

**ONE SIZE DOESN'T FIT ALL:
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN MOTIVATIONS
FOR BECOMING AN ENTREPRENEUR**

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Abstract

Why are people motivated to become entrepreneurs? Previous studies suggest independence, money, a challenge or to get recognition, and work and family reasons are key motivators. Understanding more about potential gender differences in the motivations to become an entrepreneur is the focus of this thesis. In addition to contributing to the academic literature, this study also has implications for policy makers and practitioners, as well as for entrepreneurs and nascent entrepreneurs.

It is often concluded that women's and men's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur are similar. While there have been many studies on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, empirical studies that compare women and men directly are more limited. Much of this prior research has focused on testing whether gender differences exist, and gives little attention to theory development. An integrated perspective, proposed by Brush (1992) suggests that women integrate their business into their lives. This integrated perspective encompasses psychological and sociological foundations and is used a framework for exploring gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

This study employs a multiple paradigm research methodology. The first paradigm mirrors much of the prior literature. A mail survey was designed, and responses were received from 289 entrepreneurs. No statistically significant gender differences were found on any of the six motivating factors tested. The second paradigm involved a constructivist approach to explore two motivations in particular (work and family). In depth, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 50 of these entrepreneurs (25 women and 25 men).

The findings suggest that women and men construct the term 'entrepreneur' differently, and few women participants are willing to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. The findings also support the integrated perspective, where women consider their families (especially children and domestic partners) in their decision to become an

entrepreneur, whereas men appear to be motivated by a desire to outdo their fathers or prove something to their families. Men are motivated to become an entrepreneur because of dissatisfaction with their jobs, and a desire for independence from an employer. Alternatively, few women had such dissatisfaction at work.

The prime objective of this thesis is to contribute to theory development. Two models are proposed to explain gender differences in motivations to become an entrepreneur. They offer contributions to theory by suggesting that women entrepreneurs construe themselves as interdependent, and this impacts their motivations to become an entrepreneur. Alternatively, men participants tend to be motivated by internal factors, and this suggests that they have a more independent construal of self.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The entrepreneur is “an enigma, his (sic) motivations and actions far from clear, a state of affairs aggravated because of contradictory theoretical and research findings”.

Kets De Vries (1977: 36)

1.1 Background to the research

This research explores gender differences in motivations to become an entrepreneur. The quote from Kets De Vries (1977) that begins this chapter succinctly points to some of the key components of the research problem that this thesis addresses. Firstly, he suggests that motivations for becoming an entrepreneur are not simple, but are potentially multifaceted and complex. However, much of the research in this field has been relatively simplistic and focuses on testing using quantitative methods. This may be problematic as “motivations can rarely be usefully reduced to a single category” (Simpson, 1991 :118). More recently, others have agreed with Kets De Vries’s (1977) view about motivations and their complexity (Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Shane, Kolvereid, & Westhead, 1991; Simpson, 1991).

Secondly, Kets De Vries (1977) notes that the field was plagued by contradictions in research findings. It appears that little has changed in the 25 years since these statements, and the problems he identifies can be applied to today’s gender comparative studies of motivations to become an entrepreneur. Contradictory research findings abound, and there remains no consensus on whether (and if so, how and why) women and men’s motivations for becoming an entrepreneur differ. The commonly held view of many authors is that women and men have similar motivations for becoming entrepreneurs (Belcourt, Burke, & Lee-Gosselin, 1991; Birley, 1989; Gundry, Ben-

Yoseph, & Posig, 2002), but these studies make their conclusions by comparing results from different research samples, a problem also noted by others (Catley & Hamilton, 1998; Cromie, 1987b; Marlow, 1997).

The research problem (Section 1.2) therefore is concerned with potential gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. While there have been many studies on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, empirical studies that compare women and men directly are more limited. It is often concluded that women's and men's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur are similar, but these conclusions are somewhat problematic.

A further issue that has affected the importance of gender comparisons in this field is the worldwide trend of growth in the numbers of women entrepreneurs (Brush, 1992; Caputo & Dolinsky, 1998; Statistics New Zealand, 2002). The increase in numbers of women entrepreneurs has been paralleled by an increase in research being conducted about them (Baker, Aldrich, & Liou, 1997; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Fagenson & Marcus, 1991). Research on women's motivations to become an entrepreneur is a relatively recent phenomenon, and it was the late 1970s before such studies began to appear in the literature (Baker et al., 1997; Moore, 1990; Schreier, 1975; Schwartz, 1976). Most recently, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) places New Zealand women at the top of its world rankings in terms of having the necessary skills and motivation to start a business (Frederick et al., 2002).

1.2 Research problem

The research problem stems from a concern about gender differences in people's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Gender comparison studies of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur are relatively limited. Few published empirical studies can be located that provide direct comparisons between men and women within the same study (Borooah, Collins, Hart, & MacNabb, 1997; Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Fischer, Reuber, & Dyke, 1993; Fox, 1998; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Marlow, 1997; McGregor & Tweed, 2000;

Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991; Still & Soutar, 2001; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). This relatively compact body of literature on motivations for becoming an entrepreneur that offer a gender comparative approach is problematic for four key reasons – definitional issues, research focus, perspective, and finally, research methodology and theory development.

Firstly, definitional inconsistencies and differing sample compositions have led to dissimilar studies being compared and contrasted, resulting in conflicting conclusions about whether (and if so, how) women and men differ in their motivations to become an entrepreneur. This has been a common problem in the entrepreneurship field as a whole (Carland, Hoy, & Carland, 1988; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Hyrsky, 1999), and makes comparisons between research studies difficult (Carland et al., 1988). This means results are often contradictory due to differences in definitions (Monroy & Folger, 1993) and sample compositions (eg. entrepreneurs, business owners, the self-employed and nascent entrepreneurs).

Secondly, in many of these gender comparative studies, motivations are often not the focus of the study, but form one part of a larger study on general characteristics of entrepreneurs. For many studies, motivation is merely one question on a survey (Borooah et al., 1997; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Pinfeld, 2001; Scott, 1986). Thus, a limited understanding has been gained into how and why motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur may differ between women and men.

Many studies on motivations have typically focused on studying the entrepreneur from a one dimensional perspective (usually from a psychological or economics perspective). To date, few of the studies of motivations have presented explicitly sociological or feminist explanations for their results, but some touch on these perspectives implicitly (Cromie, 1987a; Fischer et al., 1993; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Shane et al., 1991; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). Thus, little use has been made of alternative perspectives such as an integrated perspective (Section 1.4.3).

Finally, theory development has not been the goal for much of the literature in the entrepreneurship field (Brush, 1992; Hisrich, 1989), nor has it been the aim of many studies concerned with gender comparisons in motivations to become an entrepreneur. Only one of these studies contributes to theory development by offering a typology of entrepreneurs (Cromie, 1987a). This lack of theory development may stem from the focus on testing hypotheses using quantitative methods (Borooah et al., 1997; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991). This focus on quantitative studies may be problematic, as the motives for becoming an entrepreneur are often seen as multi-faceted (Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Shane et al., 1991; Simpson, 1991), and a ‘checklist’ approach is unable to “capture the complexity of the decision process” (Stevenson, 1990:442). The attention to qualitative research in this field of research has generally been limited to structured interviews (eg. Cromie, 1987a; Marlow, 1997) and these studies certainly appear to be more positivist than interpretive.

Given these four components to the research problem, I propose that current knowledge of gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur is somewhat limited. Insights into the nature of gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur remain unexplored, and the following four research questions are posed to address this problem.

1.3 Research questions

Given the research problem outlined in Section 1.2, there is much potential for contributing to this field. This thesis is concerned with exploring and understanding potential gender differences within the following four research questions (or objectives in the case of numbers three and four):

- 1) Using a positivist paradigm, do statistically significant gender differences exist within the sample in the primary motivations for becoming an entrepreneur?

Using an integrated perspective:

- 2) How do women and men construct and apply the term 'entrepreneur'?
- 3) Explore potential gender differences in work-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.
- 4) Explore potential gender differences in family-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

1.4 Anticipated contributions of this thesis

1.4.1 Defining an entrepreneur

The word entrepreneur is derived from the French verb 'entreprendre' which means to undertake, to attempt, to try in hand, to contract for, or to adventure, to try (Girand, 1962, cited in Carland et al., 1988:33). Over time, the definitions of entrepreneurs have changed, in response to changing forms of business ownership (Brockhaus, 1987) and the term entrepreneur is still being defined and redefined (Cameron & Massey, 1999). Defining these terms is a concern that has "pre-occupied writers over several years, without any satisfactory level of agreement" (Carter & Cannon, 1988 :4). This thesis first focuses on being rigorous about definitions. It offers an explicit definition of an entrepreneur (further discussed and justified in Chapter Two), and provides one analytical tool with which to carefully dissect the current literature regarding gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. For the purposes of this research, an entrepreneur is defined as:

A person (or group of people) who creates a new business (for profit) and employs at least one other paid employee.

1.4.2 Focus on motivations

Much of the prior research has studied motivations for becoming an entrepreneur as part of a broader range of characteristics of entrepreneurs, rather than a specific investigation centred on motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This limited focus in prior

research is one reason that I take a more in-depth view of motivations. A further decision was made to focus primarily on two such motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This thesis focuses attention on work and family-related motivating factors and these two factors were selected for further study for two important reasons.

The primary reason for focusing on work and family-related motivating factors is that these two areas are where social constructions are played out (Goffee & Scase, 1985; Moss-Kanter, 1977; Saltzman-Chafetz, 1978). In both the workplace and in the family, gender differences exist in a number of places, particularly in relation to roles and experiences. The secondary reason is that these two motivating factors illustrate many gender differences in the prior literature, but when conclusions are made about studies using similar definitions and sample compositions to this study, few gender differences exist.

1.4.3 An integrated perspective

Much prior research has focused on one perspective when considering motivations for becoming an entrepreneur and has paid little attention to alternative perspectives. Over ten years ago, Candida Brush (1992), a leading researcher on women entrepreneurs, called for the use of an 'integrated perspective' to study the entrepreneur. This integrated perspective has both psychological and sociological foundations. It is based on suggestions that women and men have different construals of self, where women are more 'interdependent' (Gilligan, 1982; Markus & Kitayama, 1991), while men have a comparatively more independent or individual construal of self (Gilligan, 1982; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Tannen, 1986). Brush's (1992) call for an integrated perspective went unheeded, and there is value in revisiting this as a way of moving forward theory development in particular to the area of entrepreneurial motivations.

1.4.4 Research methodology and theory development

This research can be characterised as a multiple paradigmatic study. Two different paradigms are used to study the same phenomena and a subset of the same people. The first paradigm I employ is a positivist one, in order to address Research Question One. Following this, in a sequential fashion (Gioia, Donnelion, & Sims Jnr, 1989; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Lewis & Grimes, 1999), a constructivist paradigm is applied to the three remaining research questions. The constructivist paradigm offers potentially new insights to be gained into a field which has remained relatively positivist in its paradigmatic stance. The positivist nature of much of the prior research is discussed further in Chapter Three.

This study bridges multiple paradigms, while recognising each paradigm's different world views and assumptions (Gioia et al., 1989; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Kelemen & Hassard, 2003). This recognises that while paradigms remain separate at a philosophical level (Curran & Blackburn, 2001), the outcomes of a multiple paradigm study may be that fresh insights can be gained in a research area (Gioia & Pitre, 1990). Combining two paradigmatic approaches allows this thesis to offer a more comprehensive and multi-faceted view of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur than has previously been presented. Offering a multiple paradigm approach to study motivations to become an entrepreneur is one of this study's contributions to the literature.

Undoubtedly the major contribution of this thesis lies in its potential for theory development. Given theory development has not been the goal for many of the studies in this field, this is a desirable outcome of the research. Often descriptive and simplistic results are presented, rather than analytical and theory-driven findings. Given this limited view toward extending theory, this thesis offers the ability to construct a new view of gender differences in entrepreneurs' motivations, using multiple research paradigms to view the research problem.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is structured as follows. Chapter Two presents the theoretical framework for the thesis. It begins with an important context setting discussion regarding the link between entrepreneurs and the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector in New Zealand. The most important contribution that Chapter Two makes to the thesis is to overview the theoretical framework for the thesis. As mentioned, an integrated approach is used to understand the research problem, and it is important to spend time describing the roots of this integrated perspective. Before doing so, I discuss a number of other research perspectives that have been applied to the entrepreneurship literature and then state the position that I take in this thesis. I also explain why two motivations are studied in depth in the thesis (family and work-related motivating factors). This is also an appropriate place to examine how entrepreneurial New Zealand is in relation to other countries. A brief historical overview of the various definitions of entrepreneurs begins the focus on definitions. Chapter Two then presents the definition of an entrepreneur that is used for this thesis.

Chapter Three focuses attention specifically on the motivations of people to become entrepreneurs, and whether these motivations differ between women and men. As this is the focus of the thesis, much attention is given to analysing the literature and establishing the extent of gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Because gender issues in the workplace and within the family are examined, I spend more time exploring background issues which are important to consider in relation to these factors (both areas where there are gender differences in terms of roles and experiences).

Chapter Four outlines two key sections of the research methodology. In order to investigate the research problem and the research questions, a multiple paradigmatic approach was chosen. In this chapter, I discuss the two paradigms used for the research, and present rationales for studying the research problem from multiple paradigms. In addition, I aim to borrow from feminist methodologies, and therefore this chapter discusses what feminist methodologies can add to this research context. In

the second key section of this chapter, I explain the two resulting research designs and processes. Here, the focus lies on survey and interview design, data collection and analysis, ethical issues, and ways of assessing the goodness of the research (such as reliability and validity, and trustworthiness of the research).

Chapters Five to Eight are aimed towards addressing the four research questions, and results for each of these questions is presented in a separate chapter. These four results chapters are all structured around making comparisons between women and men participants. Firstly, Chapter Five begins with a presentation of the statistical analysis of the data gained from the positivist inquiry. It then compares the findings of the mail survey with existing literature in the field. The results presented in Chapter Five offer one ‘answer’ on whether gender differences exist in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

The constructivist paradigm utilises qualitative methods to examine the remaining research questions. Here, the analysis in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight focuses around the views of the 50 entrepreneurs who were interviewed. Chapter Six investigates how the participants construct the term entrepreneur and then seeks to understand how they apply the term to themselves. This is an important precursor to understanding motivations, as using the integrated perspective would suggest it is essential to attempt to understand how the participants construct the term in relation to their own identity. Chapter Seven then addresses Research Question Three, which is concerned with how experiences at work may affect the motivations to become an entrepreneur. The final results chapter, Chapter Eight, presents the results and analysis of Research Question Four, which explores the potential impact that the family (parents/ siblings/domestic partner/ children) has on motivations to become an entrepreneur.

Chapter Nine starts with conclusions about the research problem and the research questions. Implications for theory follow, with the presentation of two models (one for women and one for men), explaining the participants’ motivations for becoming an entrepreneur in relation to the integrated perspective. Implications for policy and

practice are presented, along with limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Chapter One directed attention to some of the many complex issues in the entrepreneurship literature, such as persistent definitional issues, and the practice of comparing often vastly different research studies to offer conclusions on whether women and men differ in their motivations for becoming entrepreneurs¹. In Chapter Three, the literature regarding gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur will be analysed in detail. However, in order to place this literature in the context of the entire entrepreneurship field, in this chapter I first address some contextual issues. Beginning with a discussion of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and small businesses, this chapter starts with the New Zealand context in which entrepreneurs enter business.

In this chapter, I outline two significant decisions that were made which impact on the remainder of this thesis. I start by exploring the integrated perspective used in this thesis, and explain the assumptions this perspective makes and consider its origins. A further decision I had to make involves the nature of the term ‘entrepreneur’. There are many different definitions of an entrepreneur in the literature and it is important to provide a brief historical overview of the definitions of entrepreneurship, and more importantly, establish the definitions of an entrepreneur used in this thesis. The positions I take regarding both the definitions of an entrepreneur and the integrated perspective provide the necessary theoretical framework from which to view the research problem.

¹ Throughout this chapter and Chapter Three, not all research is on ‘entrepreneurs’ as defined for this thesis (see Section 2.6), and thus business owners and entrepreneurs are used as appropriate.

2.2 SMEs in the economy

Although Drucker (1985) believes entrepreneurship is not inextricably linked to small business, there is certainly a link between the two in most countries, as small firms account for the vast majority of all business enterprises (Storey, 1994). In New Zealand, a small business is referred to as a small and medium-sized enterprise (SME). In this country, the link between SMEs and entrepreneurs is highly probable, as the vast majority (99.5%) of businesses employ fewer than 100 people (Statistics New Zealand, 1997). Therefore, the SME sector is an important area that begins to set the context in which the majority of entrepreneurs operate, as SMEs are the means by which entrepreneurs enter business (Bolton, 1971).

A SME is defined in a number of ways in the literature and by New Zealand government agencies. The two most common definitions are as follows². Firstly, the most current literature from the Ministry of Economic Development defines a SME as a business that employs fewer than 19³ full time equivalent (FTE) employees, where small is up to five employees, and medium is a business with six to 19 employees (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003)⁴. Regardless of which definition is used, it has been suggested that the boundaries may be set too high, and in fact conceal how small most businesses actually are (Hamilton & English, 1997). This is because businesses in New Zealand employ only 5.5 FTE employees on average (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003).

There is no doubt that the SME sector in New Zealand plays a significant role in the economy, both in terms of wealth creation and in the number of people it employs (McGregor & Gomes, 1999; Ministry of Economic Development, 2003). SMEs employ 37% of the workforce in New Zealand (over 617,000 people) and, based on past

² A further definition used is fewer than 10 people (Hamilton & English, 1997).

³ Where small is 0-5 employees, and medium 6-19 (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003).

