

Chapter 4: Motivating entrepreneurial activities to achieve sustainable development in sub-Saharan Africa

Chioma Onoshakpor^{a,1} and Oyedele Martins Ogundana^b

^{a, 1} *Robert Gordon University, Garthdee House, Garthdee Rd, Garthdee, Aberdeen AB10 7AQ*

^b *Nottingham Trent University, 50 Shakespeare Street, Nottingham, United Kingdom*

Abstract

It is largely acknowledged that entrepreneurial activities represent a crucial means for achieving sustainable development, especially in the developing economy. Yet, the percentage of population involved in business start-ups are still very low in Africa compared to other continents including the developed world. Thus, this chapter explores factors motivating entrepreneurial activities among women and men in a developing economy –Nigeria. To do this, we conducted 10 in-depth interviews which were transcribed and thematically analysed using QSR NVivo. The findings revealed that women and men are motivated by different factors. The implication of this finding is that female entrepreneurs should be treated as a homogenous group separate from their male counterparts. Doing this will enable policymakers to design much more effective entrepreneurial policies that encourages entrepreneurial activities that can stimulate sustainable development especially in sub-Saharan Africa.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial activities, entrepreneurship, motivating factors, sustainable development, gender equality

1. Introduction

One of the sustainable development goals introduced by the United Nations is SDG 1 which is targeted at ending poverty in all its form everywhere– especially in a developing economy (Quagraine et al., 2021). This is because the issue of poverty often results in the lack of education, social exclusion and high vulnerability to diseases (Quagraine et al., 2021). Poverty is also linked to health and well-being challenges (Currie and Goodman, 2020). Evidence from the developing economies (including Ghana) reveals that chronic malnutrition and anaemia are associated with household poverty levels (Anim-Somuah et al., 2013; Damilola et al., 2020). Many studies have argued that entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial activities are crucial means for reducing the proportion of poverty especially within the developing economy (IFC, 2014; Misango and Ongiti, 2013; Quagraine et al., 2021). For instance, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's (GEM) reported that entrepreneurial activities in Africa reduces poverty by generating about 1million jobs in Angola; 4million in Nigeria; 1.08million in Burkina Faso;

and 1.64million in Zambia (GEM, 2014; GEM, 2015). Moreover, GEM (2017) reported that entrepreneurial activities would create more jobs as 30% of all business owners in East, North and Sub-Saharan Africa are projected to hire six or more employees in 5 years. The employment projection within GEM's report entrepreneurial activities will reduce unemployment and poverty in Africa by an average of 6% (GEM, 2017). Aside from their contribution to the reduction of poverty and unemployment, entrepreneurial activities have reduced the number of child trafficking and prostitution in Nigeria (Ogundana, 2020); improved the rate of child education in Ghana and the Republic of Niger (Chea, 2008; Otoo et al., 2012); improved family nutritional rates by 33% in Botswana (Ama et al., 2014); reduced the level of crime by 23.3% in Ogun State Nigeria (Iyiola and Azuh, 2014); and played a crucial role in alleviating hunger and poverty in Kenya (Misango and Ongiti, 2013; IFC, 2014). These are some of the benefits derivable from engaging in entrepreneurial activities. Yet, the percentage of population involved in business start-ups are still very low in Africa compared to other continents including the developed world (Statista, 2022).

Studies have shown that individuals are motivated into becoming entrepreneurs for different reasons including financial success, status, self-realization, marriage break-up and the existence of an opportunity (Kirkwood, 2009; Manolova et al., 2008). These entrepreneurial motivation factors are generally categorised into push and pull factors (McClelland et al., 2005; Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007; Segal et al., 2005). Push factors are often used to categorise those factors that have negative connotations including lack of job, economic challenges, and poverty (Amit and Muller, 1995; Carsrud and Brannback, 2011; Kirkwood, 2009). While pull factors refer to those positive aspects that attract people to entrepreneurship including seeing an opportunity (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Kirkwood, 2009; Manolova et al., 2008). Some studies opined that pull factors are more prevalent than push factors (see for instance Segal et al., 2005; Shinnar and Young, 2008). However, these studies are mostly from the developed economies and might not apply to the developing economies where push factors (i.e., economy challenges and absence of jobs) are more likely to abound than pull factors (i.e., opportunities). Besides, it is still unclear whether there are gender differences in the way push and pull motivations influence women and men into becoming an entrepreneur in a developing economy. Highlighting these gender differences is needed especially as women manage their businesses in ways different from their male counterparts (Kirkwood, 2009; Ogundana et al., 2020). Thus, this chapter is underlined by 2 research questions:

1. *What motivates people to get involved in entrepreneurial activities in a developing*

economy –Nigeria?

2. *How do the motivating factors for women differ from their male counterparts in a developing economy –Nigeria?*

To address these 2 questions, we conducted 10 in-depth interviews, consisting of 5 men and women entrepreneurs who operate a range of business enterprises in Nigeria. These interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed using thematic analysis. The findings are presented using textural and structural descriptors. After this introductory section, we review push and pull factors, social feminist theory and provide insights into the Nigerian context as a backdrop for this study. This is followed by the discussion of the research method employed in this study. The chapter concludes by discussing the research and policy implications of the research findings.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Push and pull factors

