal income has a positive one as the coefficient of education is about -0.12 and that of income is about 0.82. They are significant at the 1% level.

b. Regression two

	Entrepreneur		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Social equity	0.149065** (0.0756205)		
Social happiness		0.1930054*	

(Table. 6 Continued)

		(0.1100372)	
Social trust			0.077864
			(0.074643)
Age	0.0030044	0.0026327	0.0028002
	(0.0084147)	(0.0084228)	(0.008467)
Health	0.0957646	0.0780751	0.1058545
	(0.092755)	(0.0933736)	(0.0920744)
Education	-0.1268967***	-0.1282894***	-0.1264661***
	(0.0263376)	(0.0264381)	(0.0263729)
Personal income	0.8224604***	0.8113707***	0.8248698***
	(0.0892175)	(0.0891933)	(0.089168)
Religion	0.0149575	0.0014412	0.0133081
	(0.2597655)	(0.2594993)	(0.259421)
Intercept term	-11.98415***	-12.07393***	-11.85015***
	(1.020865)	(1.038987)	(1.027765)
Sample size	3,970	3,970	3,970
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

The results of regression three show that social security, political identity, household income and children have a significant effect. The coefficient values of them are about 0.65, 0.66, -0.54, 0.22 and 0.15, which are significant at the 1%, 5%, 10% and 5% level.

c. Regression three

	Entrepreneur		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Social equity	0.1710199**		
	(0.0765214)		
Social happiness		0.1938642*	
		(0.1111195)	
Social trust			0.0928604
			(0.0750092)
Education	-0.0906301***	-0.0923955***	-0.0913754***
	(0.0314155)	(0.0315625)	(0.0315069)
Personal income	0.6557392***	0.6544082***	0.6568635***
	(0.1286121)	(0.1290875)	(0.1287818)
Social security	0.6645814***	0.660102***	0.6487444***
	(0.2371636)	(0.2372248)	(0.2369942)
Political identity	-0.5513965**	-0.5320806*	-0.5295059**
	(0.2792072)	(0.2783927)	(0.2789287)
Household income	0.2236147*	0.2095059	0.2247774*
	(0.1340233)	(0.1347349)	(0.1346781)
Children	0.1593942**	0.1511957**	0.1524752**
	(0.0708434)	(0.0703469)	(0.0702452)

(Table. 6 Continued)

Intercept term	-13.86727*** (-11.35)	-13.86035*** (1.234404)	-13.69485*** (1.226679)
Other variables	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled
Sample size	3,970	3,970	3,970
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Notes: *** P<0.01, significant at 1% level; ** P<0.05, significant at 5% level; * P<0.1, significant at 10% level. The table shows coefficients (above) and standard error values (below in parentheses). Same below.

5.3 Robustness Test

Next, the paper will conduct robustness tests by changing the model, using Hosmer-Lemeshow test, and regressing sub-samples. Before the test, the paper reuses the results in the table above, with the LR p-values being all less than 0.0001 and it is significant. After replacing the Logit model with the Probit model and then regressing the analysis, the paper validates the estimates with essentially the same results as the baseline regression. The results are shown in Table 7. On the basis of changing the model, the regression results are not significantly different from the baseline results.

Table 7. Probit regression results after replacing the model

	Entrepreneur		
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Social equity	0.0833413** (0.0346634)		
Social happiness		0.0977017* (0.0501456)	
Social trust			0.050378 (0.0346048)
Education	-0.0396437*** (0.014851)	-0.0403617*** (0.0148812)	-0.03978*** (0.0148614)
Personal income	0.3069655*** (0.0616637)	0.3037108*** (0.0614423)	0.3047562*** (0.0614732)
Social security	0.319705*** (0.1173056)	0.3203026*** (0.1172611)	0.3128725*** (0.1172069)
Political identity	-0.2646284** (0.1265115)	-0.2630451** (0.1265573)	-0.2556063** (0.1263537)
Children	0.0878479** (0.0389076)	0.0846628** (0.0386829)	0.0864651** (0.038557)
Intercept term	-6.563888*** (0.5720719)	-6.563976*** (0.5786196)	-6.486165*** (0.5749576)
Other variables	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled
Sample size	3,970	3,970	3,970
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

Then, according to Jonathan Bartlett, Hosmer-Lemeshow showed by simulation

that (provided p+1 should be less than g) their test statistic was better, and the conclusions from simulations were based on using "$g>p$+1". The paper applies their test, and the results are positively supporting the model.