⁴ In comparison, the second classification has a much wider boundary, with a SME being defined as a business employing up to 99 FTE employees (Cameron & Massey, 1999; Statistics New Zealand, 1997). Within this classification, there are a number of narrower categories, such as micro-businesses (fewer than six employees), small (six-49), and medium (50-99) businesses, all constituting an SME (Cameron & Massey, 1999).

trends, these numbers seem set to continue to grow. In 2002, the rate of FTE people employed by SMEs grew at between 1.3% and 2.8% (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003). There has been significant growth in the SME sector in the past 20 years in New Zealand. In the years between 1981 and 1985, the number of self-employed grew by 41%, matching the growth in the 55 years between 1926 and 1981 (Statistics New Zealand, 1997). More recently, the number of enterprises has continued to grow at rates between 1.2 and 9.9% per annum between 1998 and 2002⁵ (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003). However, some suggest more can be done in New Zealand to encourage entrepreneurial firms to grow and internationalise (Campbell-Hunt, 2001; Chetty & Campbell-Hunt, 2003).

New Zealand's economy went through major change during the economic reforms of the early 1980s. Previously a welfare state, New Zealand's economy was adversely affected by the oil shocks of the 1970s and worsening terms of trade (due to Britain joining the European Community). In 1984, New Zealand was one of the most heavily regulated countries outside the communist countries. The agricultural sector was heavily subsidised, and this was financed through overseas borrowing, which led to increased debt, inflation and interest rates. A reversal of the welfare state to a free market system began in 1984, when the Labour government decided that a less interventionist role was paramount to turning New Zealand's flailing economy around. In the process of turning the economy into a free market, import tariffs were removed, banks deregulated, farming subsidies removed, the currency floated, and the economy restructured through deregulation, corporatisation and privatisation (Cameron & Massey, 1999). The impact of such a wide-ranging (and fast paced) deregulation was that businesses in New Zealand had to operate in a different environment, and were faced with changing their competitive strategies (Corbett & Campbell-Hunt, 2002).

Several other factors in the world's economy have also filtered through to New Zealand, and some of these have impacted directly on the growth and prosperity of the SME sector. Large companies are downsizing and a strong focus on the core competencies of

⁵ Except for 2001, when there was a slight decrease in the number of enterprises (-0.3), (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003).

businesses means many non-core activities (such as cleaning and catering) are increasingly being contracted out (Cameron & Massey, 1999). The worldwide explosion of growth in the service sector brings with it an increase in competition amongst businesses. These events in turn have enabled many small businesses to enter the market and be more competitive, through activities such as niche marketing (Haines, 1991). New Zealand is also becoming increasingly recognised as an innovator in several industries such as film-making, the wine industry, and in some electronics fields (Campbell-Hunt, 2001).

In order to understand how entrepreneurial New Zealand's economy is, it is useful to compare it with other countries. Two conflicting pictures emerge when undertaking comparisons. One suggests New Zealand is very entrepreneurial (Frederick & Carswell, 2001; Frederick et al., 2002; Reynolds, Bygrave, & Autio, 2003), and another suggests that the entrepreneurial content of New Zealand is very low when compared with other countries (Harper, 1994)⁶. However, earlier Harper (1994) had scored New Zealand second lowest out of the eight countries studied, with Japan and the United States having the highest entrepreneurial content in their culture (Harper, 1994).

However, the more recent Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) (Reynolds et al., 2003) ranks New Zealand as one of the most entrepreneurial nations in the world (of 37 nations), fifth highest in the world behind Uganda, Venezuela, Chile and Argentina. The GEM report⁷ shows a total entrepreneurial activity of 14% for New Zealand (Frederick et al., 2002), down slightly from almost 17% in 2001 (Frederick & Carswell, 2001). Eighty-three percent of these entrepreneurs can be classed as business entrepreneurs (as opposed to necessity entrepreneurs, which accounts for 16%).

⁶ Casson (1990a) suggests that a country with an entrepreneurial culture may be a source of long-term competitive advantage and is based on Hofstede's (1984) study in the late 1960s and early 1970s, which finds four main dimensions by which a country's culture could be measured.

⁷ GEM's definition of an entrepreneur includes nascent entrepreneurs (those attempting to start a business). The study also assumes that entrepreneurs must own 'new' firms and cannot own firms that are older than 42 months and distinguishes two different types of entrepreneurs – those who see an opportunity (business entrepreneurs), or became entrepreneurs out of necessity, which includes job loss (necessity entrepreneurs) (Frederick et al., 2002).

The discussion now turns to the presence of women entrepreneurs and business owners, as worldwide trends show a significant increase in their numbers

2.3 Women business owners and entrepreneurs

In the United States, an approximate 500% growth rate of women business owners was found relative to men occurred between 1969 and 1991 (U.S. Dept. of Labour 1969 and 1991, cited in Caputo & Dolinsky, 1998). Similarly, in New Zealand the number of women business owners has risen. Nineteen percent of New Zealand's employed labour force can be classed as either employers (7%) or self-employed (12%). When these figures are broken down for women and men, we can observe that 7.9% of women are self-employed, and 4.4% are employers, compared with 14.6% and 9.3% respectively for men. Women now make up 29.8% of employers and 31.1% of the self-employed, and these figures have doubled since 1966 (Ministry of Economic Development, 2003). However, contradictory definitions affect statistical reports. Statistics New Zealand does not collect data on 'entrepreneurs', but the closest available⁸ statistics are those of working proprietors. Table 2.1 below displays the latest available data.

Table 2. 1 Male and female proprietors 1997

Number of employees	Male (full time)	Male (part time)	Female (full time)	Female (part time)	Total
0 - 5	131, 150	25, 240	40,370	35, 580	232, 340
6 - 9	15, 590	1, 490	5, 400	3, 400	25, 880
10 - 49	15, 310	1, 330	4, 090	2, 230	22, 960
50 - 99	940	65	140	75	1, 220
100 +	870	30	140	25	1, 065
Total	163, 860	28, 155	50, 140	41, 310	283, 465

(Statistics NZ, August 1998, cited in Cameron & Massey, 1999)

Further analysis of the figures in Table 2.1 illustrates that women proprietors account for just under one-third (32.3%) of the total proprietors. Fifty-five percent of women

⁸ Table 2.1 shows working proprietors, the closest statistics available to entrepreneurs. 1997 figures are used because this table is not publicly available and to get an updated version would cost \$375 + GST. An update would not provide a further breakdown of 'proprietors' and therefore its usefulness would be limited.

proprietors are full-time and 45% part-time, compared with the observation that most men are full-time proprietors (85%). With respect to employee numbers, Table 2.1 shows that the employee number classifications are not the same as the definitions of SMEs presented earlier (up to 19 FTE employees), so making comparisons between figures is difficult. Of note are the large numbers of proprietors who employ nine or fewer employees (93% of women and 90% of men proprietors). The most recent GEM study shows that in 2003, 36.8% of entrepreneurs in New Zealand are women (down from 43.3% in 2001) (Frederick, 2003/2004).

2.4 Researching women business owners and entrepreneurs

The significant growth of research in women business owners and entrepreneurs has occurred from the early 1980s (Brush, 1992; Hertz, 1986), paralleling the increase in the numbers of women business owners and entrepreneurs in the world economy. Reasons for the increase in these numbers include the changing nature of careers and work, with women moving into traditionally male-dominated fields such as manufacturing, engineering, transportation, and construction (Buttner, 1993). Women are also having fewer children, and having them later in life (Goffee & Scase, 1985). I return to address issues surrounding the roles within work and the family in Chapter Three but focus on entrepreneurship research here.

While the increasing numbers of women entrepreneurs worldwide has been paralleled by an increase in research being conducted about them (Fagenson & Marcus, 1991), an opposing view is that “research has not kept pace with the growing importance of the issue” (Carter & Cannon, 1988: 3). The rise in the number of women entrepreneurs worldwide is outpacing academic research and theory development (Brush, 1998), as evidenced by a review of articles by Baker et al. (1997) who find that the proportion of articles on women entrepreneurs decreased from 32% to 20% between 1982 and 1995. Similarly, in the past Stevenson (1990) noted that women make up 30% of new businesses, yet comprise only 5-15% of research respondents.

The exclusion of women from research has also been evident in past entrepreneurship literature (Hisrich & Brush, 1982). One of the most notable examples is McClelland's (1961) work on the achievement motive, which is now cited as an important study and is often replicated (Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995). This exclusion has not been isolated, as Hornaday and Aboud (1971) also discounted the four responses they received from women because they thought these could not be combined with men's responses. While these pieces of work are now dated and research practices of late have not been so obviously flawed, they are still significant, as much of McClelland's work has been replicated using the same instrument, therefore perpetuating the problems of having a solely male sample.

2.5 Gender comparative entrepreneurship research

While relatively little research has focused on gender in entrepreneurship research, various studies over time have made comparisons between 'females' and 'males'. What I allude to here is that much of the research has included gender as a variable (Alvesson & Billing, 1997), but has rarely offered explanations of gender differences. As Rosa et al. (1994) conclude, many studies tend to be overly descriptive and basic statistical comparisons between women and men business owners "are too simplistic" (pg 30), and could be more grounded in gender theory. Indeed, what many studies have not done is to "understand the processes and practices of gender relations as these intertwine with entrepreneurship" (Gunnerud-Berg, 1997:259).

Some researchers have also noted that gender comparative research is still lacking in the entrepreneurship field. As late as 1998, Brush (1998) suggested "the extent to which women create different organisations, or manage differently from men is not well understood" (pg 156). In her review of research, Brush (1998) finds few studies even include gender as a variable, with only 10% of 522 studies doing so. In light of such limited insights into gender comparative studies, it is fair to say that women's experiences as compare to men's could benefit from further research (Allen & Truman, 1992).

Because this thesis is most concerned with gender comparisons, studies that offer gender comparisons from economics, psychological, sociological and feminist perspectives are now reviewed. The first two perspectives (economics and psychological) have been the dominant perspectives from which to research entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship, while various sociological and feminist perspectives have been less utilised.

2.5.1 Economics perspectives

Over time, economists have had much input into the definitions of entrepreneurs (see also Section 2.9) and entrepreneurship (Knight, 1921; Penrose, 1968; Schumpeter, 1934). In addition, economists have played an important role in developing theories of small businesses and entrepreneurs (see, for example, Baumol, 1986, 1990; Brock & Evans, 1989; Casson, 1999).

Taking an economics view of entrepreneurship, research has been concerned with whether the businesses of women and men entrepreneurs differ in terms of industry sector (Still & Timms, 2000; Watkins & Watkins, 1983), size of business (Cliff, 1998; Coleman, 1998), age of business (Coleman, 1998) and business earnings (Fasci & Valdez, 1998; Fischer et al., 1993; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Loscocco & Robinson, 1991). Others have explored gender differences in survival rates (Hokkanen, 1998; Johnson & Storey, 1993; Kalleberg & Leicht, 1991; Robb, 2002), growth (Carter & Kolvereid, 1998; Cliff, 1998; Hokkanen, 1998; Mallette & McGuinness, 1999; Singh, Reynolds, & Muhammad, 2001) and access to finance (Buttner & Rosen, 1988, 1992).

However, given that the focus of economists is primarily at the firm level, this perspective has a potential danger in removing the person (the entrepreneur) from the study of entrepreneurship (Smith, 1967). In this thesis, because the research problem focuses around the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, it seems that Smith's (1967) concern is well-founded. Thus, the economics perspective offers few insights into the entrepreneur, but rather focuses on the fruits of the entrepreneurs' labour – their

business. Psychological perspectives move closer to being interested in the entrepreneur, rather than looking at entrepreneurship purely as an economic process.

2.5.2 Psychological perspectives

When researching the characteristics of entrepreneurs from psychological perspectives⁹, some suggest that the two most common theoretical and methodological approaches are the use of demographic information and personality theory (Robinson, Stimpson, Huefner, & Hunt, 1991). Few instruments have been developed specifically in order to study entrepreneurs, and many have been borrowed from fields such as psychology (Sexton, 1987; Wortman Jnr, 1986). Sexton (1987) encourages such use of established research in other areas that are more mature than the entrepreneurship literature. However, Brush (1992) notes that this can be problematic, and that studies borrowing scales and measures from psychology often do not detail the linkage between theory and their research.

Potential gender differences in personality traits have been the foci of researchers' attentions, such as the need for achievement (Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995), risk (Belcourt et al., 1991; Watson & Robinson, 2002), and motivations (Borooah et al., 1997; Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Fischer et al., 1993; Fox, 1998; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Marlow, 1997; Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991).

When researching motivations of people to become business owners or entrepreneurs, there is a need to explain this from an individual perspective (Herron & Sapienza, 1992; Marlow & Strange, 1994). However, psychological perspectives have been criticised because, "too often entrepreneurship is viewed merely as a psychological capacity like musical or poetical talent" (Campbell, 1992 :21). Indeed, Catley & Hamilton (1998) note that research on the psychological differences between women and men business owners has been inconclusive, and few studies find gender differences of any

⁹ A number of different psychological theories are outlined further in Section 2.6.1.

magnitude. In addition, feminist psychologists have criticised many psychological notions because they do not consider arguments of social construction (Kitzinger, 1998).

Psychological perspectives certainly move towards focusing attention on the entrepreneur (rather than on the business), yet are often concerned with personality traits, and is directed towards conclusions that include predictors of entrepreneur's success. Basing these predictions on personality factors that fail to take into account the external environment that the entrepreneur operates within is considered to be partially useful.

2.5.3 Sociological perspectives

Sociological perspectives¹⁰, unlike both economics and psychological perspectives, investigates how the social environment affects entrepreneurs (Belcourt, 1987b; Hurley, 1999). Such perspectives assume that behaviour is “so constrained by ongoing social relations that to construe them as independent is a grievous misunderstanding” (Granovetter, 1985 :482). Thus, it has been suggested that sociological explanations of enterprise are more useful than psychological ones (Stanworth, Stanworth, Granger, & Blyth, 1989), and particularly to those studies that are focused on gender.

Relatively few attempts have been made to examine entrepreneurship using sociological perspectives (see, for example, Aldrich & Cliff, 2003; Belcourt, 1987b; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Hurley, 1999; Whitta, 1994). Some examples include whether women and men entrepreneurs and business owners differ in various factors such as age and marital status (Buttner, 1993; Frankel, 1984; Hisrich & Brush, 1985; Johnson & Storey, 1993; Neider, 1987; Watkins & Watkins, 1983), education levels (Fischer et al., 1993; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Humphreys & McClung, 1981), and levels of experience at work (Belcourt, 1991; Fischer et al., 1993; Mallette & McGuinness, 1999; Watkins & Watkins, 1983; Weiler & Bernasek, 2001). Other studies that relate to the family

¹⁰ A number of different sociological theories are outlined further in Section 2.6.2.

include whether birth order differs between women and men (Belcourt, 1987b; Robinson et al., 1991; Watkins & Watkins, 1983), or whether an entrepreneur has entrepreneurial parents (Watkins & Watkins, 1983).

2.5.4 Feminist perspectives

While feminist theories of organisations are not new (Acker, 1992; Calas & Smircich, 1992a), little attempt has been made to date to apply feminist theories to the entrepreneurship field (Ahl, 2003; Hurley, 1999). There have been many calls for researchers in the field of entrepreneurship to use feminist approaches (Ahl, 2003; Brush, 1992; Fischer et al., 1993; Hurley, 1999; Marlow, 1997; Stevenson, 1986, 1990). However, while few have positioned their research under a feminist heading (see, for example, Ahl, 2003; Berg, 2001; Cliff, 1998; Edley, 2000; Fischer et al., 1993; Hurley, 1999; Orhan & Scott, 2001), much of the literature on women entrepreneurs makes implicit reference to a particular strand of feminism (Barrett, 1995). Hurley (1999) continues and suggests in her feminist critique of entrepreneurship theories that “feminist theories may help the development of entrepreneurial theory” (pg 55).

“Feminism” is a movement, and a set of beliefs, that problematise gender inequality” (DeVault, 1996 :31). However, this overarching statement may hide the many different strands of feminism (for reviews, see Barrett, 1995; Calas & Smircich, 1992a; Campbell & Wasco, 2000; Jaggar, 1983). These strands can be seen as based around political standpoints (Alvesson & Billing, 1997; Jaggar, 1983), and are commonly categorised into liberal, radical, and socialist feminism (Campbell & Wasco, 2000; Delmar, 1986; Harding, 1987). I agree with others who suggest that feminisms are similar to a point in that “they focus on the experiences of women’s lives and the oppression of women in this culture”, but it is how feminists conceptualise the nature of the marginalisation which characterises different feminisms (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :775). Indeed, while I confer with Delmar, who questions “could it not still be that what unites feminists is greater than what divides?” (Delmar, 1986 :9), it is nevertheless essential to briefly outline the similarities and differences between the major strands of feminism

and the implications of each strand in relation to the study of gender differences amongst entrepreneurs.

Liberal feminism emerged from the advance of capitalism (Jaggar, 1983). It stresses equality (Alvesson & Billing, 1997; Campbell & Wasco, 2000) in all areas of society (such as work and pay) and that it is institutions such as capitalism, the family and marriage which require changing in order for equality to be achieved (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Liberal feminist theory suggests that women are disadvantaged because of discrimination and/or systemic factors (Fischer et al., 1993). Liberal feminists suggest that if women and men had “equal access to the opportunities available to men – such as education, work experience, and other resources – they would behave similarly” (Unger & Crawford, 1992 :8).

Alternatively, socialist feminists believe that the “economic and class structure of our society is inherently problematic” (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :776) and emerges from Marxist ideology, socialism and classism (Alvesson & Billing, 1997; Campbell & Wasco, 2000). The objective of socialist feminists focuses around studying society critically, and has goals of “contributing to a radical change where new gender relations are included as central elements” (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :23). Socialist feminists are not only interested in issues relating to gender, but also to other oppressed groups such as the poor (Alvesson & Billing, 1997).

Radical feminists believe that sexism is the main cause of gender oppression (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Radical feminism also “rejects the male-dominated society as a whole” (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :22) and suggests that women should try to transform the existing social order. A further goal of radical feminism is not to focus competing for equal pay (for example), but on becoming less competitive and on “changing the basic structure of society and its organisations” (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :23). As noted earlier, few have attempted to use feminist perspectives in entrepreneurship research to date.

2.6 An integrated perspective

As noted in Section 2.5, much of the research which compares women and men entrepreneurs has often focused on one of four distinct perspectives (economics, psychological, sociological, feminist). What I do in this thesis is to use an integrated perspective, which stems from assumptions based on several of these perspectives (Brush, 1992).