Generally, in the entrepreneurship literature, the factors that motivate individuals into entrepreneurship are mainly categorised into 2 – push and pull factors (Amit and Muller, 1995; Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). Different terminologies, which means the same thing, have been used to substitute the push and pull division. For instance, Reynolds et al. (2001) utilised the term ‘opportunity-based’ and ‘necessity-based’ to describe the pull and push factors. Dawson and Henley (2012) described them in his own word as ‘positive’ and ‘negative’ factors. Nonetheless, though studies have used different terms, they mean the same thing. As such, in this study we stick to the push and pull descriptor to reduce discrepancy. Push factors are those factors that have negative connotations including the lack of white-collar employment, job dissatisfaction, unemployment, poor salary, inflexible work schedule, economic challenges, and poverty (Kirkwood, 2009; Ogundana, 2022a; Segal, et al. 2005). Entrepreneurs who are motivated by push factors are often described as necessity-focused and survival-oriented (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011; Reynolds et al., 2002). Such people who were pushed into entrepreneurship are mostly concerned with avoiding failure, which could mean starvation (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). The central motivation of an individual pushed into entrepreneurship is often to earn enough money to support themselves and their family (Ogundana, 2022b). In other words, pushed entrepreneurs are often focused on survival which means that they are frequently likely to miss or oftentimes ignore opportunities that have a longer payback period (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). This is mainly because this category of entrepreneurs is frequently unable to wait to achieve a bigger goal as they are concerned that they might starve to death waiting (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). Thus, an enterprise born

out of push factors are often risk averse as they are likely to assume that failing could mean death, a risk not worth taking (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011). On the other hand, pull factors include those positive aspects that attract individuals to entrepreneurship including the existence of a business opportunity, seeking independence, self-fulfilment and wealth (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Kirkwood, 2009; Manolova et al., 2008). Individuals who were pulled into entrepreneurship are often described as opportunistic entrepreneur as they are often driven by the achievement of success through exploiting an opportunity for some form of gain often measured in economic terms (Reynolds et al., 2002). Such individuals are attracted to become entrepreneurs because they want to earn money, power, prestige, and/or status (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011).

There is inconsistency in the current entrepreneurship literature regarding how the push and pull factors interact with one another to motivate individuals into entrepreneurship. Many of the existing studies seem to suggest that the push and pull factors might motivate individuals separately and individually (Brünjes and Diez, 2013; Segal et al., 2005; Zgheib, 2018). While some other categories of studies suggest that the push and pull factors are likely to operate together, yet either of them would have a dominant role (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011; Dawson and Henley, 2012; Kirkwood, 2009). In developing their argument for an intertwined relationship between push and pull factors, Carsrud and Brannback (2011, p.14) claimed that “in biotechnology, the search for a cure for a disease is often a far more powerful motivator than personal wealth creation”. Furthermore, there are also inconsistencies regarding whether women and men are equally motivated by similar motivator (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Kirkwood, 2009). On the contrary, the social construction of gender suggest that women are less likely than men to be motivated to become entrepreneurs in the developing economies (Kelley et al., 2013; Solesvik et al., 2019). Furthermore, there are differences in the motivational factors for men and women to become entrepreneurs, with more women stating personal and family-related issues as motivator; while their male counterparts are more likely to state financial reasons (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Taylor and Newcomer, 2005). Although Bush and cooper (2012) have questioned whether entrepreneurship actually offers an improved work-family balance for women considering starting a business for familial reasons. This might explain why some women entrepreneurs exit from entrepreneurship after some few years (Bush and cooper, 2012; Dawson and Henley, 2012; Solesvik et al., 2019). Kirkwood (2009) stated that researchers have paid little attention to gender differences in the push and pull motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This omission Kirkwood claims is not new, as entrepreneurship

research still lacks gender comparative analysis. As such, Dawson and Henley (2012) posited that “pull” and “push” factors, should be considered along the lines of current contemporary economic conditions and differential personal circumstances of both genders. This suggests that observable differences in motivation between men and women may be due to sociocultural factors which would differ from context to context.

2.2.Social feminist theory and entrepreneurial motivation

The social feminist theory assumes that women and men differ from one another inherently (Fischer et al., 1993; Huq et al., 2019; Szymanski, 2005). The source of the assumed gender differences is located within the early and ongoing different socialisation processes that women and men are exposed to throughout their lives that often condition them to view the world in fundamentally different ways (DeTienne & Chandler, 2007; Johnsen & McMahon, 2005; Huq et al., 2019; Orser, Elliott, & Leck, 2011). Accordingly, several entrepreneurship studies that have compared women and men on socialised traits and values are consistent with the social feminist assumption (see for instance: Ampofo, 2001; Kelley et al., 2013; Solesvik et al., 2019). Several studies have observed many consistent gender differences (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Marlow and Martinez, 2018; Szymanski, 2005; Taylor and Newcomer, 2005). For instance, women - who are often conditioned by societal praxis - are often taught to assume domestic roles and possess traits such as gentleness, sensitivity, compassion, submissiveness and deference (Ogundana et al., 2018; Simba et al., 2022; Verheul et al., 2006). On the other hand, men are socialised to express toughness, stoicism, self-sufficient attitudes, lack of emotional sensitivity and a more dominant role in male-female relationships (Ampofo, 2001; Huq et al., 2019; Izugbara, 2005; Ogundana et al., 2022b). The gender socialisation processes are more dominant in the developing country context where deviation from them are often frowned at, and culprits stigmatised (Ogundana et al., 2022a; Simba et al., 2022). Besides, in a developing country region such as Ghana, social expectations are "reinforced by direct instruction, punishments, and by observation of female acceptance of male dominance among parents" (Ampofo, 2001, P. 16).