Table 8. Hosmer-Lemeshow test

Logistic model for entrepreneur, goodness-of-fit test, number of observations = 3,970		
number of groups = 13	number of groups = 14	number of groups = 15
H-L chi2(11) = 16.42	H-L chi2(12) = 19.58	H-L chi2(13) = 22.45
Prob > chi2 = 0.1262	Prob > chi2 = 0.0755	Prob > chi2 = 0.0488

Finally, the paper narrows the sample by selecting Shandong and Beijing, changing the sample size, to examine the robustness, as Shandong is the representative Province unit with a lot of data from the CGSS sample, and Beijing is the representative municipality directly under the central government, which is a special administrative division in China.

Table 9. Logit regression results for subsamples

	Entrepreneur					
	Shandong			Beijing		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Social equity	1.297375*			0.4398041		
	(0.7474726)			(0.352557)		
Social happiness		1.873712*			0.9968307*	
		(1.019924)			(0.5802376)	
Social trust			1.770786**			0.4204412
			(0.8762295)			(0.3332571)
Education	-0.532823**	-0.613399**	-0.606843**	-0.1460377	-0.1391482	-0.1906866
	(0.2249422)	(0.2524846)	(0.2469781)	(0.1311585)	(0.133477)	(0.1352328)
Personal income	1.373311	1.375703	2.236725*	0.3750788	0.5161379	0.509703
	(1.010049)	(1.06982)	(1.267722)	(0.5519503)	(0.5840127)	(0.5727756)
Hukou	-2.656276**	-3.17494**	-3.340382**	0.1607422	0.3322085	0.0099124
	(1.213007)	(1.293291)	(1.386536)	(0.8703173)	(0.8869153)	(0.8984483)
Children	-2.403014**	-2.176714*	-2.082515*	0.5664163	0.5997781	0.5998595
	(1.176086)	(1.113781)	(1.16147)	(0.4359635)	(0.437243)	(0.4362895)
Intercept term	-26.6544***	-22.66625	-35.1882***	-18.9282***	-21.5956***	-19.6891***
	(10.2156)	(8.739607)	(13.32688)	(4.559797)	(5.109786)	(4.693494)
Other variables	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled
Sample size	203	203	203	340	340	340
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

As shown in Table 8, the sub-sample regression results and baseline regression

results are uniform and harmonised, showing good robustness.

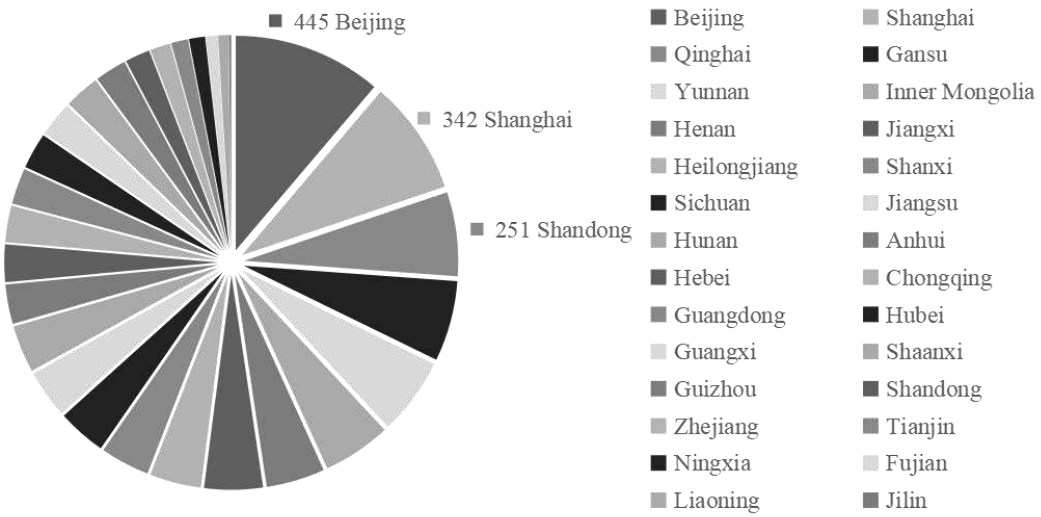


Figure 3. Statistics of sample distribution

Therefore, the above estimates in the paper are robust.

5.4 Heterogeneity Analysis

There may be heterogeneity in the gender and urban-rural location of entrepreneurs, so the paper is refined to screen for the impact of entrepreneurship by gender and location (see Tables 9 and 10).