Brush (1992) calls this an ‘integrated perspective’ and I use it in order to view gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Brush (1992) called for entrepreneurship researchers to consider an integrated perspective, which has foundations in both psychology and sociology fields. While her call for an integrated perspective of entrepreneurs has so far gone unheeded, in this thesis I do so in a move towards rethinking entrepreneurial motivations. The major premise behind the integrated approach is that women perceive their businesses as a cooperative network of relationships, rather than economic units. That is, for women, business relationships cannot be separated from family, societal and personal relationships, and “the business is integrated into the woman business owner’s life” (pg 16). Therefore, her use of the term ‘integrated’ is related to how a woman’s business is integrated into her life, but it also suggests that one can only reach conclusions of this integration by using both psychological and sociological perspectives. These foundations are discussed in brief next.

2.6.1 Psychological foundations

While researchers in the field of psychology have had much to say about entrepreneurship (Section 2.5.2), some suggest that social psychology and feminist psychology are perhaps more useful to understanding gender (Kitzinger, 1998). The social psychological views behind this integrated perspective stem from the work of feminist psychologist Gilligan (1982), who theorises that women and men have different conceptions of self, and therefore have different modes of thinking about relationships. She finds that women and men have different realities, where women

are characterised by relationships, while men are often more autonomous and logic focused. Gilligan (1982) explains that “women perceive and construe social reality differently from men and that these differences centre around experiences of attachment and separation” (pg 171). Thus, a woman’s identity is defined in relation to her relationships with others, and consequently, decisions are made in relation to this reality. This ‘web-like’ reality (Griffiths, 1995) is different to men’s reality, which often thought of as being separate, logical and focused on rule-based decision making (Brush, 1992; Gilligan, 1982).

While feminist psychologists like Gilligan (1992) have discussed differences in women’s and men’s reality, others have suggested similar notions¹¹ (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). This work stems from research on culture, and these authors suggest that eastern and western cultures have different emphases on independence and interdependence. They go on to suggest that these differences may also be relevant to gender, colluding with Gilligan’s (1982) thoughts on this. The nature of such differences in self-construal or conception relate to relationships, where women construe themselves in terms of their relations with others. Some term this interdependence (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), while others prefer to use involvement (Tannen, 1986). At the other extreme, men have been suggested to have a comparatively more independent or individual construal of self (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Tannen, 1986). The integrated perspective also has sociological foundations, and these are discussed next.

2.6.2 Sociological foundations

Sociologists have also contributed to the thoughts behind the integrated perspective of entrepreneurship by suggesting that it is social relations that women and men experience differently. Thus, it is social structures such as the family, the workplace and marriage where women’s “different view of reality” stems from (Brush, 1992 :17).

¹¹ Research in other fields has been explored using similar theoretical perspectives and applications have been made to studies of culture (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), communication styles (Tannen, 1986), and moral development (Gilligan, 1982).

However, there are many variations within sociological theory that can potentially be utilised to ‘explain’ the social construction of gender. Macro-sociological theories focus on relatively abstract levels such as Marxist approaches (and Marxist feminism) while micro-sociological theories focus on social psychology, symbolic interactionism, culture, power and roles. Alternatively, socialisation theory offers further modes of explanation (Billing & Alvesson, 1994; Cerulo, 1997). I focus on those most useful to the integrated perspective – socialisation theories, identity and role theories.

Socialisation theories focus on the “transmission of beliefs and values from one generation to the next” (Orser, 1994 :12), and particularly thought of in relation to children, where Gecas (1976) suggests it is related to “the social and psychological development of the child” (pg 33). Thus, gender is different from biological sex¹², as gender is considered to be socially constructed (Aaltio & Mills, 2002; Unger & Crawford, 1992). In a pure physiological and biological sense, sex is a categorisation of whether an individual is male or female¹³ (James & Saville-Smith, 1989). Gender, on the other hand, refers to the “qualities, traits, and activities collectively deemed to be masculine or feminine in any particular society” (James & Saville-Smith, 1989: 10). An alternative, yet complementary definition presented by Acker (1992) suggests gender is the “patterned, socially produced, distinctions between female and male, feminine and masculine” and goes further to suggest that “gender is not something that people are, in some inherent sense, although we may consciously think of ourselves in this way” (Acker, 1992 :250). Socialisation theories suggest that it is not sexual differences but some external forces which explain differences between women and men (Billing & Alvesson, 1994).

Masculinity and femininity are therefore not intrinsically linked to biology, but are linked strongly to social attributes (Acker, 1992; Alvesson & Billing, 2002; James &

¹² However, James & Saville-Smith (1989) suggest that in New Zealand culture, the biological differences between men and women are seen as a primary cause of inequalities between the two.

¹³ See Unger & Crawford (1992) and de Beauvoir (2000) who provides a detailed analysis of the biological aspects of sex and gender.

Saville-Smith, 1989). Feminist theorists have had much to say with respect to the social construction of gender. While there can be no debating that there are biological differences between women and men (see, for example, de Beauvoir, 2000; Unger & Crawford, 1992), these differences are often used as a justification for differences between women and men, as Bourdieu (2001) suggests:

the biological difference between the sexes, ie. between the male and female bodies, and, in particular, the anatomical difference between the sex organs, can thus appear as the natural justification of the socially constructed difference between the genders, and in particular of the social division of labour (Bourdieu, 2001 :11 his emphasis).

Hence, these commentators all share the view that gender is a socially constructed category (Bourdieu, 2001; Calas & Smircich, 1992a; Saltzman-Chafetz, 1978) and the differences between women and men as socially constructed (Aslesen, 1998; Fischer et al., 1993; Tanton, 1994; Unger & Crawford, 1992). This suggests women have different values and approaches due to their differing socialisation (Acker, 1992; James & Saville-Smith, 1989; Saltzman-Chafetz, 1978).

When taking this perspective in relation to motivations to become an entrepreneur, the conclusions that the extant literature finds few gender differences may be “surprising”, given that women and men are socialised differently (Orhan & Scott, 2001 :232). While the absence of many gender differences in motivations to become an entrepreneur may be surprising, several of these studies point directly (Cromie, 1987a; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Orhan & Scott, 2001) or indirectly (Shane et al., 1991) to the view that women and men are socialised differently, and therefore, perhaps we would expect gender differences to be visible. Indeed, some researchers using sociological socialisation theories suggest that it is our socialisation as children and later at work, that “appear to go a long way towards explaining the origins and motivations for enterprise” (Stanworth et al., 1989 :20).

Identity has been referred to as a “cornerstone” of sociological thought (Cerulo, 1997 :385). The different social realities that women and men have can be seen to come from

their different identities (for reviews, see Frable, 1997; Griffiths, 1995). Ely (1994) proposes that identity has two components. The first is a personal one, including characteristics (personality, physical and intellectual traits), and the second is a social component (from memberships of 'groups' such as sex, race or class) (Bell & Nkomo, 1992; Ely, 1994; Frable, 1997; Powell & Butterfield, 2003). Much has been said in relation to gender and identity (Burn, Aboud, & Moyles, 2000; Frable, 1997; Gherardi, Marshall, & Mills, 1994; Griffiths, 1995; Kroger, 1997), and in particular relation to gender, identity and work (Alvesson, 1998; Ely, 1994; Powell & Butterfield, 2003).

Some sociologists suggest that that role theories are also important, where the behaviour we expect of a female or a male is a role different (Billing & Alvesson, 1994). These sex roles (gender roles) and strong and generally accepted of that they are largely accepted (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1975). The sex (gender) roles that women and men are socialised into are strong, and there are pressures and sanctions against going outside of an 'accepted' role (Wetherell, 1977). The apparently 'normal' (Bourdieu, 2001), natural (West & Zimmerman, 1991), and 'reasonable' ways to behave (Wetherell, 1977), make up what Bourdieu (2001) calls symbolic violence¹⁴, an "extraordinarily ordinary social relation" (pg 2).

Wetherell (1977) believes that accepting such sex roles is "second nature" (pg 217), in a similar way to how Berger & Luckmann (1967) view everyday life as 'reality' and taken for granted. Broverman et al. (1975) suggests these roles are clearly defined and that women are perceived, in comparison to men, as being less competent, less independent, less objective and less logical. Meanwhile, men are perceived as lacking interpersonal sensitivity, warmth and expressiveness when compared to women. It is these 'masculine' traits that are perceived in society as being preferable over the feminine characteristics. Another interpretation of this is defining the male principle as 'agency' and women's as 'communion' (Bakan (1966) cited in Flexman, 1980). I outline the particular roles that women and men have at work and in the family in

¹⁴ Symbolic violence is defined as a gentle violence, imperceptible and invisible even to its victims, exerted for the most part through the purely symbolic channels of communication and cognition (more precisely, misrecognition), recognition, or even feeling (Bourdieu, 2001 :1).

Chapter Three, and illustrate the subsequent possibility of the flow of these roles into entrepreneurship.

Returning to the overall objectives of using an integrated perspective, Brush (1992) notes that despite observations by sociologists and psychologists that women's modes of thinking about relationships and social and work experiences are different than men's, much of the research on women entrepreneurs and business owners assumes a "view of business ownership rooted in men's view of reality" (pg 17). So, it is through this integrated perspective I view the research problem – that is, using an integrated perspective to study gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. As stated in Chapter One, I narrow the focus in this thesis to work and family-related motivating factors, and these are overviewed next.

2.7 Work and family-related motivating factors

Given the integrated perspective suggests there are differences in how women view their businesses (as cooperative relationships) as opposed to men, it is possible to suggest that women's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur may also be different from men's. It is this question that I undertake to address in this thesis. Once deciding to investigate motivations for becoming an entrepreneur using this integrated perspective, the next decision I had to make was whether to focus on the range of motivating factors that prior studies uncover, or to focus more specifically. I decided to focus specifically on work and family-related motivators. This decision was made because these two contexts in particular are where gender differences in roles and experiences are played out (Brush, 1992).

The workplace is changing. As Arthur & Rousseau (1996) suggest, the 1980s was dominated by the organisational career, but this has overwhelmingly changed worldwide. Hall & Moss (1998) describe the outcomes of this, where "the deal has changed, the career contract is dead. Organisations are in constant flux. The job is a thing of the past" (pg 22). New terms to describe such changes in the nature of careers have emerged, such as the boundaryless career (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996) and the

protean career (Hall & Moss, 1998). These are based around the premise that employees need to react to the changes in the world of work, to consider working for multiple employers, and doing more than one job, including part-time work and contracted self-employment (Cameron & Massey, 1999).

A key trend in the labour market is that women's labour participation rates have increased significantly worldwide in recent years (Malveaux, 1990; Moore & Buttner, 1997; Shelton, 1992). In New Zealand, labour participation rates for women have also increased steadily since World War II, and this increase is described as one of the strongest trends in employment (Statistics New Zealand, 2001a). Labour force participation for women was 57.9% and 73.5% for men in 1996, although this gap has since narrowed. Women now comprise 47% of New Zealand's labour force (Statistics New Zealand, 2001a). While women's participation in the workforce may be rising, distinctions remain between the work that women do and the work that men do, and the levels at which they operate in the workplace (Acker & Van Houten, 1992; Alvesson, 1998; Alvesson & Billing, 1992; Powell & Butterfield, 2003; van de Lippe & van Dijk, 2002). I return to discuss the division of labour and how it impacts on entrepreneurship in Chapter Three.

Like the workplace, the family is a place where social norms are played out, yet the family is rarely mentioned in entrepreneurship research (Ahl, 2003). Young (1992) believes that we should not assume that families and marital relations are "egalitarian", but to varying extents, involve power and control and unequal obligations and rights (pg 137), much the same as the power relations in the workplace¹⁵. Weiler & Bernasek (2001) confirm that it is women who have certain "socially structured responsibilities for the family" (pg 101). Assumptions that a woman's role is to take primary responsibility for the family are historical (Brush, 1990; Wetherell, 1977), and

¹⁵ Although defining the family causes some difficulty, in this instance, the following definitions of household and family are employed. The family is based on kinship, marriage and parenthood, while a household is a residential unit (Young, 1992). Other more specific definitions of the family are presented by Muncie and Sapsford (1997), distinguish the nuclear family (married couple with children) from the extended family (more than one generation) or lone parent family. Childcare is defined as the "physical and psychological maintenance of the child" (pg 34).

something that is learned from infancy (Cromie & Hayes, 1988). With respect to the choice of career, the family “represents an early and overriding source of influence on career choice” for women (Schindehutte, Morris, & Brennan, 2003 :96).

Roles within the family have undergone much change between the 1950s and late 1980s. Now more women are working full-time, having children later, and have “more supportive husbands” (Hisrich, 1989 :6). In the mid 1970s, men tended to be in the ‘breadwinner’ role of providing for their families (Gecas, 1976), and it would appear that while sex and role stereotypes have lessened, with more sharing of household duties and role reversals, they remain strong (Hisrich & Brush, 1988). While the stereotypical roles women and men play in the family may not have changed substantially, the rising levels of women’s participation in the workforce have meant changes to the way children are raised and family life has changed (Malveaux, 1990).

Traditionally, women are thought of as ‘carers’ (Gilligan, 1982), and tend to be more involved in child-rearing and the care of children than men (Cromie & Hayes, 1988; Crouter, 1984; Mallette & McGuinness, 1999). There has been a perception that this role should take precedence over other roles such as work (Burke & McKeen, 1988). Women also play an important role in caring for people other than children, such as parents (Osborne, 1991). Similarly, women have traditionally been more involved with the socialisation of children than men¹⁶ (Cromie & Hayes, 1988), which can be viewed as a self-perpetuating system that is passed from generation to generation, (Cromie & Hayes, 1988; Stanley & Wise, 1983). Now that the reasons for exploring work and family-related motivations have been established, and some contextual issues surrounding roles and experiences within work and the family have been pointed out, the task now turns to defining what we mean by an entrepreneur.

¹⁶ Socialisation is defined in this thesis by Gecas (1976) as “the social and psychological development of the child” (pg 33). Childcare is defined as the “physical and psychological maintenance of the child” (pg 34).

2.8 Defining an entrepreneur

The field of entrepreneurship is not new and has been studied since the 1700s (Cantillon, 1964). However, some suggest that as a field of research it is relatively new, and it was as late as the 1980s that entrepreneurship was labelled as a young field of study which was still moving to establish itself as a field in its own right (Chell & Haworth, 1988; Churchill & Lewis, 1986; Ireland & Van Aucken, 1987). Historically, economists have had a great deal of involvement in researching entrepreneurship (see, for example, Baumol, 1986, 1990; Schumpeter, 1934), especially in the last 250 years (Long, 1983). The celebrated economist Joseph Schumpeter (1934) credits Mill (1848) with bringing the term entrepreneur into general use among fellow economists, but the term was being used earlier than this by Cantillon (1964)¹⁷. Cantillon, writing circa 1700, proposed there were three classes of economic agents - landowners, hirelings and entrepreneurs (Hebert & Link, 1989). He defined an entrepreneur as anyone who was self-employed and not working for wages (Long, 1983).

The history of the definitions of the entrepreneur from the economics perspective has been discussed in detail by Long (1983). Table 2.2 summarises the definitional attributes he discovered. Long (1983) was able to locate three key themes in his analysis of definitional attributes - risk/uncertainty, managerial capabilities, and innovation and they are used as a way of structuring the following three sections.

¹⁷ Translated version is dated 1964. Cantillon's original work is circa 1700.

Table 2. 2 Summary of definitions of entrepreneurs

Richard Cantillon (circa 1730)	Entrepreneur defined as self-employed person. Additional uncertainty accompanies self-employment. Entrepreneurs should proportion their activity to market demands.
Jean-Baptiste Say (circa 1810)	Many managerial talents are required to be a successful entrepreneur. Many obstacles and uncertainties accompany entrepreneurship.
Alfred Marshall (circa 1980)	The abilities to be an entrepreneur are different yet complementary with the abilities to be a manager.
Joseph Schumpeter (circa 1910)	Entrepreneurship is at its essence the finding and promoting of new combinations of productive factors. Entrepreneurship is the prime creative socio-economic factor.
Frank Knight (circa 1920)	The courage to bear uncertainty is the essential aspect of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurs are required to perform such fundamental managerial functions as responsible direction and control.
Edith Penrose (circa 1960)	Managerial capacities should be distinguished from entrepreneurial capacities. Identifying and exploiting opportunistic ideas for expansion of smaller enterprises is the essential aspect of entrepreneurship.
Harvey Leibensten (circa 1970)	Entrepreneurial activity is aimed toward the reduction of organizational inefficiency and to the reversal of organisational entropy.
Israel Kirzner (circa 1975)	The identification of market arbitrage opportunities is the fundamental function of the entrepreneur

(Long, 1983: 54-5).

2.8.1 Risk and uncertainty

Risk-taking is often posited as a key concept when examining definitions of entrepreneurs (Hebert & Link, 1989; Long, 1983; Stewart, Carland, & Carland, 1996), but Schumpeter (1934) notes that risk-taking is not necessarily entrepreneurship, as it is inherent in ownership rather than entrepreneurship. Risk-taking with respect to the entrepreneur is defined as “taking the chance of incurring damage or loss of some kind (physical, psychological, or economic)” (Belcourt, 1987a :201). Furthermore, Knight (1921) suggests that risk relates to recurring situations where estimations can be made of possible outcomes. Say (1967) goes further than Knight (1921), and adds a non-financial risk to the definition of an entrepreneur, to suggest the entrepreneur faces an uncertain future in terms of whether the business is going to be a success, and may face

financial risk as well as risk to their reputation. This risk to reputation is also highlighted by Baretto (1989) who believes the entrepreneur may “without any fault of his (sic) own sink his fortune, and in some measure his character” if the business is not successful (pg 11). Hisrich & Brush (1986) also extend the concept of financial risk to social and psychological risk¹⁸.

Alternatively, uncertainty, as opposed to risk, is in Knight’s (1921) view immeasurable. Uncertainty relates to situations that have no precedent and no possibility of the outcomes being assessed. Casson (1990b) interprets Knight’s (1921) distinction of risk and uncertainty as uncertainty having the possibility of revaluation of the firm, whereas risk does not allow this. It is uncertainty that Cantillon proposed made an entrepreneur inherently different from an employee (Long, 1983). Knight (1921) also finds uncertainty to be inherent in entrepreneurship. Founding a new business appears to meet this definition of both risk and uncertainty. Therefore, in this view, anyone who starts a business is an entrepreneur (Brockhaus, 1987; Gartner, 1990; Goss, 1991; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Smith, 1967). Carland et al. (1984) go further to suggest that, in addition to establishing a business, the business must be profit and growth-oriented.