Gender socialisation and traits also shapes the way both women and men operate their businesses (Fischer et al., 1993; Manolova et al., 2012; Weber and Geneste, 2014). For instance, Manolova et al. (2012) observed that women entrepreneurs in the USA desired non-financial forms of success compared to their male counterparts who preferred financial successes. In a study of gender-related perceptions of success in business, Weber and Geneste (2014) found that women entrepreneurs preferred intrinsic success (i.e., non-

financial: lifestyle and perceived success); while their male counterparts preferred extrinsic forms of successes in business (i.e., sales, number of employees and profit). Similarly, in his study, Smith (1999) concluded that male entrepreneurs were motivated by financial and instrumental concerns while women were motivated by relational and social concerns. A recurring conclusion from these prior studies (i.e., Manolova et al., 2012; Smith, 1999; Weber and Geneste, 2014) is that women are more inclined towards non-financial gains while their men counterparts prefer financial forms of successes. Indeed, there are assumptions that women's preference for non-financial successes are linked to their feminine traits of gentleness, sensitivity, compassion, submissiveness and deference; while men are linked to financial successes because of their masculine traits of self-sufficiency and competitiveness (Manolova et al., 2012; Weber and Geneste, 2014). However, these conclusions are mostly gleaned from studies that are based on the developed country contexts including USA. This might not apply in the developing country region that mostly possess a unique business, social and institutional context (Welter, 2011). Besides, different individuals have started to switch their feminine traits for masculine attributes – vice versa – because of the psychosocial and environmental challenges that characterise our world (Ogundana et al., 2022b). For instance, men have started to take up the responsibilities of child-care and women have become breadwinners of the home (Miller et al., 2022; Nnah, 2021). Thus, it is difficult, if not impossible, to propose what factors would motivate women and men into entrepreneurship in the developing economies.

2.3.The Nigerian entrepreneurship context

Existing studies have shown that entrepreneurial activities drive economic growth, creates employment opportunities, and wealth (Brush and Cooper, 2012; Huggins et al., 2018). Studies show that in a developing economy like Nigeria, entrepreneurial activities play an important role, not only in economic development but in steering the socio-economic landscape of the country. In a report by the National Bureau of Statistics (2014), entrepreneurship in Nigeria is seen to account for 97% of the total businesses in the country, contributing 87.9% of the net jobs and 48% of the industrial output in terms of value-addition (Olukayode and Somoye, 2013). Besides, SMEs also contribute 48% of the country's GDP (UNDESA, 2019). According to GEM (2012), Nigeria is considered one of the world's most entrepreneurial countries as 35 out of 100 Nigerians are engaged in some kind of entrepreneurial activity or the other. As such, the Nigerian government, indeed the government of other developing economies, have introduced numerous programmes to support the development and growth of enterprises in the

developing economies (Ajayi, 2016; Ogundana et al., 2018). Notable among them are the National Directorate of Employment (NDE), Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN), Peoples Bank of Nigeria (PBN), National Bank of Commerce and Industry, Microfinance Banks, National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND) and the National Economic Empowerment and Development Scheme (NEEDS). However, studies have observed that many of these policy interventions aimed at motivating individuals into entrepreneurship have recorded failures due to poor implementation, corruption, excessive red tapes, and bureaucracy (Igwe et al., 2018; Ihugba et al., 2013; Thaddeus, 2012). Yet, individuals continue to stream towards entrepreneurship despite the limited support system in place to motivate potential entrepreneurs to start businesses (UNDESA, 2019). Yet, it is still unclear what factors motivate individuals to venture into entrepreneurship and how these motivating factors differ by gender.

3. Research methodology

This study is interpretive in nature, resting on the epistemological assumption that the focus of this research is inconsistent with what obtains in the natural sciences terrain (Mason, 2010; Morse, 1995). This discrepancy is driven by the growing recognition that the way entrepreneurship eventuate will vary depending on its historical, institutional, spatial and social contexts (Welter, 2011). By adhering to an interpretive research paradigm, this study unravelled push and pull motivational factors that are unique to male and female entrepreneurs operating within the Nigerian entrepreneurial context. Besides, the interactionist nature of a qualitative research framework enabled this study to identify gender-specific motivational factors and those applicable to both male and female entrepreneurs (Farquhar, 2012; Hesse-Biber 2007). We utilised the purposive and snowballing sampling technique to recruit respondents for this study. This sampling techniques were useful for obtaining the information we required from those respondents that possessed such information (Hamilton, 2006; Yin, 2012). Overall, we interviewed 10 business owners (5 male and 5 female entrepreneurs) who own and operate businesses within different economic sector of Nigeria (see table 1). The interview sessions lasted between 30-40minutes and were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim for analysis.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of interview participants

Respondents	Gender	Marital Status	No. of employees	Sector of operation	Years of operation
1	Male	Married	10	Real Estate	10
2	Female	Single	5	Real Estate	3
3	Female	Married	7	Food/accommodation	10
4	Male	Married	35	Food/accommodation	12
5	Female	Single	1	Real Estate	3
6	Male	Married	1	Real Estate	3
7	Female	Married	40	Food/accommodation	18
8	Male	Single	1	Food/accommodation	4
9	Male	Married	350	Real Estate	7
10	Female	Married	25	Food/accommodation	17

Source: Authors' idea based on data collection

Table 1 displays the overview of the respondents, age of their businesses, sector of operation, marital status and specifically their gender. This helps to provide useful information about the demographics of the respondents. The age of the respondents' businesses range between 3-18years showing they fall within the range of micro and small enterprises according to SMEDAN's categorization of MSME's. The number of employees engaged within these enterprises ranged between 1-350 employees. We started the analysis by reading and re-reading each of the transcripts to get acquainted with the data analysis process (Glaser 1978). With the aid of NVivo, we coded important remarks within each interview transcript using data-driven and theory-driven codes derived from the existing entrepreneurship literature. The evolving codes, commentaries and their interpretations are presented using textural and structural descriptions of factors that motivate male and female individuals into starting a business.