Table 10. Logit regression results of gender heterogeneity

	Entrepreneur					
	Male			Female		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Social equity	0.170230*			0.170221		
	0.0912353			(0.1418452)		
Social happiness		0.1727069			0.3031855	
		0.1340055			(0.2003443)	
Social trust			0.0451141			0.222997
			0.0892718			(0.1418922)
Health	0.1783922	0.1656956	0.1896316*	-0.0565435	-0.0828007	-0.0409251
	(0.114148)	(0.114497)	(0.113321)	(0.1619036)	(0.1635297)	(0.160693)
Education	-0.032119	-0.0313305	-0.0304395	-0.19371***	-0.20219***	-0.19967***
	(0.038862)	(0.038942)	(0.038899)	(0.0558659)	(0.0563857)	(0.0559745)
Personal income	0.54697***	0.53944***	0.54734***	0.587961**	0.601106**	0.602921**
	(0.160632)	(0.161780)	(0.161233)	(0.2397067)	(0.2400898)	(0.2405612)
Social security	0.598821**	0.607758**	0.5818893*	0.815981**	0.793103**	0.842771**
	(0.302897)	(0.303724)	(0.302974)	(0.392078)	(0.3907522)	(0.3927007)

(Table. 10 Continued)

Political identity	-0.5537928*	-0.5247629*	-0.5173001*	-0.8409784	-0.8431686	-0.8397764
	(0.304553)	(0.303176)	(0.303690)	(0.763253)	(0.7632021)	(0.7647758)
Household income	0.335468**	0.327286**	0.331705**	0.2185472	0.1860782	0.2254039
	(0.165108)	(0.166004)	(0.165956)	(0.2434021)	(0.2455093)	(0.2463869)
Children	0.1320141	0.1227857	0.1235872	0.30307**	0.309638**	0.312363**
	(0.086673)	(0.085896)	(0.085883)	(0.1526606)	(0.1519933)	(0.1523289)
Intercept term	-14.4852***	-14.4261***	-14.0964***	-12.2338***	-12.5088***	-12.753***
	(1.556803)	(1.579576)	(1.557337)	(2.03585)	(2.060968)	(2.100801)
Other variables	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled
Sample size	2278	2278	2278	1692	1692	1692
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

In contemporary China, gender discrimination may be a relatively serious problem in most industries. Chuanchuan Zhang (2021) found that traditional gender roles emphasising women's responsibility for housework were negatively related to the employment rate and earnings. The gender roles Zhang studied may be a part of Chinese tradition, but there can also be a possibility that the origin was wider and more general. As NM Fortin (2005) showed, the perception of "women's role as housewives" may have been formed in youth and was linked to religious ideology. The conflict between family values and egalitarian views manifests itself in the form of mothers' guilt, an inner conflict for women.

The view on labour and employment has implications for entrepreneurship; as the women even cannot be an employee swimmingly, perhaps it is unreasonable to expect them to succeed in entrepreneurship in such a social environment. In fact, regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship and gender, the academic sector has already done a lot (Brush, 1992; Dimova, 2006; Brush et al., 2009). For example, Brush et al. offered a new gender-aware framework, furthering a more holistic understanding of women's entrepreneurship, with "5Ms" (markets, money, management, motherhood and meso/macro environment) attaching importance to the research on women's entrepreneurship. The results have shown that it is actually the environment that needs to be changed, for women entrepreneurs are an equal and non-negligible part of the innovation and economic development, as many studies have proven that women entrepreneurs have advantages in some ways. They can not only do it, but do it well.

As shown in the table, the results reflect the differences between men and women in entrepreneurship. When looking at the social equity, social happiness, and

social trust studied in the paper, the data based on the CGSS2017 sample only shows that the effect of social equity on men's entrepreneurship is significant, and it is a positive effect with a coefficient greater than 0. While looking at the control variables, only income and social security have a general incentive. The effect of education and children on women rather than men is significant, but education does the opposite of what should be expected, and although in China people with an intermediate level of education are more likely to be entrepreneurial and education does not necessarily promote entrepreneurship, the results are still puzzling (Guo and Werner, 2016; Friedson-Ridenou and Pierotti, 2019; Cuberes et al., 2019); whereas political identity only has a significant negative effect on men, with a relatively smaller increase proportion of Chinese men becoming government workers and a relatively more number of starting businesses, which may perhaps be realistic.