2.8.2 Managerial capabilities

Long’s (1983) second category of historical definitions of entrepreneurship relates to management capabilities. Whether someone can be an entrepreneur while also an employee of an existing organisation is a debated topic in the literature. Early views such as those of Knight (1921) and Penrose (1968) argue that a manager and an entrepreneur differ, and a manager cannot become an entrepreneur until there is liability of error on the part of the manager (Long, 1983). This again makes reference to personal risk as discussed in the previous section (Section 2.5.1). Around 1810, in the midst of the industrial revolution, Say (1967) highlighted that general “managerial capacities” were required for success as an entrepreneur (cited in Long, 1983: 55). At

¹⁸ They define the three types of risk as psychological (fear of failure), social (fear of what others will say, also as it relates to the family) and financial (Hisrich & Brush, 1986).

this time, there was no middle management in organisations and the entrepreneur had to fulfil these roles alone (Long, 1983). The idea that the entrepreneur must also be a manager was followed up by Knight (1921) and Leibenstein (1968). Other early economists such as Marshall (1890s) suggest that entrepreneurs are required to employ others, and that one of their roles is the “superintendence of labour” (cited in Long, 1983: 49).

When the professionalisation of middle management was occurring in the United States (Hartmann, 1959; Long, 1983), Schumpeter (1934) was the first to begin to talk about an entrepreneur as being distinct from a manager. Kirzner (1973) follows Schumpeter’s (1934) lead, distinguishing between the roles of the entrepreneur and manager, theorising that the entrepreneur’s task is to find profit opportunities and, once awareness of an opportunity is gained, the task is then handed over to a professional manager (Long, 1983). Similarly, Penrose (1968) believes the distinction is that a manager implements or executes the ideas of an entrepreneur. An alternative view is proposed by Casson (1990a; 1993), who views the entrepreneur as someone who makes judgemental decisions and solves problems, therefore he does not distinguish a manager from an entrepreneur.

More recently, some researchers say a paid employee can indeed be considered an entrepreneur (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991; Duffy & Stevenson, 1984; Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Vesper, 1980), by removing the expectation that an entrepreneur must own a business (Carland et al., 1984; Drucker, 1985). This has led to the creation of the terms corporate entrepreneurship and intrapreneurship (Sharma & Chrisman, 1999; Zahra, 1991). However, some researchers exclude intrapreneurs from their characterisation of an entrepreneur (Fagenson & Marcus, 1991).

2.8.3 Innovation

Innovation is defined as “the first commercial transaction involving the new product, process, system or device” (Freeman, 1982: 7). In this sense, an invention is not classed as an innovation until it is commercialised (Freeman, 1982; Schumpeter, 1934). Some

suggest that innovation is a good way of defining an entrepreneur (Drucker, 1985; Schumpeter, 1934). Schumpeter (1934) views an entrepreneur as being different from a manager because they carry out new combinations of production forces. He noted five such new combinations as; developing new products or services, new methods of production, identifying new markets, new sources of supply or a new organisational form. In response to this suggestion, Penrose (1968) believes that the entrepreneur could be an innovator within the firm, and not in such a grand scheme as Schumpeter (1934) proposed. Latterly, many other researchers have embraced the idea that an entrepreneur engages in creative and innovative behaviour (Carland et al., 1984; Drucker, 1985; Gartner, 1990; Stewart et al., 1996), while an opposing view is that innovation need not be included in a definition, as the entrepreneurial event is innovative itself (Shapiro, 1984). All three of these themes offer various ways to view entrepreneurs. Needless to say, from the brief historical review of definitions presented here, it is clear that the debate around what defines an entrepreneur continues.

2.8.4 Is the term entrepreneur gendered?

Given that I am concerned with making gender comparisons in this thesis, it is important not to overlook the possibility that the very nature of the term entrepreneur is gendered. I raise this question because others have pointed to this in prior research, to suggest that entrepreneurship is not gender neutral but is male gendered (Ahl, 2003). Thus, some women don't consider themselves entrepreneurs in the male sense of the word (Stevenson, 1990), because an entrepreneur is often defined in a 'masculine' way (Ahl, 2003; Holmquist & Sundin, 1998; Ljunggren & Alsos, 2001; Simpson, 1991). Defining an entrepreneur as a male is supported in research by Verheul, Uhlaner, & Thurik (2002), who find women are less likely than men to perceive themselves as entrepreneurs. A further study that uses metaphors to define entrepreneurs also finds women and men's views differ, where women speak in terms of family issues, lifestyles, personal characteristics and natural settings, while men focus on using metaphors that reflect sports, warfare, and adventure to describe entrepreneurs (Hyrsky, 1999). Because I make gender comparisons in this thesis, it is important to consider

the potentially gendered nature of the term entrepreneur as the remainder of this thesis unfolds.

2.9 Defining an entrepreneur for this thesis

As the field of entrepreneurship continues to grow, the problems with defining the term are becoming more visible (Carland et al., 1988). Some authors propose that there is a need for a general consensus on a specific definition (Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Gartner, 1990). The continued controversy surrounding definitions makes the task of defining an entrepreneur critical. This chapter is, therefore, an appropriate place to re-state the definition presented in Chapter One. However, it is equally important to explain the rationale behind the definition chosen for this research. As Simpson (1991) notes, this is a failing of many prior studies.

The definition of an entrepreneur used in this thesis has been established after reviewing the entrepreneurship literature. In a field where much of the research is fragmented and controversial (Cunningham & Lischeron, 1991), a clear focus on definitions is desirable. Therefore, the review of prior definitions is centred first on the prior literature, and then more specifically on those used in the gender comparative literature that parallels this study. The deliberate focus on the gender comparative literature allows for a close evaluation and comparison of the results of this thesis with existing studies in the field. The lack of direct comparability between studies is noted as a problem (Carland et al., 1988), as results are often contradictory due to such differences in definitions (Monroy & Folger, 1993). This section serves two purposes. In the first instance, it states the conditions that must be met in order for someone to be considered an entrepreneur, and then presents the definitions of an entrepreneur and entrepreneurship I prefer in this thesis. The second purpose of this section is to illustrate how these definitions compare to those used in the other studies.

The definition of an entrepreneur for the purpose of this thesis has two necessary conditions that must be met. The first requirement for the definition of an entrepreneur is that the person must be a business founder. This is a common definition used in other

entrepreneurship research (Belcourt, 1987a; Brockhaus, 1987; Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Gartner, 1990; Goss, 1991; Hamilton, 1987; Shane et al., 1991; Wright, Robbie, & Ennew, 1997). Founding one's own business (for the purposes of profit) implies a certain degree of risk-taking and uncertainty, which may be greater than that involved in an established business venture. In support of this distinction between founding and other forms of ownership, Gartner (1990) finds purchasing an existing business to be one of the lowest scoring factors when considering definitions of an entrepreneur. Because this definition focuses on the founding activity, it therefore excludes nascent entrepreneurs, in concurrence with Bruyat & Julien (2000), who liken nascent entrepreneurs to calling someone a painter if they have never painted a picture before. Results from two studies of nascent entrepreneurs indicate that the numbers who actually go on to start a business is mixed, and may be as many as 75% for men, but only 25% for women (Mazzarol, Volery, Doss, & Thein, 1999), so excluding nascent entrepreneurs seems justified.

Entrepreneurs in this research may be co-owners or couples who own businesses (co-preneurs) (Marshack, 1993), as it is a mistake to assume there can be only one entrepreneur per firm (Casson, 1990b). Casson's (1990b) argument is strengthened by the results from a United Kingdom study which shows that 61% of businesses are owned by two or more owners (44% by two people (primarily mixed sex), and 17% by three or more) (Rosa et al., 1994). However, the definition used in this thesis deliberately avoids any notion of the entrepreneur being innovative in a Schumpeterian sense (Schumpeter, 1934), but at the same time it does not exclude innovators. It would appear that innovative entrepreneurs may be in a 'class of their own', and their motivations have often been studied in isolation from other entrepreneurs (Miner, Smith, & Bracker, 1989; Smith & Miner, 1984; Wainer & Rubin, 1969).

The second component of the definition of an entrepreneur is that of employing others. This requirement distinguishes the sole trader or the self-employed (without employees) from an entrepreneur. The employment of others also increases the degree of risk that an entrepreneur must take.

Therefore, those who do not exhibit both of these conditions - the founding behaviour and employment of others, are assumed to be engaging less with the entrepreneurial role as defined here. People who inherited or purchased a business, or were self-employed (employing no-one else) or sole traders, lie outside the scope of this definition. Thus, for the purposes of this thesis, entrepreneurship and an entrepreneur are defined as:

Entrepreneurship - involves the creation of a new business (for profit).¹⁹

Entrepreneur - A person (or group of people) who creates a new business (for profit) employing at least one other paid employee.²⁰

The second purpose of this section is to establish how the definitions used in this thesis compare with others. The definition I choose to use in this thesis relates to Long's (1983) categorisations and other prior literature in a number of ways. Definitions focus on three main areas, including risk taking (Hebert & Link, 1989; Long, 1983; Stewart et al., 1996), founding a business (Belcourt, 1987a; Brockhaus, 1987; Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Gartner, 1990; Goss, 1991; Hamilton, 1987; Shane et al., 1991; Wright et al., 1997), and innovation (Carland et al., 1984; Drucker, 1985; Gartner, 1990; Schumpeter, 1934; Stewart et al., 1996). The founding component of the definition of an entrepreneur here appears to be parallel to 'risk taking', as starting a new business almost certainly involves some type of risk. Innovation is not a required component of the definition used in this thesis, but innovative entrepreneurs are certainly not excluded from the definition.

Table 2.3 indicates that there is a wide range of definitions used in the gender comparative entrepreneurial motivation literature. While they appear diverse, they can be categorised here into three distinct classifications – founders/entrepreneurs, owners and other. The definition used in this thesis, which encompasses both the founding and employment criteria, is highly comparable to the definition used by Shane et al. (1991).

¹⁹ based on (Bygrave, 1989a, 1989b).

²⁰ based on a combination of the following authors' definitions: Belcourt (1987a), Bygrave, (1989a; 1989b), Bygrave & Hofer (1991), Shane et al, (1991) and Sharma & Chrisman (1999).

In their large, cross-country study of motivations to become an entrepreneur (that includes New Zealand), the definition of an entrepreneur focuses on new venture initiators with more than one employee (they also must be independent, for profit, and have recorded their first order between 1986-1989) (Shane et al., 1991).

Table 2. 3 Sample compositions of relevant studies

Category	Sample compositions
Founders, entrepreneurs	Founders that employ others: Shane et al, 1991
Owners	Self-employed/Business Owners/Proprietors Borooah et al, 1997 DeMartino & Barbato, 2003 Hakim, 1989 Fischer et al., 1993 Greenfield & Nayak, 1992 Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986)* McGregor & Tweed, 2001 Marlow, 1997 Rosa, Hamilton, Carter, & Burns, 1994 Scott, 1986 Still & Soutar, 2001 Sundin & Holmquist, 1991
Other	Nascent entrepreneurs Cromie, 1987* Gatewood, Shaver, & Gartner, 1995 Hakim, 1989 Ljunggren & Kolvereid, 1996 Pinfeld, 2001* Lapsed entrepreneurs: Hakim, 1989

* Includes some founders in sample.

However, there is a further issue here. Of note in Table 2.3 are the studies that include a mixed range of different sample compositions, combining nascent entrepreneurs with business owners and founders (Cromie, 1987a; Hakim, 1989; Pinfeld, 2001). For example, those studies marked with an asterisk indicate that they include some founders in their sample. These three categories (entrepreneurs, owners, other) form the basis of the analysis in the discussion of the gender comparative literature that follows in Chapter Three. For the purposes of this thesis, it is considered important to be specific about the 'type' of people that are being studied, and not to assume that every category of people will behave similarly. Being explicit about definitions allows a careful

analysis of the results of the existing literature, and to establish whether gender differences exist in prior research on the motivations to become an entrepreneur or a business owner.

2.10 Conclusion

The context for this research has been established in this chapter, and the definitions of an entrepreneur have been presented. The most significant contribution of this chapter has been to establish the theoretical framework from which to consider the literature that follows, as well as the data collected for this study. The discussion now turns to understanding what motivates people to become entrepreneurs. Chapter Three therefore presents a comprehensive and careful analysis of the literature, with consideration of the definitions of entrepreneurs employed by other researchers. Furthermore, Chapter Three considers the literature with reference to the integrated perspective outlined in this chapter. Thus, the theoretical framework outlined in this chapter which allows me to make sense of the literature in the field.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

Ultimately, this study is concerned with gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This chapter focuses attention specifically on the research problem – that of gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This chapter nevertheless continues the theme from Chapter Two of focusing on definitions, and uses definitions as a means of analysing the prior results methodically, and to compare and contrast the results of prior studies. In addition, the literature is viewed in relation to the theoretical framework established in Chapter Two.

Vroom (1995) traces the origins of motivation to the principle of hedonism, which assumes people's behaviour is aimed at pleasure and that people endeavour to avoid pain. Not all behaviour is motivated (Maslow, 1954), but Jung (1978) notes there are few important aspects of behaviour that do not involve motives. Definitions of motivation vary in the literature (Atkinson, 1964), but most offer similar themes. Jung (1978) proposes motivated behaviour as “intentional and voluntary behaviour that is purposive or goal directed” (pg 5), while Vroom (1995) defines motivation as “a process governing choices made by persons...among alternative forms of voluntary activity” (pg 7). This chapter narrows the focus to why people are motivated to become business owners or entrepreneurs.

3.2 Motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur

Motivations to become a business owner or an entrepreneur have been the focus of many studies. Different groups of people have also been studied. For example, some researchers study motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur without offering gender comparisons, while some focus only on women entrepreneurs. While

the studies that do provide gender comparison are the focus of this chapter, it is also important to be aware of the other studies that exist. Studies that do not compare their samples based on gender are common (Bruce, 1976; Dubini, 1988; Hamilton, 1987; Stanworth & Curran, 1973). Other researchers have completed cross-country studies of the motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur (Bellu, Davidsson, & Goldfarb, 1989; Scheinberg & MacMillan, 1988), or studies of nascent entrepreneurs (Ritchie, Eversley, & Gibb, 1982). Attention has also been directed towards specific types of entrepreneurs, such as high technology or research and development entrepreneurs (Corman, Perles, & Vancini, 1988; Miner, 1990; Smith & Miner, 1984; Wainer & Rubin, 1969).

One trend has been to study women business owners or entrepreneurs. The study of women's motivations to become business owners or entrepreneurs is a relatively recent phenomenon, and it was the late 1970s before such studies began to appear in the literature (Baker et al., 1997; Moore, 1990; Schreier, 1975; Schwartz, 1976). Schreier's (1975) study, one of the earliest studies of women entrepreneurs in the United States finds women were motivated to start a business because of necessity (including depression, war, divorce), a hobby, or because an opportunity presented itself. Another early study by Schwartz (1976) combined both qualitative and quantitative methods to study 20 women entrepreneurs. The primary motivators for these women were somewhat different to Schreier's (1975) findings. Schwartz (1976) finds women are motivated by the need to achieve, a desire to be independent, a need for job satisfaction, as well as economic necessity. Since these two initial studies, much additional attention has been directed at researching women business owners and entrepreneurs (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Carter & Cannon, 1988, 1992; Collom, 1982; Deng, Hassan, & Jivan, 1995; Donckels & Degadt, 1986; Goffee & Scase, 1985; Halpern & Szurek, 1988; Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Holmquist & Sundin, 1986; Kim, 1996; Lee, 1996; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Marlow, 1997; Mednick, Tangri, & Hoffman, 1975; Nagarajan, Lebrasseur, & Blanco, 1995; Rashid, 1996; Sexton & Kent, 1981; Still, 1990; Still & Timms, 1998, 2000; Vokins, 1993).

3.3 Gender comparative studies

While there have been many studies of motivations to become an entrepreneur, a review of the literature suggests that there are far fewer gender comparative studies²¹. The few²² published empirical studies which provide direct comparisons between men and women are reviewed in Table 3.1.

Before outlining the results of these empirical studies, it is useful to look into the theoretical background and assumptions that these studies use. As noted in Chapter One, much of this work has not resulted in theory development, and many of these studies do not offer an explicit discussion of their theoretical position. Because the integrated perspective I am using as a theoretical framework has its foundations in both psychological and sociological perspectives, studies which use aspects of both perspectives are presented in this chapter. That is, purely psychological studies such as those focusing entirely on nAch (for example) are not considered to be comparable for the purposes of this study and are not discussed in depth here. This chapter does not discuss studies of entrepreneurs' motivations that have been aimed towards testing the achievement motivation and task motivation (Bar-Tal & Hanson-Frieze, 1977; Bellu & Sherman, 1995; Carsrud, Olm, & Thomas, 1989; Johnson, 1990; Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995; Lynn, 1969; McClelland, 1961; McClelland & Koestner, 1992; Miner et al., 1989), as these are psychological tests of a person's levels of achievement motivation.

Of these studies, six do not focus solely on entrepreneurs' motivations, but ask one question related to motivations in a more general study of entrepreneurs (Borooah et al., 1997; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; McGregor & Tweed, 2000; Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986). These studies do little to

²¹ Published in the English language.

²² Several gender comparative studies do not report results or give enough information to conduct statistical comparisons, so are not included in Table 3.1 or in the following discussion (Carter & Anderson, 2001; Rosa et al., 1994; Zapalska, 1997). A further two studies are not included because they focus only on nascent entrepreneurs, which is outside the area of focus for this thesis (Gatewood, Shaver, & Gartner, 1995; Ljunggren & Kolvereid, 1996).

review the prior motivation literature and can be seen as adding empirically to the field but not theoretically.