4. Finding

4.1. Factors motivating female entrepreneurs in Nigeria

The findings showed that women were pushed and pulled into entrepreneurship (*See Table 2a and 2b*). Furthermore, our findings show that female entrepreneurs in Nigeria are more likely motivated by external economic conditions such as job insecurity in the Nigerian labour market (push factors). In that regard, R2 explained that:

... you know the job insecurity uncertainties in the private sector is something else, so you always need a backup plan...

The issue of job insecurity is an issue that is prevalent in the Nigerian economy irrespective of gender. However, the findings from the interview results reveal that mostly women entrepreneurs were affected by the issue of insecurity in employment. This suggest that there are more reasons specific to the way the feminine gender is constructed that makes the issue of

job insecurity specific to women. This is consistent with prior studies (including Devine 1994; Winn 2004) that revealed that due to a continuing lack of progress within the workplace, women may be lured into entrepreneurship. Similarly, about half of the women including respondent R2 identified that the presence of a 'glass ceiling' hindering their career development in an employee's role was another factor that pushed them into entrepreneurship – mostly as a backup plan.

Our findings showed that female entrepreneurs are also motivated by the need to gain greater autonomy (pull factors). In that regards, R3 laments:

....okay I have a lot of energy and when I started out with the nine to five I would sit at my desk literally do everything I'm asked to do and will try to generate more work to do and still get done with it and still have so much idle time, I'm someone who wants to give a hundred per cent of myself to anything I'm doing so while I was working for my bosses I didn't feel right to also do things on the side...

The above comment shows a need for achievement by the female entrepreneur, a trait uncommon in the general literature. For instance, women's interest in achievement defies the existing assumption that women are generally reserved, unambitious and unenterprising (Kandeland Massey, 2002; Shen, 2019).

The findings also revealed that some women, including respondent R7, were motivated into starting an enterprise because of the flexibility entrepreneurship offers. This is mainly because women are often more likely to be faced with the need to juggle together family and work responsibilities, thereby needing total autonomy to be able to manage both together (Fierrman, 1990; Zellner, 1994). According to Respondent R7:

.....and I like the fact that my time is mine I decide how I do it and I decide what I do when I do which is what only an enterprise can do...

The comment made by R7 aligns with the conclusions made by Konrad and Langton (1991) and Morris et al (1995) who posits that family issues and responsibility can influence the career choices of women because it is important to them. Family-related factors such as family policies and family obligations (DeMartino and Barbato 2003; Hannah et al., 2019), domestic commitments (Greenfield and Nayak 1992; Marlow 2002), and the need for work-family balance (Jennings and McDougald, 2007; Kirkwood and Tootell, 2008) have been found to be important for the female entrepreneur. These factors though labelled as push factors, according

to Verheul et al., (2006) are important entrepreneurship motivation factors irrespective of gender.

Other female respondents claimed to have started their businesses because they identified a gap in the market (pull factors). For example, R5 and R10 commented respectively.

... okay I mean for me I see an opportunity and I'm thinking what can I do here right and how can I take advantage;

.... i found out I was basically cooking for almost all my friend's events so I could as well be paid while doing the job.

These commentaries by R5 and R10 can be categorised as 'pull factor'. Furthermore, contrary to prior studies (Kandeland Massey, 2002; Shen,2019) that indicate that only male individuals have the ability to identify business opportunities in the market, this research shows that female entrepreneur possess the opportunistic tendency that a typical male entrepreneur possesses. Besides, our findings disagree with extant literature on the indications that women are mainly pushed into entrepreneurship; and as such set up businesses mostly in the service (Kuratko and Hodgetts 1995).

Table 4.2a: Sample quotes, second-order codes, and over-arching themes

Over-arching theme	Second-order codes	Sample quotes (Male)	Sample quotes (Female)
Push factors	Financial motivation	...other reasons of obvious reasons so you know we want to literally enjoy what you earn you know...R1	...it was just trying to make ends meet because initially I was working in the private sector and it was really hectic ...R2
	External economic conditions		... you know the job insecurity uncertainties in the private sector is something else so you always need a backup plan...R2
	Non-pecuniary and internal motivations	 so one of the reasons that made me, you know try to choose this part was to create an opportunity for people...R1 ... you know just to take a couple of people off the streets by giving them you know jobs and opportunities to make ends meet...R1	
	Self-employment	...a long-time dream from when I was 12 years old, my mother was a trader, seeing what she does and assisting her in what she does make me what to do this.... it birthed in me such passion to want to do this...R4 ...entrepreneurship is something that runs in my blood you know all my life that's what I've been wanting to be to run my business because while I was growing up you know I was suing I was a tailor you know so I'm just a normal tailor and I grew the business to a point where I was wearing clothes and taken them to the UK.... R9	

Table 2b: Sample quotes, second-order codes, and over-arching themes

Pull factors

Over-arching theme	Second-order codes	Sample quotes (Male)	Sample quotes (Female)
Pull factors	Seeking greater autonomy or independence	believe I can I would have job satisfaction if I am an employee I understand so I noticed that job satisfaction is what made me yeah.... R6 you know me as an executive chef running several restaurants for people at some point, I felt that I also need to have something for myself right to at least uh stand as a backup that was the initial plan but in the long run I started developing more interesting growing the business because I also need to stand as a brand...R8	...okay I have a lot of energy and when I started out with the nine to five I would sit at my desk literally do everything I'm asked to do and will try to generate more work to do and still get done with it and still have so much idle time, I'm someone who wants to give a hundred per cent of myself to anything I'm doing so while I was working for my bosses I didn't feel right to also do things on the side...R3 and I like the fact that my time is mine I decide how I do it and I decide what I do when I do which is what only an enterprise can do.... R7
	Regaining excitement/satisfaction in one's work	basically, to be employed to find satisfaction in the workplace...R4	...okay my initial motivation I would say, I have always had a desire to provide better housing for the less privileged right, I've always had that desire to because I don't feel that because you cannot afford a certain amount of money you should not be able to live in a comfortable environment at least averagely so that has always been my desire since I was quite young ...R2
	Identifying a gap in the market	... and then being from the Northern part of Nigeria, I saw how food was scarce and the need to cultivate homegrown food, without using sophisticated manure...R4	 those yeah okay I mean for me I see an opportunity I'm thinking what I can do here right and how can I take advantage.... R5 I found out I was basically cooking for almost all my friend's events so I could as well be paid while doing the job. I was working for free had I actually was working in an office and doing that part-time when they have events, I cook I pack I save.... R10