Table 11. Logit regression results of urban-rural heterogeneity

	Entrepreneur					
	Urban			Rural		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Social equity	0.135366			0.2285753		
	(0.0893493)			(0.1503996)		
Social happiness		0.1695575			0.1803668	
		(0.1325434)			(0.2100073)	
Social trust			0.005533			0.338055**
			(0.0849694)			(0.1714001)
Health	0.1756133	0.1639137	0.1913798*	-0.1260038	-0.1529202	-0.1112092
	(0.1115142)	(0.1121031)	(0.1104089)	(0.1684134)	(0.1718415)	(0.1670971)
Education	-0.10527***	-0.10717***	-0.10374***	-0.0013272	-0.0001293	-0.0102173
	(0.0351446)	(0.0353088)	(0.0352777)	(0.0752025)	(0.0751232)	(0.0753008)
Personal income	0.83507***	0.83482***	0.83301***	0.271484	0.2827427	0.2707834
	(0.1592929)	(0.160185)	(0.1595053)	(0.221539)	(0.2199191)	(0.2170789)
Social security	0.77296***	0.76829***	0.75065***	0.2579774	0.2377465	0.2627277
	(0.2674063)	(0.2675647)	(0.2671977)	(0.5595009)	(0.5587983)	(0.5603143)
Political identity	-0.5680552*	-0.5420491*	-0.5346683*	-0.5861086	-0.5757015	-0.5795779
	(0.3119809)	(0.3109303)	(0.3113163)	(0.6559264)	(0.652428)	(0.6595119)
Hukou	0.0561184	0.0721073	0.0662148	-0.7159113*	-0.7533925	-0.739834**
	(0.2141365)	(0.2142512)	(0.2143139)	(0.3810239)	(0.3768186)	(0.378007)
Children	0.1485328*	0.1422093*	0.1439804*	0.160673	0.1463576	0.1531898
	(0.083531)	(0.0828805)	(0.082931)	(0.1790188)	(0.1765983)	(0.1746978)
Intercept term	-16.5797***	-16.5716***	-16.1947***	-7.53547***	-7.32194***	-8.1025***
	(1.442557)	(1.451322)	(1.442845)	(2.550048)	(2.588312)	(2.567902)

(Table. 11 Continued)

Other variables	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled	Controlled
Sample size	3229	3229	3229	471	471	471
LR p-value	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

There is spatial differentiation in the innovative and entrepreneurial capabilities of Chinese citizens (Liu, 2022). The results show that on the sample of rural areas, the paper confirms the existence of differences that the impact of social trust on entrepreneurship becomes significant and hukou becomes important, although rural hukou produces a negative impact. In urban areas, income, social security and children can help increase entrepreneurship, while education and political identity play the opposite role.

5.5 Explanation and Interpretation of Results

In line with the theoretical speculations of the paper, the social attitudes are helpful and inform not only academia but also industry. Most importantly, in most cases, social equity and social happiness have a positive effect on citizens' choice to become entrepreneurs. The higher the level of social equity and social happiness perceived by citizens, the more willing they are to start their own business, which is a civic perception. Social equity and social happiness, the key variables chosen for the paper, are studied as individual subjective factors, and the aggregation and collection of all the individuals' subjective feelings form the social attitudes described in the paper. Social attitudes, however, are formed under the control of many political, economic, social, cultural and religious factors; they can be seen as part of a society, or as the concrete expression and reflection of an institution or system. Furthermore, as has been the case with the findings of some past studies, the paper draws out the impact of individual factors on entrepreneurship, and they are broadly in line with previous views, although some differences emerge. Overall, income, social security and children are considered to be effective promoters of entrepreneurial activity, but political identity and education play the opposite role. This means that the higher a Chinese citizen's income and the better his or her social security, the more willing he or she is to start a business, and sometimes children can be an incentive for them to do so. It is like what Zheng (2022) thought, taking Nobel Prize winners as samples, that families play a vital role in the nurturing of innovators. The paper speculates that income and social security are important sources of confidence that ensure that if Chinese citizens fail to start a business, they will still be able to live a normal life or even start a new business to find success. This confidence is an important reason to

support them in starting a business; however, in the vast size of China, there are a large number of ordinary citizens who do not receive adequate income and social security, and the gap within China regarding this is large, so as the sample reflects, the proportion of entrepreneurs within the sample is small. At the same time, if one is a member of the CCP, then one is more reluctant to become an entrepreneur, perhaps because a large number of CCP members work for the government and there is an opportunity cost - not being an entrepreneur. The evidence in the paper suggests that it is not the case that the better the education, the more willing one is to start a business, which is in line with the paper's speculation in selecting variables (Guo and Werner, 2016; Friedson-Ridenou and Pierotti, 2019; Cuberes et al., 2019). Highly educated Chinese citizens are more likely to be employees due to cultural, social and economic factors. Being employed by a recognised better company or the government is part of what Chinese citizens consider to be a success in life; in traditional China, the notion of winning promotion and getting rich was the dream of ordinary Chinese people, a notion that still persists in modern times. Entrepreneurship, on the other hand, is too risky for them and the limited returns are not worth the risk; it is better to choose a good employer, such as the government, that will give them peace of mind. There may also be a range of political and institutional reasons behind this that make them think that being employed is more stable and that stability is better.