The remaining studies focus their work around motivations for becoming an entrepreneur or business owner and offer some sense of their theoretical perspectives. One study started with an a priori belief that gender differences would exist and later went on to suggest this was a result of different socialisation processes for women and men (Shane et al., 1991). Others have made use of feminist perspectives explicitly (Fischer et al., 1993) or implicitly (Sundin & Holmquist, 1991) to ground their study. Further studies have not been so forthcoming in their theoretical position but have focused around literature reviews of push and pull factors (Fox, 1998; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991), psychometric measures and economic measures (Cromie, 1987a) and family flexibility (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003). It is also useful to point out here that two of these studies suggested that on reflection, their hypotheses (Shane et al., 1991) and results (Cromie, 1987a) could be explained by differences in biology and socialisation processes of women and men, rather than intrinsic motivations.

Others made use of established models such as Goffee & Scase's (1985) model of attachment to gender roles and entrepreneurial ideals (discussed further in Section 3.4). Sundin & Holmquist (1991) use this model as a means of classifying their own results, while others allude to cultural explanations in their findings (Fox, 1998). Before discussing the results of these studies any further, I outline them in depth. Several important points emerge from the studies presented in Table 3.1. The definitions of entrepreneurs that are used vary widely, as do sample sizes, sample compositions, response rates and gender compositions of the samples. However, there are some commonalities, and they largely relate to the method of data collection, which in the main involves mail questionnaires and highly structured interviews. Only one study uses unstructured interviews, but uses nascent entrepreneurs in its sample. Table 3.1 is useful as a reference point for the remainder of the chapter but first some other points must be made.

Table 3. 1 Summary of gender comparative studies

Author	Place	Methods	Sample composition	Sample size	Women	Men
DeMartino & Barbato, 2003	United States	Mail questionnaire	Entrepreneur (not defined) or self-employed	261 (r = 41%)	76 (29%)	185 (71%)
Pinfold, 2001	New Zealand	Mail questionnaire	“Business founders”: - New business start-ups (past 3 months) - expected start-ups (in next 6 months) (no breakdown of numbers of each)	548 (r = not stated)	241 (44%)	307 (56%)
Still & Soutar, 2001	Australia	Mail questionnaire	Small business proprietors	577 (r=39%)	264 (46%)	313 (54%)
McGregor & Tweed, 2000	New Zealand	Mail questionnaire	Business owners	1514 (r = 43.1%)	337 (22%)	1,177 (78%)
Fox, 1998	New Zealand	Mail questionnaire	Self employed	79 (r = 38%)	33 (42%)	46 (58%)
Holmquist & Sundin, 1998	Sweden	Mail questionnaire	Entrepreneurs: - “working in their own business”	1,800 (r =60% for men, 70% for women)	1,500 (83%)	300 (17%).
Borooah, Collins, Hart, & MacNabb, 1997	Northern Ireland	Mail questionnaire	Self employed (61% employed no-one else)	416 (r=22.4%)	142 (34%)	274 (66%)
Marlow, 1997	United Kingdom	Structured questionnaires (interviews). Hypothesis testing, quantitative reporting	Self employed business owners	56	28 (50%)	28 (50%)
Fischer et al., 1993	Canada	Mail questionnaire	Business owners Manufacturing, retail and service	508 (r = 14.9%-23.8%)	60 (11.8%)	448 (88.2%)

Authors	Place	Methods	Sample composition	Sample size	Women	Men
Greenfield & Nayak, 1992	United Kingdom	Interviewer assisted questionnaire	Small business proprietors	200 (r not reported)	40 (20%)	160 (80%)
Shane et al., 1991	New Zealand, Norway, Great Britain	Mail questionnaire	New venture initiators: -with >1 employee, independent, for profit and recorded first order 1986-1989.	597 (r between 21-28%)	64 women NZ - 17 (12%) Norway - 30 (12%) Great Britain - 17 (8%)	533 men 121 (88%) 220 (88%) 192 (92%)
Hakim, 1989	United Kingdom	Structured interviews. Largely quantitative reporting of results	Self employed: - New self employed (with less than 6 employees and started less than 4 years prior). - Lapsed (left self employment within last 3 years) - Potential self employed (planned to take up self-employment within next 12 months).	472 New - 243 Lapsed - 90 Potential -139 + 33 extra with all 3 groups	New: 70 (29%) ²³ Lapsed 17 (19%) Potential 50 (36%)	173 (71%) 71 (81%) 89 (64%)
Cromie, 1987	Northern Ireland	Unstructured interviews & psychometric scale.	Entrepreneurs: - Would be entrepreneurs - very early (< 6 mths) entrepreneurs (proprietors/founders).	69 new - 44 would be - 25	34 (49%) 22 new	35 (51%) 22 new
Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986	United States	Mail questionnaire	Self employed (80% founders)	143 (n=133 for motivation results) (r = 18%)	47 (35%)	85 (64%)
Scott, 1986	United States	Mail questionnaire	Business owners	234 (2 separate surveys) (r=53% women 47% men)	154 (66%)	80 (34%)

²³ Numbers add to 270 interviews, as percentages are only supplied by author.

3.3.1 Inclusion of factors

Each study reports a number of motivating factors in its results. For the purposes of analysis here, the six highest-ranking factors (for men and women combined) are used in the analysis that follows. In some cases, a long list of motivating factors is reported, but in many cases only three (Greenfield & Nayak, 1992), four (Fox, 1998) or five (Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991) factors are tested in studies. In one case seven factors are included, as independence has three sub-factors (Shane et al., 1991). In another case, gender comparative results are not reported for some categories, therefore a seventh category is added which does report results (Pinfold, 2001).

Eight of the quantitative studies do not provide statistical analyses (they provide percentages only) (Borooah et al., 1997; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Marlow, 1997; McGregor & Tweed, 2000; Scott, 1986; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). As part of the research for this thesis, I conducted chi square tests on these eight studies' results. This was done to test the significance of differences in responses by gender in order to make meaningful comparisons between studies. Studies that do not offer their own statistical results are pointed out in the following tables in Sections 3.3.3-3.3.9. However, some assumptions needed to be made for these statistical analyses to be conducted. Firstly, it was assumed that if 20% of people said 'yes' to being motivated by independence, then the remaining 80% are assumed to have said 'no' to this question. Secondly, there was no information on missing scores, so these statistical analyses should be treated with caution. Even with these weaknesses, the statistical results provide a greater ability to compare and contrast the studies that are the focus of the remainder of this chapter.

3.3.2 Classifying by sample composition

As established in Chapter Two, this chapter uses sample compositions to present and analyse the gender comparative literature. This chapter therefore closely considers the

results from studies that utilise a definition and sample composition most similar to that used in this thesis. Three categories of sample compositions are examined here – entrepreneurs, owners and other. ‘Entrepreneurs’ are the first category, and only one study solely uses this as its sample composition. This category closely mirrors the definition of entrepreneurs used in this thesis and is, therefore, the most useful for the purpose of making comparisons.

The next category of definition is that of ‘owners’, and this encompasses various sample compositions, such as those who are self-employed or business owners. This category undoubtedly includes some entrepreneurs but also includes the self-employed (those who employ no one). It also includes those who have purchased or inherited a business, and as was established in Chapter Two, these people are considered to exhibit fewer aspects of entrepreneurship as defined in this thesis. Therefore, this category of studies is considered less comparable than in the entrepreneur category.

The final category for the purposes of analysis of the literature is that of ‘other’, and this category of studies is the least comparable to this thesis in terms of sample composition. This category includes studies that include respondents that fit in the previous two categories (entrepreneurs and owners), but also include some nascent or lapsed entrepreneurs in their samples. Therefore, because a nascent entrepreneur is specifically excluded from the definition used in this thesis, the respondents in this category exhibit few characteristics of an entrepreneur as defined here. In some cases, surveys have been conducted entirely on nascent entrepreneurs (Gatewood et al., 1995; Ljunggren & Kolvereid, 1996), and individual results for these studies are not reported in the following sections. In a similar vein, owners of businesses that have all lapsed are also outside the scope of this thesis. Regardless of the definitions and sample compositions used by these studies, it is important to discuss each category, due to the limited number of studies that compare the motivations to become an entrepreneur on the basis of gender.

The following sections discuss each of the main motivating factors for which empirical results are available. For the purposes of comparison, Sections 3.3.3 to 3.3.9 contain the six factors that appear most frequently in the literature as major motivating factors

for entrepreneurs. This is simple in some cases (ie. for independence and money), but in other factors such as achievement/recognition and family-related motivators, the variations within the different studies are pointed out. For each of the six factors, the analysis proceeds as follows. Firstly, where available, studies that do not specifically study gender are presented in brief, followed by a result from studies of women entrepreneurs, and finally, the gender comparison research is addressed in detail. Each of these six sections begins with a table that displays the results of studies for each of the motivating factors. The desire to be independent appears most frequently as a motivating factor for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur, and therefore this is discussed first.

3.3.3 Independence

Independence (whether financial, personal or freedom) and autonomy are often shown to be the primary motivating factor for becoming a business owner or an entrepreneur (Dubini, 1988; Hamilton, 1987; Harrison & Hart, 1993; McDowell, 1995; Scheinberg & MacMillan, 1988; Shane et al., 1991; Vivarelli, 1991). Being motivated by a desire for independence is also one of the primary motivators in many studies of women entrepreneurs and business owners. Independence is consistently an important factor, from the earliest studies of women (Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Schwartz, 1976; Sexton & Kent, 1981; Stevenson, 1984), to the most current studies (Belcourt, 1990; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Deng et al., 1995; Donckels & Degadt, 1986; Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Holmquist & Sundin, 1986; Kim, 1996; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Rashid, 1996; Vokins, 1993), and in studies of very successful women entrepreneurs (Belcourt, 1987a). Independence is also a factor for women in developing economies such as Turkey (Hisrich & Ozturk, 1999). A desire for control is a factor in studies of United Kingdom women (Mallon & Cohen, 2001), and for Canadian women (Lee-Gosselin & Grisé, 1990).

Independence is often cited in gender comparative studies as the number one ranking motivator for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur (Borooah et al., 1997; Fox, 1998; Hakim, 1989; Marlow, 1997; Shane et al., 1991; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991).

The following table (Table 3.2) presents the results from this factor in a methodical way, enabling comparisons to be made with respect to results and sample composition. The studies are listed by category of sample composition in the first instance, and within each category, the most current studies appear first²⁴.

²⁴ A shaded box in the significance column indicates a statistically significant gender difference is evident in the study. Where this column remains blank, results were not available on the exact significance level. In some cases, studies did not report the exact significance level, but did indicate that the difference was significant at either $p < .01$ or $p < .005$ levels. In some cases, the results are not comparable (some use percentages, some significance levels). This is not avoidable, as these are the only results provided by the studies.

Table 3. 2 Independence as a motivating factor

Factor	Author	Women	Men	Significance	
Independence - Control time: Norway New Zealand Norway Britain - Flexibility for personal/family life Norway New Zealand Norway Britain - Freedom to adapt work approach New Zealand Norway Britain	Shane et al., 1991	3.50 3.41 3.81 3.57 2.93 3.75 3.60 3.62 4.06	3.85 3.24 3.72 3.74 3.14 3.29 3.81 3.70 3.86		Entrepreneurs
Being my own boss	Still & Soutar, 2001	T statistic 1.81		.24	Owners
Gaining control over my life		T statistic 2.31		.02	
Financial independence		T statistic -0.64		.51	
Independence and Flexibility	McGregor & Tweed, 2000*	51.1%	54%	.848	
Independence	Fox, 1998	30.3%	17.4%		
Independence/Autonomy	Borooah et al, 1997*	10%	10.8%	.436	
Independence	Marlow, 1997*	18%	54%	.006	
Personal freedom	Greenfield & Nayak, 1992*	30%	42.5%	.206	
To decide over ones own life	Sundin & Holmquist, 1991*	45%	85%	.000	
To be my own boss	Scott, 1986 ²⁵	27%	12%	.002	
Independence	Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986*	12.1%	17.4%	.458	
Need for Independence	Pinfold, 2001	4.7	4	p<.01	Other
Choose when to work	Hakim, 1989*	23%	13%	1.000	
Be own boss	Hakim, 1989*	48%	47%	.641	
Autonomy	Cromie, 1987*	18.8%	23%		

* Indicates that statistical tests performed by the author of this thesis

The study that uses ‘entrepreneurs’, the preferred definition in this thesis, shows no gender differences in three different aspects of independence in each of the three countries studied (New Zealand, Norway, Britain) (Shane et al., 1991). Shane et al.’s

²⁵ This study includes a third column – married couples, which in this case have not been analysed.

(1991) study indicates that the desire for independence is a high-ranking factor for both women and men in their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

However, when moving to the 'owner' category, the results shown in Table 3.2 present more contradictory findings. Among studies using this less preferred definition and sample composition, five factors show statistically significant gender differences. Marlow's (1997) study finds the most significant difference, where only 18% of women are motivated by independence, compared with 54% of men. Given the strength of this statistically-matched sample, this finding deserves strong consideration even though it is in the 'owners' category. In addition, this finding is supported by a much larger sample of Swedish business owners, where 85% of men but only 45% of women say they are motivated to be able to 'decide over one's own life' (Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). At the other extreme, Scott's (1986) study finds that more women than men have a desire to 'be my own boss', at 27% and 12% respectively, and in a similar case, women were more motivated than men to gain control over their lives (Still & Soutar, 2001). The remaining seven factors that were tested in this category found no gender differences.

In the 'other' category, there is one gender difference in relation to the 'need for independence', from Pinfold's (2001) New Zealand sample. For this study, women have a greater need for independence, and this concurs with Scott's (1986) and Still & Soutar's (2001) results. This gender difference should be treated with caution, however, as this category represents the definition that most departs from the preferred sample composition used in this thesis.

To conclude, five statistically significant gender differences showing independence as a motivation for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur were found. The majority of studies may suggest there are no gender differences in independence as a motivating factor, and Shane et al.'s (1991) finding (which the most emphasis is placed in this analysis) concludes that there are no statistically significant differences between gender or country. However, the remaining studies, using definitions and sample compositions that involve less engagement of the entrepreneurial act (as defined here), do show gender differences. Therefore, it would be fair to conclude that, with only five of the 24 results reported here showing gender differences, that independence appears to be a

universal motivator for both women and men business owners and entrepreneurs. Furthermore, of the five studies that report gender differences, the degree and direction of gender differences remains inconclusive. This is evidenced in the two cases where women are more motivated by independence, while another three cases find the opposite trend, with men being more motivated by independence than women.

3.3.4 Money

Some research has been directed at understanding why people choose to work, and these studies find that money is not the sole motivator for working (Jung, 1978; Vroom, 1995). Other factors such as social interaction and social status for the worker are also important (Vroom, 1995). In a similar way, business owners and entrepreneurs are not always primarily motivated by money, and it is often a less important factor than other factors such as independence and work-related reasons. Yet, studies that find wealth/money to be a motivating factor are relatively widespread (Dubini, 1988; Fox, 1998; Hamilton, 1987; Kuratko, Hornsby, & Naffziger, 1997; McDowell, 1995; Scheinberg & MacMillan, 1988; Vivarelli, 1991; Watson, Woodliff, Newby, & McDowell, 2000).

Money is also a motivating factor in many recent studies of women entrepreneurs (Deng et al., 1995; Kim, 1996; Rashid, 1996), and some more dated studies (Collom, 1982; Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Sexton & Kent, 1981). A more extreme reason that money is suggested as a motivation for some women entrepreneurs is economic necessity (Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Rashid, 1996; Schreier, 1975; Schwartz, 1976). Table 3.3 displays the gender comparative studies regarding money as a motivating factor for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur.

Table 3. 3 Money as a motivating factor

Factor	Author	Women	Men	Significance	
Wealth creation	DeMartino & Barbato, 2003	29.1%	75.9%	.000	Owners
Financial independence	Still & Soutar, 2001	T statistic -.64		.51	
Creating a highly profitable business		T statistic -0.11		.91	
To earn a living	McGregor & Tweed, 2000*	52.2	58.5	.871	
To make a profit		54.2	49.6	.070	
Create wealth	Fox, 1998	9.1%	13%		
Financial reward	Borooah et al, 1997*	6.4%	12.3%	.036	
Financial gain	Marlow, 1997*	0%	21%	.012	
Financial motivation	Fischer et al., 1993	25.7 ²⁶	24.9	p<.05	
Money	Sundin & Holmquist, 1991*	4%	14%	1.000	
Money	Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986*	3.8%	4.5%	1.000	
Make more money	Scott, 1986*	33%	12%	0.000	
Instrumentality of wealth	Pinfold, 2001	4.4	4	p<.01	Other
Profit/reward not for someone else	Hakim, 1989*	16%	17%	.459	
Lots more money		22%	28%	.102	
Money	Cromie, 1987	10.1%	15.1%	p<.05	

* Indicates that statistical tests were performed by the author of this thesis.

The gender comparative research shows making money is a motivating factor for many business owners and entrepreneurs. However, it appears that money is a relatively low scoring motivating factor when considered in relation to other motivating factors. Only one study finds money to be the highest ranking answer for both women and men (Rosa et al., 1994) (but reports no exact results), and this contradicts most previous studies. Therefore, making money can be viewed as a relatively low rating motivating factor in the majority of the gender comparative studies in Table 3.3.

As reported in Table 3.3, there are no results for 'entrepreneurs' in this motivating factor. In their survey, Shane et al. (1991) asked about 'desire for high earnings' but

²⁶ Highest possible score: 28 (Fischer et al., 1993).

apparently this question does not load onto any of their four factors²⁷. For the ‘owners’ category, statistically significant differences between women and men are found in five cases (Borooah et al., 1997; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Fischer et al., 1993; Marlow, 1997; Scott, 1986). In a similar finding to that for independence, while five of the sets of results report that money as a motivator show gender differences, the direction of gender differences differs. In two studies, men are more likely than women to report making money or financial reward as a motivation (Borooah et al., 1997; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Marlow, 1997). Alternatively, Scott (1986) finds that women are more motivated to ‘make more money’, with 33% of women and only 12% of men reporting money as a motivating factor when becoming a business owner. Hence, the evidence on which gender is more motivated by money remains inconclusive.