4.2. Factors motivating male entrepreneurs in Nigeria

Our findings revealed that respondents in this study were motivated by a complex system of interacting factors that included both push and pull factors (*See Table 2a and 2b*). Male respondents were majorly motivated by the idea of being self-employed. This is supported by

prior literature where entrepreneurship is often described as a male domain (Ahl, 2006; Holmquist and Sundin, 1989; Ljunggren and Alsos, 2001; Verheul et al., 2012). In that regard, respondent R4 and R9 stated respectively that:

...a long-time dream from when I was 12 years old, my mother was a trader, seeing what she does and assisting her in what she does make me what to do this.... it birthed in me such passion to want to do this... R4;

...entrepreneurship is something that runs in my blood you know all my life that's what I've been wanting to be- to run my business because while I was growing up you know I was sewing, I was a tailor you know and I grew the business to a point where I was sewing clothes and taking them to the UK to sell....R9

This indicate that men might consider that entrepreneurship is a sector mainly for men. Besides, men are mostly introduced to the business world early in their lifetime. Parents in the developing economy region will normally introduce the family business to their male children because they believe the male child is more superior to the female child and he can handle the business better than the female child. On the contrary, a female child is expected to get married and will change her surname in the process. Women are often not introduced to the family business because in an instance where the business becomes successful, the goodwill and accolades will be transferred to the husbands and his family. Meaning the wealth and the glory will be transferred to the wife's family. Thus, a family will not introduce their female children to business because they fear that the business might be transferred to the spouse's family. Rather, a male child will keep the business within the immediate family.

Male respondents are also motivated by other factor including non-pecuniary and internal motivations. For instance R1 explained:

... so one of the reasons that made me, you know try to choose this part was to create an opportunity for people... you know just to take a couple of people off the streets by giving them you know jobs and opportunities to make ends meet ...R1

This is new especially as the present literature mainly posit that non-pecuniary motivators are mainly linked to women entrepreneurs only (see for instance: Manolova et al., 2012; Weber and Geneste, 2014). Also, Dawson and Henley (2012) posit that social entrepreneurs and/or entrepreneurs who provide goods and services in the environmental/sustainability industry are primarily motivated by non-pecuniary factors, this research shows otherwise that R1 operates in the real estate sector and belongs to the male gender, states pecuniary reasons as his motivating factor though secondary to financial motivation.

5. Discussion and conclusion

This chapter investigated what motivates people to start a business in a developing economy and whether these motivational factors for women differ from their male counterparts. Doing this will enable policy makers to better understand how to inspire individuals to become entrepreneurs, especially in a developing economy context where governments continue to struggle with reducing the significant proportion of unemployment, poverty and contributing towards achieving sustainable development in sub-Saharan Africa.

The findings indicate that women and men are mostly motivated into entrepreneurship by both pull and push factors. This is contrary to some existing studies that suggested that the push and pull factors motivate individuals separately and individually (Brünjes and Diez, 2013; Segal et al., 2005; Zgheib, 2018). In the developing economy, individuals are motivated by a mixture of both pull and push factors. Indeed, all contexts will have both pull and push factors operating within them, although either of the categories of motivator will assume a dominant role (Carsrud and Brannback, 2011; Dawson and Henley, 2012). In that regard, women are both pulled and pushed into entrepreneurship – but mostly pulled into entrepreneurship – in the developing country region. This is contrary to prior studies that suggest that women are mostly pushed into entrepreneurship because of the challenges they often encounter within the developing economy. Indeed, women are pushed into entrepreneurship, but they mostly make their career choice based on the sector where opportunities lie and abounds – pull factors. Besides, women are less pushed into entrepreneurship because they are less likely to be breadwinners of their families. For the men, they seem to be equally pushed and pulled into entrepreneurship. However, the men are more likely to be pushed into entrepreneurship because they often experience a higher familial pressure in their role as head and providers for their families. This explains why men experience more push factors than their women counterparts.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the literature on entrepreneurship. It investigated the factors motivating women and men into entrepreneurship. In addition, the study also highlights how these factors vary based on the gender of the entrepreneur. Besides, the study explained the underlying issue behind the observed differences between the factors motivating women and men entrepreneur. Thus, we conclude that although women and men in the developing economy encounter push and pull motivators, yet the degree to which they experience both category of motivators differ. This difference is largely because women are groomed to provide support for their spouses; thus, they often experience less pressure to meet the need of their families and demand from the home front. On the other hand, men are

primarily responsible for financing their families, and thus are more likely to experience more of the push motivators than the pull motivator. The implication of this is that women are different from their male counterparts. As such, we recommend that policy makers should focus on developing support mechanisms that are gender-specific rather than generic. By doing that, government are more likely to develop policy mechanisms that can have a more effective impact on women and men entrepreneurs in the developing economies. For future studies, we recommend that researchers should consider a comparative study of motivators in other developing economies. Future studies should also consider whether the findings of this study will differ for women who are the breadwinners of their home. Such studies will further broaden the perspective of this chapter.