In the robustness tests and heterogeneity analyses, however, the results have changed somewhat. For example, social attitudes do not play a significant role for women and many other variables became insignificant; social equity does remain important for men's entrepreneurship. In rural areas, none of the other potential influences involved in the study become significant, and hukou is found to have a negative effect on entrepreneurship; only social trust becomes significant (Liu, 2022). In the cities, most of the results are consistent with the previous section. In Shandong, social equity and social happiness and social trust all have significant positive effects. Hukou has a significant inverse effect, as do children; in Beijing, the majority of the sample has failed to significantly prove the paper's point, as does the Shanghai sample. The paper argues that Shandong is a universal representative of China at large, while Beijing, as a political centre, and Shanghai, as an economic centre, are specific and special. Shandong, on the other hand, has a large population, richer resources and a good geographical location; it has good transport links and a better economic situation, and, while modernising and developing, it retains a great deal of Chinese tradition, in terms of culture, politics and family. It is worth adding that gender discrimination may be a relatively serious problem in contemporary China, reflected not only in the treatment women receive but also in their own perceptions (Chuanchuan Zhang, 2021). For one, argues that according to traditional Chinese beliefs, women should do

housework and that they should become housewives rather than entrepreneurs. The origins of this gender role are very broad and pervasive, and as NM Fortin (2005) pointed out, this may have been formed during women's upbringing and is an internal conflict for women. It is really the environment that needs to change, as female entrepreneurs are an equal and non-negligible part of innovation and economic development (Brush, 1992; Brush et al., 2009). A rather different finding of the paper may be that a woman having children promotes her entrepreneurship; whereas a woman's access to education makes her more willing to become an employee. And, as mentioned above, a range of political and institutional reasons may lead them to believe that stability always must be better, a view that is consistent with China's current social status.

6. Conclusions

Entrepreneurship can help to seek or create new opportunities for China, and it is such an important force in stimulating innovation and promoting economic growth. Nowadays, the traditional way of the "troika" cannot support sustainability for China. Under the circumstance that entrepreneurship can be the key to China's high-quality development in the future, it is a must for the academic sector to conduct research on how to provide more opportunities for citizens' entrepreneurship; it may be helpful in placing the citizens in a suitable social atmosphere and developing their appropriate social attitudes.

For citizens' ideas and intentions to venture into entrepreneurship can never be purposely artificially created by administrative orders, only when a better institutional environment is provided, where citizens are given sufficient guarantees for normal lives, protected from risks of being overly affected by entrepreneurial behaviour, thereby reducing the negative risks to increase confidence and expectations, can their interests and inclinations be guided and nurtured through the social atmosphere and social attitudes, thus releasing imagination and creativity and fundamentally rendering opportunities. It is only by doing so that citizens can take the initiative to create freely and spontaneously, by providing more reasonable conditions, such as better patent protection, higher quality requirements and rigorous definition of property rights in law, or by increasing respect for successful entrepreneurs and improving the status of innovators in terms of the social environment. Incentives or inducements cannot simply be used, as they may create the illusion of prosperity in the short term, but in reality it will mainly encourage speculation, rent-seeking and short-sightedness, which must be contrary to sustainable economic development in the system.

The paper sorts out the current context and status of China, analyses the importance and necessity of entrepreneurship, and studies whether the social attitudes

encourage citizens to become entrepreneurs. Using CGSS data, the paper explores the essentiality of social attitudes from social equity, social happiness and social trust, and examines the influential factors in terms of personal characteristics through an empirical approach. Citizens' feelings and perceptions of social equity and social happiness have a significant positive impact on encouraging them to be entrepreneurs. Positive factors are income, social security and children; negative factors are education, political identity and hukou. The effect can be more significant for urban citizens than rural ones; men and women are affected differently by the same factors in their choice to become employees or entrepreneurs. To encourage more entrepreneurship and innovation in the market, it is important to consider both commonalities and differences, and to secure and promote economic development through the new growth engine.

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