For the ‘other’ category, a similar picture emerges. Two studies show gender differences, but the gender differences are in opposite directions. Pinfold (2001) finds that women ranked ‘instrumentality of wealth’ higher than men, but Cromie (1987a) reports that men have a higher desire for money than women. When viewing these studies in total, seven (or just under half) of the report results find gender differences. This suggests there is no consensus over whether money as a motivator differs between women and men. Perhaps more importantly, while gender differences exist in some cases, the direction of difference is not clear, with some showing that women want money more than men, and some reporting the opposite result. Needless to say, this factor offers little conclusiveness, especially given there are no reports for the ‘entrepreneur’ category.

3.3.5 Work-related factors

Firstly, in studies of women business owners and entrepreneurs, job dissatisfaction prior to business start-up appears to be a common finding in the literature (Bird, 1993) as a motivator for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur. Studies of women business

²⁷ This study replicates an earlier study by Scheinberg & McMillian (1988) but they reduce the original questionnaire from 38 items to 21 items. Scheinberg & McMillian (1988) find ‘instrumentality of wealth’ to be one of their six factors, but this study is not gender comparative.

owners and entrepreneurs find that women were motivated by wanting increased job satisfaction (Cromie, 1987a; Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Rashid, 1996; Schwartz, 1976; Sexton & Kent, 1981). Similar motivations are also suggested to be important in studies of women minority entrepreneurs (Hisrich & Brush, 1985), and in the developing economy of Turkey (Hisrich & Ozturk, 1999). In addition, a related factor, that of dissatisfaction with the organisation they worked in previously, appears in several studies of women business owners and entrepreneurs (Donckels & Degadt, 1986; Holmquist & Sundin, 1986; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Vokins, 1993). The gender comparison literature outlined in Table 3.4 also highlights similar work-related issues with respect to motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur.

Table 3. 4 Work-related motivating factors

Motivation	Author	Women	Men	Significance	
Freedom to adapt own approach to work ²⁸	Shane et al, 1991				Entrepreneurs
New Zealand		3.60	3.81		
Norway		3.62	3.70		
Britain		4.06	3.86		
Career flexibility	DeMartino & Barbato, 2003	85.4%	50.8%	.000	Owners
Co-career issues		58.3%	21.8%	.000	
Advancement		23.4%	42.7%	.017	
Tired of working for someone else	McGregor & Tweed, 2000*	36.4%	39.7%		
Avoid unemployment	Fox, 1998	27.3%	28.2%		
Redundancy/unemployment	Borooah et al, 1997*	9.3%	27.5%	.000	
Instability in current job		13.6%	7.8%	1.000	
Career frustration	Marlow, 1997*	32%	32%	.612	
Redundancy		7%	3%	.500	
Chance to work in the branch	Sundin & Holmquist, 1991*	12%	16%	.936	
Job satisfaction	Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986*	6.8%	6.8%	1.000	
Only way to do desired type of work	Scott, 1986*	13%	17%	.780	
Employment	Pinfold, 2001	4.4 overall	²⁹		Other
Could not find employment	Hakim, 1989*	15%	25%	.013	
Career dissatisfaction	Cromie, 1987	14.5%	4.3%	p<.005	
Job dissatisfaction		15.2%	18%		

* Indicates that statistical tests were performed by the author of this thesis

Within the gender comparative research highlighted in Table 3.4, there are various motivating factors that can be distinguished within work-related motivators. There are two distinct categories of motivations here; those regarding a particular job or employer, and then broader career or employment level factors. Firstly, at an individual job level, factors such as job satisfaction (Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986), job dissatisfaction (Cromie, 1987a), or instability in a job (Borooah et al., 1997) can motivate people to leave their employment and become business owners or entrepreneurs. On a higher

²⁸ Also reported in the Independence category, but also applies to work category.

²⁹ No statistically significant gender differences are reported, but results unknown.

level than an individual job are career and employment issues such as career flexibility, advancement and co-career issues (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003), dissatisfaction with one's career (Cromie, 1987a; Marlow, 1997), having difficulty finding employment (Fox, 1998; Hakim, 1989) and redundancy (Borooah et al., 1997; Marlow, 1997).

Gender differences with respect to work-related motivating factors are relatively limited across these studies. None are found for the study in the 'entrepreneurs' classification. Shane et al. (1991) find job freedom to be the only motivating factor which is consistently similar between genders and across countries, supporting their view that there are no universal motivating factors for entrepreneurship. What this may also highlight is that work factors are relatively similar motivating factors between women and men. This appears to be supported by the finding of only six statistically significant gender differences in work as a motivating factor.

For the 'owners' category, DeMartino & Barbato (2003) find women are more motivated than men by co-career issues and career flexibility. These two motivating factors are highly statistically significant in terms of gender differences. Some 85.4% of women are motivated by career flexibility issues, while only 50.8% of men are. Similarly, with respect to co-career issues, 58.3% of women but only 21.8% of men state that they are motivated by this factor to become a business owner. The opposite trend exists for advancement, where significantly more men are motivated by this factor than women (23.4% for women, and 42.7% for men) (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003). Borooah et al (1997) also find statistically significant gender differences in 'redundancy and unemployment', where more men are motivated by this factor than women (27.5% for men and 9.3% for women).

The only other two studies that discover gender differences with respect to work were classed as using the 'other' definition in their sample selection. Cromie (1987a) finds 'career dissatisfaction' to be more significant to women than men. However, in the same study, he finds no gender difference in 'job dissatisfaction'. This finding suggests women desire a change in career, rather than being particularly dissatisfied with their present job. Hakim (1989) also finds statistically significant gender

differences, where men ‘could not find employment’, apparently suggesting that entrepreneurship may have been a last resort, rather than a desire.

As highlighted in studies of the motivations of business owners and entrepreneurs discussed in this chapter, work-related factors also offer little conclusiveness in terms of whether there are gender differences. Factors involving ‘work’ appear to be relatively low rating motivating factors for people in all three categories of definitions. The exception is the results of DeMartino & Barbato (2003), which provides potential insights into the nature of gender differences within work as a motivating factor. While this sample uses the ‘owners’ definition, the results suggest that women were motivated more significantly in terms of thinking of themselves in relation to another person – either a partner (co-career issues), or career flexibility (possibly for child-rearing). Alternatively, men seem more concerned with advancing their careers than women.

A discussion of some background issues is important here in order to sit these results in context. Having already referred to the division of labour in Chapter Two (Alvesson, 1998; Alvesson & Billing, 1997), I now provide more explanation of the two components of the division of labour and how this potentially impacts on the entrepreneur.

3.3.5.1 Horizontal division of labour

The horizontal division of labour describes the notion that women and men tend to do different kinds of work (Moss-Kanter, 1977). While Kanter’s work is now somewhat dated, her work remains important (Alvesson & Billing, 1992; Ely, 1995). In New Zealand, women are employed primarily in the service sector. Four service industries (wholesale, retail trade and restaurants and hotels; transport storage and communications; business and financial services; and community, social and personal services) employed 80.3% of all women in 1998 (Statistics New Zealand, 1998). The service sector of New Zealand’s economy grew at a rate of 27% from 1997 to 2002 (Statistics New Zealand, 2002), enhancing the concentration of women into this sector.

Related to the preponderance of women in the service sectors in the economy is the issue that many of the jobs in this sector are part-time. This has allowed women flexibility, and women who opt for this flexibility are labelled voluntary part-time workers. On the other hand, an opposing view is that part time workers take such part-time jobs because they cannot find full-time employment (Malveaux, 1990). Again, this raises the question of 'choice'. Do women choose to work in these lower paying sectors, or are they channelled into such areas as a result of socialisation? While this is an interesting question in its own right, it is not one that is debated in this thesis. However, it is an important area to discuss briefly, as sector choice at work may impact on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This appears justified as women business owners and entrepreneurs are proportionately better represented in the service sector of the economy (Humphreys & McClung, 1981; Still & Timms, 2000). Charbeneau (1981) finds that some 45% of women-owned businesses are located in the service sector, higher than the 37% of total firms in the sector. Other studies concur with these findings, and show that women tend to start businesses in retail and service areas, which typically have lower earning capabilities than other areas such as manufacturing (Hisrich & O'Brien, 1982; Neider, 1987). In addition, some suggest the service sector of the economy allows women with 'female-type' skills to establish a business with little capital (Humphreys & McClung, 1981), and allows the ability to balance work and family (Loscocco & Robinson, 1991).

This preponderance of women starting businesses in the service sector may be a concern when suggestions are made by some that the service sector is an area of the economy that has been 'passed over' by men (Loscocco & Robinson, 1991). However, while it may be difficult for women entrepreneurs to 'cross over' to male dominated industries, the reverse does not appear to hold true. That is, men have no difficulty in crossing over to stereotypically female activities (Barrett, 1995). While women appear to congregate in certain jobs and industries, it is interesting to note that Rozier & Thompson's (1998) study of physical therapists, a highly female dominated profession, finds that the majority of new practices are opened by men. Another trend that shows gender differences is the levels of seniority that women achieve in the workplace, and this is discussed next

3.3.5.2 Vertical division of labour

The vertical division of labour refers to the observation that women and men are unevenly divided in the hierarchy at work (Cockburn, 1985, cited in Aslesen, 1998). Moss Kanter (1977) suggests that gender differences in organisational behaviour are caused by the structure of organisations, rather than resulting from the characteristics of men and women.

Studies show that across many countries³⁰, the predominant view is that successful managers are largely perceived to exhibit primarily masculine characteristics (Sauers et al., 2002; Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002). In Japan and China, the ‘think manager-think male’ phenomenon still remains, especially in the view of male students (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996), while in Canada, women business students believe both women and men have the necessary characteristics for success as managers (Orser, 1994). While some propose there has been a shift in leadership styles to a more androgynous management style (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002), Bell & Nkomo (1992) believe that women managers are forced to assimilate, and success depends on “her ability to emulate the behaviours and attitudes of men” (pg 238). An alternative view is that women managers do not see themselves to have the characteristics of those who “make it to the top” (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002 :126), or may “wish to spend their time and energies in other ways” (O'Connor, 2001 :400). The potential impact of the vertical division of labour is that it may have been a motivation for many women to become entrepreneurs. If women are stifled inside an organisation, they may feel forced to leave and become a business owner or an entrepreneur.

The ‘glass ceiling’ refers to the subtle barriers that prevent women from achieving higher management positions (Marshall, 1984). Moss Kanter (1977) claims that organisations change the rules for women, in terms of what they need to do to reach the top, therefore making it more difficult for women to succeed. In addition, Marshall (1994) also finds that as women managers age, opportunities ahead narrow, their careers slow and they have peers that are primarily white males. Problems at work such

³⁰ New Zealand is compared with similar studies from the United States, Great Britain, Canada, Germany, Japan and China (Sauers, Kennedy, & O'Sullivan, 2002).

as the glass ceiling are often found to be exacerbated when a woman employee has children (Cromie & Hayes, 1988). However, Powell & Butterfield (1994) find the opposite effect to the glass ceiling, where women are promoted over men and that gender actually works to their advantage. While appearing to be a move forward, the fact that this study takes place in a government department must be considered, and therefore such findings may not be widely applicable to a corporate setting.

In relation to management experience specifically, there is further debate as to its significance to the entrepreneur (Bird, 1993). Several studies show that women entrepreneurs have less managerial experience than men (Belcourt, 1991; Fischer et al., 1993; Mallette & McGuinness, 1999). This is significant because women may be unable to attain the same levels of human capital as men (Weiler & Bernasek, 2001). This is important to consider as some authors suggest that 50% of women start businesses they have no specific knowledge of, nor managerial experience of, while only 5% of men start a business without such experience. In terms of management experience, only 24% of women were employed in such roles, while a comparatively higher 72% of men were (Watkins & Watkins, 1983).

Related to management experience is the concept of networks. These networks may be entrenched in an organisation, meaning women find it difficult to attain high positions (Weiler & Bernasek, 2001)³¹. While Cromie & Birley (1992) find few differences in the networks of women and men business owners, other studies suggest women lack networks (Aldrich, 1989; Buttner, 1993; Frankel, 1984), or that their networks are different from men's (Cromie & Birley, 1992; Martin, 2001), and women need to improve their networks if they are to succeed in business (Aldrich, 1989). However, as Martin (2001) finds, this may be difficult for women as they have limited time to be able to devote to building networks, because of their need to juggle multiple roles within the family and their work. Men business owners' networks are largely made up of other men, while women also rely on men for their prime contacts rather than other women (Cromie & Birley, 1992). In addition, men business owners and entrepreneurs are found to have a natural network of contacts from a range of sources (sporting,

³¹ This is what Weiler & Bernasek (2001) refer to as quasi-nepotism, not disadvantaging a group (in this case, women) per se, but "implicit discrimination towards its counterpart" (men) (Weiler & Bernasek, 2001:90, their emphasis).

belonging to associations), whereas women have more limited networks, largely with their customers and suppliers (Martin, 2001).

3.3.6 Family-related factors

Considerations for the family are often cited as important in studies of women business owners and entrepreneurs motivations (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Deng et al., 1995; Kim, 1996; Mallon & Cohen, 2001). Buttner & Moore (1997) and Mallon & Cohen (2001) report that women require flexibility between their roles as professionals and as mothers, and this was a factor in some women's motivations for leaving employment to become a business owner or entrepreneur. Two other studies also recognise flexibility regarding children as a factor (Deng et al., 1995; Kim, 1996), and Schindehutte et al. (2001) similarly conclude that women entrepreneurs were motivated to achieve work-family balance. Table 3.5 outlines those studies that compare women and men directly in relation to results that test whether the family acts as a motivating factor to become a business owner or entrepreneur.

Table 3. 5 Family as a motivating factor

Motivation	Author	Women	Men	significance	
Continue family tradition New Zealand Norway Britain	Shane et al., 1991				Entrepreneurs
		1.07	1.38	p<.05	
		1.03	1.31		
		1.06	1.29		
Flexibility for personal and family life ³² New Zealand Norway Britain					
		3.57	3.74		
		2.93	3.70		
		3.75	3.29		
Family policies	DeMartino &	64.6%	28.7%	.000	Owners
Family obligations	Barbato, 2003	54.1%	22.8%	.000	
Achieving balance between work and family	Still & Soutar, 2001	T statistic 4.66		.00	Owners
Combining waged/domestic labour	Marlow, 1997*	43%	0%	.000	
Fit with domestic commitments	Greenfield & Nayak, 1992*	37.5%	1.3%	.000	
Family-related reasons	Sundin & Holmquist, 1991*	39%	11%	.000	
Lifestyle motivation	Fischer et al., 1993	15.5 ³³	15.0		Other
Following a role model	Pinfold, 2001	2.4	2.8	p<.01	
Child rearing	Cromie, 1987	9.4%	0.07%	p<.005	
Family and community welfare	Pinfold, 2001	4.3		³⁴	

* Indicates that statistical tests were performed by the author of this thesis.

As indicated in Table 3.5, family reasons feature in many of the gender comparative studies illustrated. Specifically, nine of these results show statistically significant gender differences in terms of family-related motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur. However, these gender differences refer to two seemingly separate issues relating to the family. Firstly, two gender differences exist with respect to ‘continuing a family tradition’ (Shane et al., 1991) and ‘following a role model’ (Pinfold, 2001). Men in Norway expressed their desire to continue a family tradition as a motivating factor, while statistically fewer women were motivated by this (Shane et al., 1991). Along similar lines, ‘following a role model’ (Pinfold, 2001) was more applicable to

³² Reported in the ‘independence’ category, but applies in the family category also.

³³ Highest possible score – 28.

³⁴ Results not reported for each gender. No statistical difference reported, so the assumption is made that this is not a gender difference.

men, but it appears not to be solely specific to the family. It is included in this section because the possibility arises that this role model may have been a family member. Neither of these two findings relate to the more prominently occurring family reasons, which concerns combining business and family. This second issue that arises in the family category relates more directly to issues such as combining waged and domestic labour (Marlow, 1997; Still & Soutar, 2001), family-related reasons (Sundin & Holmquist, 1991), family policies and family obligations (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003), the fit with domestic commitments (Greenfield & Nayak, 1992), and child-rearing (Cromie, 1987a). All of these studies find gender differences with respect to the factors listed. Several of the other motivating factors discussed already indicate gender differences occurring in both directions - for some cases they are higher for women and, in others, higher for men. For the gender differences in the family category, all results show that women are more motivated by these factors than men. These are explored individually next, in relation to the sample composition used in the studies.

The 'entrepreneur' category perhaps provides the most comprehensive view of motivation relating to family issues (Shane et al., 1991). This study encompasses three countries, but is one in which no gender differences exist in any country in relation to 'flexibility for personal and family life'. However, this factor includes two possible aspects of flexibility (personal and family) and no further explanation is given as to the nature of these two factors. This study finds women are more motivated by this factor than men but this difference is not statistically significant.

The remaining statistically significant gender differences are found in studies that use the business 'owner' category of definition. For instance, family policies, and family obligations differ between women and men in DeMartino & Barbato's (2003) study of MBA graduates. For these two factors, 64.6% and 54.1% of the women report them as motivating factors (respectively). In contrast, significantly fewer men are motivated by these factors, at 28.7% and 22.8% respectively. Further gender differences exist in Marlow's (1997) study. Forty-three percent of women in this matched sample note combining waged and domestic labour to be a motivating factor, while no men do. This finding is also corroborated by a more recent, larger sample (Still & Soutar, 2001). In a similar vein, Sundin & Holmquist (1991) and Greenfield & Nayak's (1992) studies both

show statistically significant gender differences. Sundin & Holmquist (1991) find that 39% of women are motivated by 'family-related reasons', while only 11% of men are. Again, in further support of the conclusion that women are more motivated by factors regarding the family, Greenfield & Nayak (1992) show 37.5% of women in their sample were motivated by 'fit with domestic commitments', compared with a much lower percentage of men (1.3%).

For those using the 'other' definition, Cromie (1987a) explains that the different motives of men and women might be influenced by socialisation, where women are expected to take on the mothering role (leading to breaks in their career), and men are expected to be the bread winners. As in the 'owners' category, this gender difference is statistically significant, and follows the same direction of difference, where 9.4% of women are motivated by 'child-rearing', while 0.07% of men are. While these figures are significantly lower than many of the other results listed in the 'owners' category, the results as a whole tend to support Cromie's (1987a) conclusions that women and men's motivations may be influenced by factors regarding gender issues and traditional roles within the family.