References

- Adom, K., Asare-Yeboah, T., Quaye, M. and Ampomah, A.O., 2018. A critical assessment of work and family life of female entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa: Some fresh evidence from Ghana. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 25(3), pp.405-427.
- Ahl, H., 2006. Why research on women entrepreneurs needs new directions. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 30(5), pp. 595-621.
- Ajayi, B., 2016. The impact of entrepreneurial orientation and networking capabilities on the export performance of Nigerian agricultural SMEs. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation in Emerging Economies*, 2(1), pp.1-23.
- Ama, N., T. Mangadi, K. and A. Ama, H., 2014. Exploring the challenges facing women entrepreneurs in informal cross-border trade in Botswana. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 29(8), pp.505-522.
- Amit, R. and Muller, E., 1995. "Push" and "pull" entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship*, 12(4), pp.64-80.
- Anim-Somuah, H., Henson, S., Humphrey, J. and Robinson, E., 2013. *Strengthening agri-food value chains for nutrition: mapping value chains for nutrient-dense foods in Ghana* (No. Evidence Report; 2). Institute of Development Studies (IDS).
- Beauvoir, Simone de. 1953. *Must we burn Sade?* London: Nevill
- Biever, J.L., Bobele, M. and North, M., 1998. Therapy with intercultural couples: A postmodern approach. *Counselling psychology quarterly*, 11(2), pp. 181-188.
- Braches, B. and Elliott, C., 2017. Articulating the entrepreneurship career: A study of German women entrepreneurs. *International Small Business Journal*, 35(5), pp. 535-557.
- Bruni, A., Gherardi, S. and Poggio, B., 2004. Entrepreneur-mentality, gender & the study of women entrepreneurs. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 17(3), pp.256-268.
- Brünjes, J. and Diez, J.R., 2013. 'Recession push' and 'prosperity pull' entrepreneurship in a rural developing context. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 25(3-4), pp.251-271.
- Brush, C. and Cooper, S., 2012. Female entrepreneurship and economic development: An

- international perspective. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, 24(1-2), pp.1-6.
- Brush, C.G., 1992. Research on women business owners: Past trends, a new perspective and future directions. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 16(4), pp. 5-30.
- Burr, V. (1995). *An Introduction to Social Constructionism*. London: Routledge.
- Carsrud, A. and Brännback, M., 2011. Entrepreneurial motivations: what do we still need to know?. *Journal of small business management*, 49(1), pp.9-26.
- Chea, A.C., 2008. Entrepreneurial venture creation: The application of pattern identification theory to the entrepreneurial opportunity-identification process. *International journal of business and management*, 3(2), pp.37-53.
- Currie, J. and Goodman, J., 2020. Parental socioeconomic status, child health, and human capital. In *The economics of education* (pp. 239-248). Academic Press.
- Damilola, O., Deborah, I., Oyedele, O. and Kehinde, A.A., 2020. Global pandemic and business performance. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science* (2147-4478), 9(6), pp.01-11. <https://doi.org/10.20525/ijrbs.v9i6.906>
- Dean, H., Larsen, G., Ford, J. and Akram, M., 2019. Female entrepreneurship and the metanarrative of economic growth: A critical review of underlying assumptions. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 21(1), pp. 24-49.
- Demartino, R. and Barbato, R., 2003. Differences between women and men MBA entrepreneurs: exploring family flexibility and wealth creation as career motivators. *Journal of business venturing*, 18(6), pp. 815-832.
- Devine, T.J., 1994. Characteristics of self-employed women in the United States. *Monthly Lab.Rev.*, 117, pp. 20.
- Durojaye, E., and Owwoye, Y. (2017). Equally unequal or unequally equal: Adopting a substantive equality approach to gender discrimination in Nigeria. *International Journal of Discrimination and the Law*, 17(2), 70-85.
- Ekoja, G., Agbaeze, E., Namah, E. and Ajoku, O., 2020. Female Entrepreneurship and Socioeconomic Development: From the Social Feminist Theory (SFT) Versus Theory of Need of Achievement (TNA) of Entrepreneurial Personality Trait and Intention Perspective. *International Journal of Management*, 11(9), pp. 1296-1306.
- Fierman, J., 1990. Why women still don't hit the top. *Fortune*, 122(3), pp. 40-47.
- Galbin, A., 2014. An introduction to social constructionism. *Social Research Reports*, 6(26), pp. 82-92.
- Garba, A.S. 2011, "Stumbling block for women entrepreneurship in Nigeria: How risk attitude and lack of capital mitigates their need for business expansion", *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, vol. 36, pp. 38-49.
- GEM, 2014. Global Report [online]. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor. Available at: <http://www.babson.edu/Academics/centers/blank-center/globalresearch/gem/Documents/GEM%202014%20Global%20Report.pdf>.
- GEM, 2015. Special Report Women's Entrepreneurship [online]. GEM. Available at: <http://www.babson.edu/Academics/centers/blank-center/globalresearch/gem/Documents/GEM%202015%20Womens%20Report.pdf>.
- GEM, 2017. Women's Entrepreneurship Report [online]. GEM. Available at: <https://www.gemconsortium.org/report/gem-20162017-womens-entrepreneurship>

report.