Five studies are absent from Table 3.5, as they do not report factors relating to the family (Borooah et al., 1997; Fox, 1998; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986). This observation may be significant because, as outlined above, many gender differences are found in relation to motivations that concern the family, and studies that do not include this question may be problematic. Except for Hakim's (1989) study, each of the studies above uses a quantitative method to collect their data, and do not include this as a question on their survey instrument. Hakim's (1989) study finds that women in the sample considered family reasons important but these do not feature in the six highest ranking factors, so are not outlined here.

In summary, an analysis of the studies that report the family is a motivating factor when becoming a business owner or entrepreneur show many statistically significant gender differences. These results are important for two reasons. Firstly, the family is a factor that exhibits the most gender differences of all six factors analysed in this chapter. In addition, an analysis of previous studies indicates the importance women in particular

place on their families in motivating them to become business owners or entrepreneurs. However, in order to understand these results more fully, it is important to discuss the family in relation to entrepreneurs.

3.3.6.1 Parents

There is an increased likelihood of becoming interested in owning a small business if there is a family background in business ownership (Matthews & Moser, 1996), especially for men (Malette & McGuinness, 1999). This supports the argument that the family can act as an 'incubator' for entrepreneurs (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003; Belcourt, 1988). Watkins & Watkins (1983) find that women entrepreneurs are four times more likely to have an entrepreneurial parent than women who are not entrepreneurs. Thus, the percentage of women who have parents (mainly fathers) who are (or had been) entrepreneurs seems to be higher than that of the general population (Belcourt, 1987b; Belcourt et al., 1991; Bird, 1993; Buttner, 1993; Hisrich & Brush, 1985). This apparently is also the case for many more specific types of businesses, such as those in real estate (Mescon & Stevens, 1982), and those in non-traditional businesses also tend to have fathers who also owned businesses (Hisrich & O'Brien, 1982). However, this was not the case for minority entrepreneurs, who typically have a father who was a blue collar worker (Hisrich & Brush, 1985).

The family is an area where many women have been given a taste of entrepreneurial life and many women business owners and entrepreneurs appear to have a strong bond with their fathers (Belcourt, 1987b; Belcourt, 1988; Belcourt, 1990; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1982; Matthews & Moser, 1996). Alternatively, mothers and other women family members (sisters, grandmother) do not appear to be strong role models for women entrepreneurs, but male figures such as a husband, father or grandfather appear to be significant. Sixty percent of the women entrepreneurs see their father as a role model, while only 6% see their mother in this position. Other role models emerged as the entrepreneur's brother (11%), sister (3%), grandfather (22%), grandmother (17%), husband (76%), and children (66%) (Belcourt, 1987b).

The potential influence and role of an entrepreneur's parents cannot be denied. The impact and the nature of this influence has not been investigated fully, and many studies have focused on the demographic nature of the family, such as birth order (Belcourt, 1987b; Hisrich & Brush, 1985), or the social class of the family, which shows that entrepreneurs often hail from middle-class families (Belcourt, 1987b; Hisrich & Brush, 1985). Needless to say, parents have the potential to be an influencing factor on their children's motivations to become a business owner or an entrepreneur, as do domestic partners.

3.3.6.2 Domestic partners

Along with other family members, domestic partners also have the potential to play a significant role in the motivations of someone to become an entrepreneur. Businesses with husband and wife owners account for a high number of those with ownership status, with research finding this percentage to be between 21% (Baines & Wheelock, 1998) and 30% on average, although the figure is lower for women (19%) (Miettinen, 1986). Men tend to be associated with a woman in their business (ie. domestic partners), while women typically are related to co-owners of the business (Rosa & Hamilton, 1994).

In a similar way to women employees, many women entrepreneurs also seem to experience work-family conflict (Kim & Ling, 2001; Longstreth, Stafford, & Mauldin, 1987; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Stoner, Hartman, & Arora, 1990). This is especially the case for couples who are also business partners (Foley & Powell, 1997), and this is supported by a further study which finds that one-third of the women believe that business ownership has a detrimental effect on their personal lives (Carter & Cannon, 1988). Others also find high levels of work-family conflict, where women say their businesses take them away from their personal interests, make it difficult to relax at home, and that they are often too tired to do the things they want to do at home (Stoner et al., 1990).

The results of these studies suggest that many women entrepreneurs simply 'add' their role as entrepreneurs to their existing roles within the family. Their domestic partners'

contributions towards family, housework, and childcare is in many cases, limited (Alcorso, 1993; Belcourt et al., 1991; Longstreth et al., 1987; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Parasuraman, Purohit, Godshalk, & Beutell, 1996). Therefore, this has implications for the amount of time women have available to spend on their business (Parasuraman et al., 1996). This is seen in practice, where many women entrepreneurs, like women employees, work part-time in their businesses (Longstreth et al., 1987).

Housework is another area where significant differences are often found with respect to women's and men's contributions, apparently regardless of whether the woman works outside of the household (Gutek & Groff-Cohen, 1992). Women continue to bear the majority of domestic work (Cromie & Hayes, 1988; Wetherell, 1977). As Shelton (1992) reports, while women tend to take more responsibility for housework in general, this trend differs with respect to hours worked, education levels, number of children, age and the types of tasks conducted. In relation to entrepreneurs, it would appear that this situation remains, and Marlow & Strange (1994) suggest women who choose to become business owners often do not have support and assistance from other family members in terms of domestic tasks, yet at the same time seem reluctant to employ people to help with such tasks (Belcourt et al., 1991).

Where differences between women and men occur is that 65% of the spouses of women entrepreneurs do not take any part in the business, while alternatively only 40% of male owned businesses have no help from a spouse (Miettinen, 1986). While many women business owners or entrepreneurs tend to not have help from their husbands (Burke & Belcourt, 1989), this may be somewhat of a blessing, because having a domestic partner who works outside of the business means there may be less dependence on the business's profits to support the family (Hisrich & Brush, 1988; Rosa & Hamilton, 1994). The work performed by a domestic partner of a male entrepreneur is often of an administrative nature (Burke & Belcourt, 1989) and is typically unpaid or unacknowledged (Goffee & Scase, 1986; Sinclair, 2000). Many wives of male entrepreneurs give up their own career to help their spouse (Burke & Belcourt, 1989). Indeed, it is suggested that many male-owned businesses would not become established and succeed without such help from a spouse (Alcorso, 1993; Goffee & Scase, 1986),

especially in the beginning stages of a business start-up (Goffee & Scase, 1982; Rosa & Hamilton, 1994).

3.3.6.3 Child-rearing

Women entrepreneurs are typically married and have children (Buttner, 1993), although there appears to be an increasing trend towards women entrepreneurs not having children (Goffee & Scase, 1985). More traditionally, some women wait until their children are past secondary school before becoming a business owner or entrepreneur (Breen, Calvert, & Oliver, 1995). Other more recent research finds that women with young children choose business ownership because it offers a chance to “overcome childcare cost considerations” (Caputo & Dolinsky, 1998 :9). However, others conclude that before women start a business, they carry the majority of the childcare role in their relationship, and this continues after they move into business ownership or entrepreneurship (Lee-Gosselin & Grisé, 1990; Marlow & Strange, 1994).

Some women business owners and entrepreneurs believe time to spend with children is one of their major problems (Breen et al., 1995), and women entrepreneurs experience “internal guilt from perceived neglect of the maternal role” (Gilbert, Kovalic Holahan, & Manning, 1981 :419). However, the differences in perceptions of women and their children is highlighted by Schindehutte, Morris, & Brennan’s (2001) study, where children report the impact to be a generally positive experience, and businesses owned by women are only moderately ‘disruptive’ to family life. Similar findings exist in their later comparative study of American and South African women entrepreneurs (Schindehutte et al., 2003). These two studies provide some evidence that women entrepreneurs’ ‘perception’ of neglect of their role as a mother may in fact be just that, a perception rather than a reality. The observations here suggest the role that women have in childcare and child-rearing remains strong. The role of children in the decision to start a business is therefore considered to be a potentially strong influence on entrepreneur’s motivations, whether it be related to the delay in having children, or starting a business in order to provide flexibility for the child-rearing role.

3.3.7 Achievement/Recognition

This category emerges from McClelland's need for achievement research in the 1960s (McClelland, 1961, 1962). There is evidence to suggest that entrepreneurs have a higher need for achievement (known as nAch) than the general population, and this makes them behave in certain ways and have certain tendencies (Lynn, 1969; McClelland, 1961). Studies of technical entrepreneurs (Wainer & Rubin, 1969), and women entrepreneurs (Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995) also support McClelland's findings that entrepreneurs have a high need for achievement. However, the need for achievement has been viewed as a masculine characteristic and this may affect any differences reported between women and men entrepreneurs (Stein & Bailey, 1975). While this particular type of personality testing research is beyond the scope of this thesis's inquiry, it is important to recognise where this category emerges from.

Many business owners and entrepreneurs have a desire for a challenge, and this is identified in a number of studies of women as being a motivation for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Collom, 1982; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981; Marlow, 1997; Vokins, 1993). Table 3.6 shows that the various factors discussed in this category can be classed as achievement or recognition, or related to an entrepreneur being motivated by a challenge.

Table 3. 6 - Achievement/recognition/challenge related factors

Motivation	Author	Women	Men	Significance	
Achieve something and get recognition	Shane et al., 1991				Entrepreneurs
New Zealand		2.33	2.62		
Norway		2.62	2.10	p<.05	
Britain		3.31	2.65	p<.01	
Meeting new challenges	Still & Soutar, 2001	T statistic -.64		0.00	Owners
Ambition	Borooah et al, 1997*	17.1%	14.9%	.747	
Social/recognition	Fischer et al., 1993	16.0 ³⁵	16.8		
Challenge	Scott, 1986*	29%	13%	.005	
Approval of others	Pinfold, 2001	2.0	2.3	p<.01	Other
Personal development ³⁶		-	-		
Challenge	Hakim, 1989*	18%	10%	1.000	
Achievement	Cromie, 1987	16.7%	16.5%		
Achievement	Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986*	9.1%	12.1%	1.000	

* Indicates that statistical tests were performed by the author of this thesis.

Unlike previous motivating factors such as independence and money, this category of achievement/recognition and challenge groups together a number of factors that appear to be somewhat related. Firstly, the desire for achievement and/or recognition is discussed. In the case of achievement/recognition as a motivating factor, four gender differences emerge. For the ‘entrepreneurs’ category, gender differences exist with respect to ‘achieve something and recognition for it’ (Shane et al., 1991). This factor results in statistically significant differences between women and men in both Norway and Britain. These results both point to greater numbers of women being motivated to start a business by achievement and recognition, in contrast to the results from men. The ‘other’ category shows a further difference, but this difference is that men are motivated more than women to get the approval of others (Pinfold, 2001). This is the aspect of motivations where gender differences are most often found, and the one study that uses the same study as adopted here.

³⁵ Highest score possible is 28.

³⁶ Results not reported for each gender, but employment rated 3.8 overall. No statistical difference reported, so the assumption is that this is not a gender difference.

The second item here which shows gender differences is business owners or entrepreneurs is being motivated by a 'challenge' (Scott, 1986; Still & Soutar, 2001) and, as noted above, this is of a different nature to the categories of recognition and achievement. In these cases, gender differences are found where women are more motivated by a desire for a challenge than men (Scott, 1986), but this contradicts Still & Soutar's (2001) later result which shows men are more motivated than women by meeting new challenges. Again, the results from this category (achievement, recognition, challenge) offer little conclusive answers on whether gender differences exist, and if they do exist, the direction of the gender difference.

3.3.8 Ideas/Opportunity/Innovation

Having an idea, or seeing an opportunity or innovation is the final category of factors that appears in the literature on the motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur. Several authors (Hisrich & Brush, 1986; Kim, 1996; Lee-Gosselin & Grisé, 1990; Rashid, 1996; Schreier, 1975; Vokins, 1993) find some women who saw and seized an opportunity to become an entrepreneur.

Table 3. 7 Ideas/opportunity/innovation as a motivating factor

Factor	Author	Women	Men	Significance	
Develop ideas	Shane et al., 1991	2.21 2.83 3.00	2.03 2.57 2.20	p<.05	Entrepreneurs
New Zealand					
Norway					
Britain					
Be innovative		2.00 1.38 2.00	2.17 2.01 2.18	p<.05	
New Zealand					
Norway					
Britain					
More opportunity to be creative	McGregor & Tweed, 2000*	33.3%	45.4%	1.000	Owners
Identify gap in market		24.1%	23.3%	.655	
Make most of commercial opportunity	Fox, 1998	39.4%	50%		
Develop Hobby	Marlow, 1997*	11%	0%	.118	
Take advantage of skills	Borooah et al, 1997*	4.3%	4.1%	.650	
Self-realisation, ideas, knowledge	Sundin & Holmquist, 1991*	26%	42%	1.000	
Opportunity	Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986*	3%	9.8%	.314	
Test ideas	Scott, 1986*	17%	0%	.000	
Had been hobby or skill	Greenfield & Nayak, 1992*	30.6%	22.5%	.338	

* Indicates that the author of this thesis performed statistical tests.

As the title of this grouping of motivating factors suggests, it includes three sub-themes – ideas, innovation and taking opportunities. Beginning with entrepreneurs, women in Britain are more motivated than men by ‘developing ideas’ (Shane et al., 1991). On the other hand, the gender differences for being innovative show the opposite trend, where men in Norway are more motivated than women to be innovative. This proves to be a statistically significant gender difference for entrepreneurs in Norway, but not in Britain or New Zealand. These mixed findings lend further support to these authors’ contentions that there are no universal motivations for starting a business (Shane et al., 1991).

The ‘owner’ category unveils only one statistically significant gender difference, where 17% of women want to test their ideas, while in comparison, no men did (Scott, 1986). For the ‘opportunity’ theme of this factor, the remaining motivating factors locate no gender differences. However, this category involves several slightly different concepts, such as seeing an opportunity (Fox, 1998; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986), and other

factors such as developing a hobby (Marlow, 1997) and taking advantage of skills (Borooah et al., 1997). This factor (ideas, innovation and opportunities) sheds no more light than the other motivating factors that precede it. There remain some gender differences, but as other categories also show, the direction of gender differences makes the results inconsistent and inconclusive.

3.3.8 Summary of motivating factors

The literature presented so far in this chapter offers mixed results on whether women and men's motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur differ. When revisiting Table 3.1, it is clear that the majority of these gender comparative studies can be classed as positivist, where they undertake to test whether gender differences exist using quantitative methods. This chapter also illustrates that much of this prior literature is overly descriptive, with few studies offering explanations of their findings. Given that this study is concerned with theory building, the positivist nature of many earlier studies is a concern, as little attempt has been made to explore motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur from different perspectives. Thus, a constructivist perspective potentially allows further insights into explaining the nature of any gender differences in motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur. Those authors that do go on to develop or build on theory are primarily from studies of women entrepreneurs (rather than gender comparative studies) and are outlined in brief next.

3.4 Theories of entrepreneurs/business owners' motivations

One component of the research problem I address in this thesis concerns a lack of theory development in the prior literature. Theory development has not been the aim of many of the studies outlined in this chapter and, indeed, in other areas of entrepreneurship literature (Brush, 1992). Brush (1992) goes on to suggest that the results of her review of the literature finds that one-third of all published studies do not make it clear which (if any) theory the study is connected to, nor do they discuss whether their study is intended to be exploratory or designed to generate theory.

In relation to studies concerned with the motivation for becoming a business owner or an entrepreneur, few attempts have been made to develop theories from the gender comparative studies. Comparing women and men directly in the sample appears to be an ideal environment for producing theory. However, the key theories of motivations that do exist appear largely to have emerged from studies of women business owners and entrepreneurs, and these are generally related in some way to the push-pull theory of motivations. A word of caution is in order here, as several of these studies appear to oversimplify motivations, and I have noted previously that motivations are more akin to a web of interrelated factors (Hisrich & Brush, 1984; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Nagarajan et al., 1995).

3.4.1 Push-pull theory

A common categorisation resulting from studies of motivations to start up a business has been to group them into either 'push' or 'pull' factors (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Hakim, 1989; Saxon, 1994; Stevenson, 1986; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). Push factors are characterised by personal or external factors (including a marriage break-up, being passed over for promotion), while pull factors are those that draw people to start businesses (seeing an opportunity) (Hakim, 1989).

While 'push' and 'pull' factors remain to be used as a means of classifying motivations, others have used similarly opposing views such as 'autonomy' (pull) and 'economic necessity' (push) (Bogenhold & Staber, 1991), or the categories business (pull) and necessity (push) used by the GEM studies (Frederick et al., 2002). Along similar lines, an English study provides two broad categories of women entrepreneurs - 'entrepreneurs-in-waiting', and a 'change triggered by dissatisfaction and disillusionment with organisation'. Entrepreneurs in waiting are similar to 'pull' motivations. Their stories told of being their own boss, and wanting autonomy, independence and individualism, and control and flexibility. The other category (push) showed that women left organisations because of a feeling of dissatisfaction or disillusionment within the organisation (Mallon & Cohen, 2001).

Brush (1990) offers a different explanation of why women become business owners or entrepreneurs and suggests that there are two approaches to business creation for women. The first is a 'deliberate' approach, and the second is an 'evolutionary' approach. With the deliberate approach, growth is a goal for many, performance is measured in economic terms, and often the business is arranged hierarchically. These women are often young, single, educated women who have corporate experience. The evolutionary approach is a comparatively more informal way of business creation. A common goal is to fill a niche market while providing an income that supports the owner and her family. Often these women have started the business from a hobby. However, Nagarajan et al. (1995) have gone on to question the applicability of Brush's (1990) categories. In their sample of 22 case studies of successful Canadian women entrepreneurs, for one-third of the women, motivations were a combination of several factors that, over time, led to a start-up decision. They find that the women do not easily fit into one of these categories or the other, and raises questions of how appropriate the deliberate/evolutionary dichotomy is (Nagarajan et al., 1995).