- Gergen, K.J. and Gergen, M., 2012. Therapeutic communication from a constructionist standpoint. *Discursive perspectives in therapeutic practice*, pp. 65-82.
- Gergen, K.J., 2004. The SAGE Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods. *Methods*, 1, pp.183-185.
- Glancey, K., Greig, M. and Pettigrew, M., 1998. Entrepreneurial dynamics in small business service firms. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 4(3), pp.249-268.
- Glaser, B. G. 1978. Theoretical sensitivity. Mill Valley, CA: The Sociology Press.
- Global Entrepreneurship Monitor GEM (2012). 2012 Global Survey Report: GEM
- Greenfield, S. and Nayak, A., 1992. The management information needs of very small businesses: Gender differences. *Small businesses and small business development-A practical approach*, 2.
- Hamilton, P., 2006. *Visual research methods*. Sage.
- Henry, C., Foss, L., Fayolle, A., Walker, E. and Duffy, S., 2015. Entrepreneurial leadership and gender: Exploring theory and practice in global contexts. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53(3), pp. 581-586.
- Hesse-Biber, S.N., 2007. *The cult of thinness*. Oxford University Press.
- Hisrich, R. and Brush, C., 1984. The woman entrepreneur: Management skills and business problems. *University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign's Academy for Entrepreneurial Leadership Historical Research Reference in Entrepreneurship*.
- Holmquist, C. and Sundin, E., 1989. The growth of women's entrepreneurship: Push or pull factors, *EIASM Conference on Small Business, University of Durham Business School* 1989.
- Huggins, R., Thompson, P. and Obschonka, M., 2018. Human behaviour and economic growth: A psychocultural perspective on local and regional development. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 50(6), pp.1269-1289
- Hurley, A.E., 1999. Incorporating feminist theories into sociological theories of entrepreneurship. *Women in Management Review*, 14(2), pp.54-62.
- IFC, 2014. Women-Owned SNEs: A business opportunity for financial institutions [online]. International Finance Corporation. Available at: <http://www.ifc.org>.
- Igwe, P.A., Amaugo, A.N., Ogundana, O.M., Martin, O. and Egere, J.A.A., 2018. Factors Affecting the Investment Climate, SMEs Productivity and Entrepreneurship in Nigeria. *European Journal of Sustainable Development*, 7(1), pp.182-200.
- Igwe, P.A., Odunukan, K., Rahman, M., Rugara, D.G. and Ochinanwata, C., 2020. How entrepreneurship ecosystem influences the development of frugal innovation and informal entrepreneurship. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 62(5), pp. 475-488.
- Ihugba, O.A., Bankong, B. and Ebomuche, N.C., 2013. The impact of Nigeria microfinance banks on poverty reduction: Imo state experience. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(16), pp.97-114.
- Iyiola, O. and Azuh, D.E., 2014. Women entrepreneurs as small-medium enterprise (SME)

- operators and their roles in socio-economic development in Ota, Nigeria. *International Journal of Economics, Business and Finance*, 2(1), pp. 1-10.
- Izugbara, C.O., 2005. The socio-cultural context of adolescents' notions of sex and sexuality in rural south-eastern Nigeria. *Sexualities*, 8(5), pp.600-617.
- Kandel, W. and Massey, D.S., 2002. The culture of Mexican migration: A theoretical and empirical analysis. *Social forces*, 80(3), pp. 981-1004.
- Kirkwood, J., 2009. Motivational factors in a push-pull theory of entrepreneurship. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(5), pp.346-364.
- Konrad, A.M. and Langton, N., 1991. Sex differences in job preferences, workplace segregation, and compensating earning differentials: the case of Stanford MBA's. *Academy of Management Proceedings* 1991, Academy of Management Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510, pp. 368-372.
- Korsgaard, S., 2007. Social constructionism: And why it should feature in entrepreneurship theory. *CORE, Department of Management Aarhus School of Business, Denmark*.
- Kuratko, D.F. and Hodgetts, R.M., 1995. *Entrepreneurship: A contemporary approach*. Dryden Press.
- Ljunggren, E. and Alsos, G. A. (2001) 'Media Expressions of Entrepreneurs: Frequency, Content and Appearance of Male and Female Entrepreneurs', paper presented at the Babson College-Kauffman Foundation Entrepreneurship Research Conference, Jönköping, June
- Lorber, J. and Farrell, A., 1991. *The social construction of gender*. Sage Newbury Park, CA.
- Makama, G.A., 2013. Patriarchy and gender inequality in Nigeria: The way forward. *European scientific journal*, 9(17), pp. 115-144.
- Manolova, T.S., Eunni, R.V. and Gyoshev, B.S., 2008. Institutional environments for entrepreneurship: Evidence from emerging economies in Eastern Europe. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 32(1), pp. 203-218.
- Marlow, S. 2002. Self-employed Women: A Part of or Apart from Feminist Theory? *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 2(2), 83-91.
- Marlow, S. and Martinez Dy, A., 2018. Annual review article: Is it time to rethink the gender agenda in entrepreneurship research? *International Small Business Journal*, 36(1), pp.3-22.
- Mcclelland, E., Swail, J., Bell, J. and Ibbotson, P., 2005. Following the pathway of female entrepreneurs: A six-country investigation. *International journal of entrepreneurial behavior & research*, 11(2), 84-107.
- Misango, B. and Ongiti, K., 2013. Do women entrepreneurs play a role in reducing poverty? A case in Kenya. *International Review of Management & Business Research*, 2(1), p.87.
- Morris, M.H., Neumeyer, X. and Kuratko, D.F., 2015. A portfolio perspective on entrepreneurship and economic development. *Small Business Economics*, 45(4), pp. 713-728.
- National Bureau of Statistics 2014, "Statistical report on women and men in Nigeria",
- Nnabugwu F., 2015. (Business News). Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2021/05>.

- OAKLEY, Ann 1972. *Sex Gender and Society*. New York Harper and Row, Inc.
- Ogundana, O., 2022. Obstacles facing women-owned enterprises: A case for Sub-Sahara African women. *World review of entrepreneurship, management and sustainable development*, 18(5-6), pp.529-544.
- Ogundana, O., 2020. *Factors influencing the business growth of women-owned sewing businesses (WOSBs) in Lagos-State, Nigeria: A gender-aware growth framework*. Nottingham Trent University (United Kingdom).
- Ogundana, O., Galanakis, K., Simba, A., and Oxborrow, L., 2018. Women-owned sewing businesses in Lagos-State, Nigeria: a study of the factors influencing their business growth. In: BAM 2018 Conference proceedings. London: British Academy of Management. https://irep.ntu.ac.uk/id/eprint/38368/1/1237540_Ogundana.pdf
- Ogundana, O., Galanakis, K., Simba, A. and Oxborrow, L., 2022a. Growth perception amongst women entrepreneurs: an emerging economy perspective. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 47(1), pp.109-127.
- Ogundana, O., Simba, A., Dana, L.P. and Liguori, E., 2022b. A growth model for understanding female-owned enterprises. *Journal of the International Council for Small Business*, pp.1-10.
- Okafor Amuche, C., 2015. Gender inequality in Nigeria. *Journal of Research in Arts and Social Sciences*, 4(1), pp. 69-80.
- Okoli, I., 2008. The role of business education in promoting gender equality and women empowerment. *Association of Business Educators of Nigeria Book of Readings*. 1(8) 178 – 183.
- Olukayode, R. and Somoye, C. 2013. The Impact of Finance on Entrepreneurship Growth in Nigeria: A Cointegration Framework, ACRN.
- Omodara, D., Ikhile, D., Ogundana, O. and Akin-Akinyosoye, K., 2020. Global pandemic and business performance: Impacts and responses. *International Journal of Research in Business and Social Science*, 9(6), pp.1-11.
- Risman B.J., 2004. Gender as a social structure: Theory wrestling with activism. *Gender & Society* 18(4): 429–450.
- Otoo, M., Ibro, G., Fulton, J. and Lowenberg-Deboer, J., 2012. Micro-entrepreneurship in Niger: Factors affecting the success of women street food vendors. *Journal of African Business*, 13(1), pp.16-28.
- Quagrainie, F.A., Adams, S., Kabalan, A.A.M. and Dankwa, A.D., 2021. Micro-entrepreneurship, sustainable development goal one and cultural expectations of Ghanaian women. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 13(1), pp.86-106.
- Schjoedt, L. and Shaver, K.G., 2007. Deciding on an entrepreneurial career: A test of the pull and push hypotheses using the panel study of entrepreneurial dynamics data. *Entrepreneurship theory and practice*, 31(5), pp. 733-752.
- Segal, G., Borgia, D. and Schoenfeld, J., 2005. The motivation to become an entrepreneur. *International journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & research*, 11(1), pp.42-57.
- Shen, Y., 2019. *Beyond tears and laughter: Gender, migration, and the service sector in China*. Springer.

- Shinnar, R.S. and Young, C.A., 2008. Hispanic immigrant entrepreneurs in the Las Vegas metropolitan area: motivations for entry into and outcomes of self-employment. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 46(2), pp. 242-262.
- Simba, A., Kalu, E.U., Onodugo, V., Okoyeuzu, C.R. and Ogundana, O., 2022. Women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. In: M. Dabić, L.-P. Dana, D. Modestus Nziku and V. Ramadani, eds., *Women entrepreneurs in Sub-Saharan Africa: historical framework, ecosystem, and future perspectives for the region*. Cham: Springer. ISBN 9783030989651 (Forthcoming)
- Solesvik, M., Iakovleva, T. and Trifilova, A., 2019. Motivation of female entrepreneurs: a cross-national study. *Journal of Small Business & Enterprise Development*, 26(5), pp.684-705.
- Solesvik, M., 2019. Entrepreneurial competencies and intentions: The role of higher education, *Forum Scientiae Oeconomia*, Wydawnictwo Naukowe Akademii WSB, pp. 9-23.
- Statista., 2022. *Early-stage entrepreneurial activity rate in the Americas by country 2021*. [online] Available at: <https://www.statista.com/statistics/315492/percentage-of-population-involved-in-business-start-ups-in-latin-america-and-caribbean/>.
- Taylor, S.R. and Newcomer, J.D., 2005. Characteristics of women small business owners. *International Handbook of Women and Small Business Entrepreneurship*, 17, pp. 31.
- Thaddeus, E., 2012. Perspectives: Entrepreneurship development & growth of enterprises in Nigeria. *Entrepreneurial practice review*, 2(2), pp.31-35.
- Van Der Zwan, P., Verheul, I. and Thurik, A.R., 2012. The entrepreneurial ladder, gender, and regional development. *Small Business Economics*, 39(3), pp. 627-643.
- Welter, F., 2011. Contextualizing entrepreneurship—conceptual challenges and ways forward. *Entrepreneurship theory and Practice*, 35(1), pp. 165-184.
- West, C. and Zimmerman, D., 1991. Doing gender, in J. Lorber and S. A. Farrell (eds), *The Social Construction of Gender* (Newbury Park, CA: Sage), 13-37.
- West, C. and Zimmerman, D., 1987. Doing gender. *Gender & Society*, 1(2), pp. 125-151.
- Winn, J., 2004. Entrepreneurship: Not an easy path to top management for women. *Women in Management Review*, 19(3), pp.143-153.
- Zellner, W. (1994). Women Entrepreneurs, Business Week, April 18, 1994
- Zgheib, P., 2018. Multi-level framework of push-pull entrepreneurship: comparing American and Lebanese women. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 24(3), pp.768-786.