Another similar type of theory suggests that women business owners and entrepreneurs can be viewed in two distinct phases – traditional and non-traditional. Others prescribe that there are two distinct phases of women entrepreneurs, the first generation (traditional, focused on domestic types of services and skills) and the second generation (non-traditional). The first generation entrepreneur is defined as someone who starts a business in wholesale and retail sales, communication, education and real-estate (Hisrich & O'Brien, 1982). Similarly, Buttner (1993) finds women entrepreneurs fit such a typology. Second generation entrepreneurs engage in businesses that are involved in design, art, architecture, manufacturing, finance, insurance or construction, and other consultants (Buttner, 1993). Moore (1987) tests this hypothesis and finds differences between the two. First generation women entrepreneurs have difficulty in gaining finance, and require more managerial training. The second generation women entrepreneurs are more focused on money and intent on planning (Moore, 1987) and have skills and knowledge gained from their employment in large organisations, something that first entrepreneurs did not have (Buttner, 1993). Hisrich & O'Brien's (1982) study also finds that women in non-traditional businesses have higher sales than those in traditional businesses.

3.4.2 Typologies of entrepreneurs

Other attempts at theory development have focused on typologies. While these typologies are often not solely based upon motivations to start a business, they nevertheless encompass some aspects of this. For example, many of the typologies include other characteristics of entrepreneurs. Debate exists around whether typologies can be theories. Some suggest not and that, in fact, typologies are often mistaken for classifications (Doty & Glick, 1994). There have been a number of attempts at classifying or grouping entrepreneurs into typologies (Hornaday, 1982). While authors may attempt to categorise entrepreneurs, Nagarajan et al. (1995) suggest that, for women (and indeed male entrepreneurs presumably), such motivations “are complex and cannot be neatly categorised” (pg 69), suggesting that the usefulness of such typologies may be limited. Others suggest studies that produce typologies or profiles of the typical woman entrepreneur may also be problematic as “this kind of analysis misses the diverse nature of female entrepreneurs and further enhances stereotypical notions” (Stevenson, 1990: 442). Some typologies of business owners and entrepreneurs are briefly discussed here, as are typologies of women business owners and entrepreneurs (where many typologies have emerged from). Some typologies of entrepreneurs are summarised in Table 3.8. These studies are deliberately listed in chronological order as a means of viewing how the typologies have changed over time.

Table 3. 8 Typologies of business owners/entrepreneurs

Authors	Types	Authors...	Types...
Collins & Moore, 1964	Entrepreneur Business Hierarch	Woo, Dunkelberg & Cooper, 1988	Craft Optimistic
Smith, 1967	Craftsman Opportunistic	Dubini, 1988	Self actualizer Negative circumstances Followers of family tradition
Stanworth & Curran, 1973	Artisan Classical Manager	Carter & Cannon, 1988*	Drifters Young achievers High achievers Returners traditionalists
Dilley, House and Kerr, 1976	Craft Promotion Administrative	Cromie & Hayes, 1988*	Innovators Dualists Returners
Chandler, 1977	Craftsman Entrepreneur Professional manager	Still, 1990*	Solo operators Owner controllers Owner directors Partners
Dunkelberg & Cooper, 1982	Craftsman Independence/growth	Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995*	Need achiever Pragmatic managerial
Lavoie, 1984*	Sponsored Young college educated Social	Still & Timms, 2000*	Necessity Interest Growth Fire in belly, rapid growth
Goffee & Scase, 1985*	Conventional Innovative Domestic Radical	Mallon & Cohen, 2001*	Entrepreneur in waiting Dissatisfaction with organisation
Stevenson & Sahlman, 1986	Promoter Trustee	Orhan & Scott, 2001*	Dynastic compliance No other choice Entrepreneur by chance Natural succession Forced entrepreneurship Informed entrepreneur Pure entrepreneur

* denotes typology is from a study of women business owners or entrepreneurs.

Sources: (Carter & Cannon, 1988; Cromie & Hayes, 1988; Dubini, 1988; Goffee & Scase, 1985; Hornaday, 1990; Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Orhan & Scott, 2001; Smith, 1967; Stanworth & Curran, 1973; Still, 1990; Still & Timms, 2000).

It is not the purpose of this thesis to detail all types of entrepreneurs, as Hornaday (1990) already provides a good review of such typologies. There have been numerous attempts to distinguish types of women business owners and entrepreneurs. While it is perhaps dangerous to imply that all women business owners and entrepreneurs are homogenous (Carter, 1989; Carter & Cannon, 1992), a danger arises when attempting to categorise them. Therefore, this thesis concurs with Nagarajan et al (1995) when they suggest that developing typologies might not be a productive exercise, as motivations for becoming an entrepreneur are diverse.

The typologies presented in Table 3.8 are primarily based on British studies of business owners and entrepreneurs (Carter & Cannon, 1988; Cromie, 1987a; Goffee & Scase, 1985; Mallon & Cohen, 2001). Goffee & Scase (1985) present the earliest, and perhaps still one of the most comprehensive typologies of women entrepreneurs. This typology is based on the experiences of 54 women. They propose that there are four 'types' of women entrepreneurs – conventional, innovative, domestic and radical. The typology is based on two factors: women's attachment to conventional entrepreneurship, and their acceptance of conventional gender roles rather than psychological characteristics. The authors suggest conventional type women probably make up the majority of women entrepreneurs (Goffee & Scase, 1985). Because of its depth and continued significance in the literature, the four types are now outlined in brief, and are followed with a brief overview of subsequent typologies of women entrepreneurs.

Firstly, innovative entrepreneurs are those who attract most attention from media, and are often highlighted in order to demonstrate how women can be successful in an "overwhelmingly man's world" (Goffee & Scase, 1985:61). Many have encountered discrimination and the glass ceiling in their careers. The women try to overcome these barriers by going into business for themselves. They achieve their success through male-stipulated criteria of business (Goffee & Scase, 1985). The second type is the conventional businesswomen, and is typically those women who have always started their own businesses (such as hairdressers, secretarial services, agencies, and retail outlets). Some of the women are self-employed with no employees, or have a small number of staff. The women in this group are strongly attached to the conventional female role (Goffee & Scase, 1985).

The third type is named the radical proprietors, who have co-ownership and a low commitment to entrepreneurial ideals and to conventional female roles. The enterprises are a variety of legal forms, including co-operatives and partnerships. Start-up is not geared towards self-advancement or to profit making but is directed towards collective feminist goals (Goffee & Scase, 1985). Finally, domestic traders are usually not committed to profit making. They are geared towards achieving personal goals that can't be attained through paid employment. The type of business these women start typically involves pottery, dressmaking, or floral arrangement. Their motives may be associated with self-fulfilment, exercising creative skills or for personal autonomy. Their main priority is to the needs of their families. Many of these businesses are only viable because of the husband's backup finances (Goffee & Scase, 1985). Others have continued to spend time developing typologies, and sometimes build upon this study.

Cromie & Hayes (1988) typology is similar to Goffee & Scase's (1985), and the main difference was an absence of any 'radicals' in their sample. This appears to depend somewhat on the sample selection and size. Cromie & Hayes' (1988) sample was 34 women, compared to 54 in Goffee & Scase's (1985) work, it is possible that with their larger sample, more classifications could be made of different types of women.

Carter & Cannon (1988) follow with five 'ideal' types of women entrepreneurs. They were drifters, young achievers, high achievers, returners and traditionalists. Drifters were young women under age 25 and their businesses were characterised by change. Young achievers were well educated, having moved from their education to proprietorship. The high achievers had high career aspirations and typically were older with more career experiences. Many had children or some had no intention of having children. The returners are similar to previous categories such as Goffee & Scase's (1985) domestic traders and Cromie & Hayes (1988)'s returner category, with women coming back from a period of childbearing and child raising. Traditionalists often had no intention to grow and did not change their businesses as the other types did (Carter & Cannon, 1988).

Studies in the mid 1990s (Langan-Fox & Roth, 1995; Lavoie, 1988) both present somewhat different typologies, perhaps indicating a more educated entrepreneur, one which may not be children oriented, and one with higher need for achievement than in the past. Lavoie (1984) found three types of women entrepreneurs - the sponsored entrepreneur (mentored), the young college-educated entrepreneur, and the social entrepreneur. Langan-Fox & Roth (1995) developed a typology from 60 women entrepreneurs in Australia. Their analysis showed three psychological types of women entrepreneurs – the need achiever, the pragmatic and the managerial entrepreneur, supporting McClelland's (1961) research. Most recently, Mallon & Cohen (2001) presented two categories of British women entrepreneurs, the 'entrepreneurs-in-waiting', and one who left employment because of a 'change triggered by dissatisfaction and disillusionment with organisation'. As this discussion of various theories and typologies of women business owners and entrepreneurs shows, they vary widely and again highlight the difficulties that differences in definitions and sample compositions cause. The typologies and theories are difficult to compare and contrast because of differences in the definitions and sample compositions.

3.5 Conclusion

After analysing the gender comparative literature regarding the motivations for becoming a business owner or an entrepreneur, more questions are raised than answers provided. However, this provides the opportunity to add to this body of research by offering a new perspective and a tighter focus on problem areas such as definitions. In the early 1990s, Brush (1992) noted that differences in motivations between men and women entrepreneurs had not been fully explained in the research. One would still have to concur with her view over 10 years later, as there is much research reported in the literature, but few attempts have been made to explain gender differences in motivations for becoming a business owner or entrepreneur.

Theories of why gender differences exist in terms of what motivates people to become business owners or entrepreneurs are also limited. The few reviewed in this chapter are often typologies or models that offer ideal types or are limited to two categories of motivations (eg. push versus pull). In this review of the empirical literature and the

resulting theories of entrepreneurs' motivations, it can be concluded that much can be learnt from being more concerned about theory development, and less concerned about contributing only additional statistical results to the field. This thesis therefore concerns itself with both adding empirically to the field, but focuses primarily on developing theory that may help explain gender differences in motivations to become an entrepreneur. These two goals are achieved by utilising two distinct paradigms in relation to the research methodology, and this is the focus of Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter sets out the multiple paradigmatic research methodology that I undertake to apply to the research problem first identified in Chapter One. I begin this chapter by discussing the differences between paradigms in social science research, and the resulting assumptions each paradigm makes about the nature of reality and grounds of knowledge (ontology and epistemology). Next, the multiple paradigm approach used in this research is discussed. One subtask I have in this chapter is to show how and what can a multiple paradigm research methodology offer the entrepreneurship literature. Furthermore, the two particular paradigms that I use in this thesis (positivism and constructivism) can also be strengthened by using some basic tenets of feminist research methodologies and these are discussed. The second subtask that I undertake to address in this chapter is to show how these two particular paradigms have been (and can be) used in entrepreneurship research.

4.2 Paradigms in social science research

The choice and use of research methods is one that is secondary to that of paradigms, but it is essential that there is a good fit between paradigms and methods (Pawson, 2000; Silverman, 2000). A paradigm is defined as “the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994 :195), and acts as a map for researchers in “negotiating the subject area” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 :24). Paradigms are concerned with the ontological and epistemological assumptions of research (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality, and epistemology involves the assumptions that can be made about the “grounds of knowledge” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 :1). Since Burrell & Morgan’s (1979) early work, there has been continued discussion around paradigms and

the philosophy of social science (Guba, 1990; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Harding, 1986; Pfeffer, 1993; Phillips, 1987; Rosenberg, 1995). Regardless of its age, their framework is often cited with respect to gender and organisations (Hearn & Parkin, 1992; Mills, 1992) and offers four paradigms for analysing social theory, where each paradigm is a distinct “entity”, which defines “fundamentally different perspectives” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 :23). However, I note that more contemporary work may differ in its emphasis (for a review of social theories, see, for example, Ritzer, 2003), such as environmental sociology (Goldman & Schurman, 2000).

While Burrell & Morgan (1979 :22) focus on four paradigms (interpretive, functionalist, radical humanist and radical structuralist), the two most relevant for my purposes are the interpretive and functionalist dimensions. Table 4.1 shows where various paradigms can be positioned within these interpretive-functionalist paradigms, and their differing ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions. The following two sections present a necessarily brief overview of these two paradigms before focusing more specifically on the two paradigms that underlie this study (Sections 4.5 and 4.6).

Table 4. 1 Basic beliefs of differing paradigms

	Functionalism	Interpretivism	
	Positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism
Ontology	Naïve realism	Historical realism	Relativism
Epistemology	Objectivist, findings true	Transactional/subjectivist, value mediated findings	Transactional/subjectivist, created findings
Methodology	Experimental, manipulative, Quantitative,	Dialogic/dialectical	Hermeneutical, dialectical

(adapted from Guba & Lincoln, 1994: 203)

4.2.1 Positivism/Functionalism

One of Burrell & Morgan's (1979) paradigms is functionalism (also commonly referred to as positivism/postpositivism³⁷, the terms used for the remainder of this thesis). While there may be many variations on positivism such as logical positivism and Comtean positivism (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Phillips, 1990), in general, the aim of positivism is to predict and control, in pursuit of the 'truth' (Guba, 1990), or to generate causal laws (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Positivism's ontology has a focus on realism, which assumes reality is out there, "driven by immutable natural laws" (Guba, 1990 :19). Positivism has an objectivist epistemology, where the researcher adopts a 'distant, noninteractive posture" (Guba, 1990 :20). Research methods that derive from this paradigm include experimental and manipulative methodologies, with a focus on quantitative methods (Guba, 1990).

Positivism's roots lie in the natural sciences, and its basic principles have been transferred into the social sciences (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Harding, 1986; Rosenberg, 1995). Burrell & Morgan (1979) suggest two reasons why positivism may be problematic when applied outside of the natural sciences. Firstly, a recognition has been made that "human values intruded upon the process of science" (pg 228) and, secondly, that using methods from natural science has a focus on establishing general laws, and that these cannot necessarily be applied to fields outside of the natural sciences (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Despite suggestions that positivism has unravelled (Rosenberg, 1995), is on shaky grounds (Johnson & Duberley, 2000), and is untenable (Phillips, 1990), positivism is regarded as 'conventional' (Guba, 1990).

Positivism is the mainstream approach (often implicitly) for organisational theory (Gioia & Pitre, 1990); including management (Curran & Blackburn, 2001; Harris, 2000; Johnson & Duberley, 2000), entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2003; Grant & Perren, 2002) and

³⁷ Some refer to postpositivism as any research that is not classed as positivist (Carson, Gilmore, Perry, & Gronhaug, 2001). In contrast, Guba & Lincoln (1994) use the term postpositivism as a slight shift away from positivism. For them, postpositivism is an attempt to overcome the perceived weaknesses of positivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), while still remaining positivism's "intellectual cousin", with the goal still being prediction and control (Guba, 1990 :369).

small business research (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). Entrepreneurship research has been largely positivist, acting as “a barrier to other perspectives” (Grant & Perren, 2002: 185). The entrepreneurship literature in general has been concerned primarily with theory testing, focusing on quantitative methodologies, employing survey instruments (Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992; Carter, 1993; Chandler & Lyon, 2001; Moore, 1990; Roessl, 1991; Woodliff, Watson, Newby, & McDowell, 1999) or mail questionnaires in combination with interviews (Churchill & Lewis, 1986; Wortman Jnr, 1986). Similarly, in relation to research on women entrepreneurs, much of the data collection has also been by questionnaires (Brush & Vanderwerf, 1992; Carter, 1993; Moore, 1990). The majority of studies of motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur have been quantitative, offering a deductive approach to research, largely concerned with testing hypotheses (Borooah et al., 1997; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991).

4.2.2 Interpretivism

In contrast to positivism is the interpretive paradigm, which emerged from a German idealist tradition (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). An interpretive paradigm is a useful umbrella term for non-positivistic philosophies, such as phenomenology, postmodernism, ethnomethodology, natural inquiry and hermeneutics (Burrell & Morgan, 1979; Carson et al., 2001; Rosenberg, 1995). Some researchers argue that all research is interpretive (Gummesson, 2003). The aim of research within an interpretive paradigm is to “understand the subjective experience of individuals” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 :253), and explain the “point of view of the actors directly involved in a social process” (Burrell & Morgan, 1979 :227). An interpretive methodology also regards the social environment as an extension of the experiences of the individuals involved (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). An interpretive paradigm’s ontology suggests that there is no single reality, it has an epistemology of understanding through perceived knowledge, and relies on qualitative methods, with a view towards understanding and interpreting the research area (Carson et al., 2001).

Returning to Guba & Lincoln’s (1994) framework of differing paradigm positions (see Table 4.1), within an interpretive paradigm, there are a number of different choices that

can be made as to the position a researcher takes. The first position is known as critical theory. The term critical theory is used here to encompass neo-Marxism, feminism, materialism and participatory inquiry. Indeed, critical theory could have been used for this research, but I have more attachment to a constructivism position (discussed in Section 4.6).

4.3 Using multiple paradigms

The previous discussion in Section 4.2 highlights the distinct differences in the worldviews of the differing research paradigms. While some believe that the positivist-interpretive paradigms are incommensurable (Burrell & Morgan, 1979), others suggest it is possible to ‘bridge’ multiple paradigms³⁸, while recognising each paradigm’s different world views and assumptions (Gioia et al., 1989; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Kelemen & Hassard, 2003). While a multiple paradigm approach may be “provocative” (Lewis & Grimes, 1999 :672), it offers “the possibility of creating fresh insights because they start from different ontological and epistemological assumptions” (Gioia & Pitre, 1990 :591, their emphasis).

It is important to note that a multiple paradigm approach must not be confused with triangulation³⁹. A multiple paradigm approach is an expanded form of triangulation (Gioia et al., 1989; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Lewis & Grimes, 1999), to view a phenomenon from different methodological viewpoints (Brewer & Hunter, 1989). This research can be characterised as a multiple paradigmatic study. In other words, I use different lenses (Kelemen & Hassard, 2003) to study the same phenomena and a subset of the same people. Similar multiple paradigm research perspectives have been used in various other organisational studies (Lewis & Grimes, 1999), such as appraisal (Gioia et al., 1989), and emotional display (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988), but these have not been utilised in entrepreneurship research (Grant & Perren, 2002).

³⁸ A multiple paradigm approach is also referred to as epistemological and methodological pluralism (Curran & Blackburn, 2001), or paradigm plurality (Kelemen & Hassard, 2003).

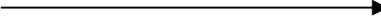
³⁹ There are several common types of triangulation, such as; between or within methods (Denzin, 1970; Jick, 1979), data triangulation (Denzin, 1970), or the use of multiple investigators or theoretical approaches (Denzin, 1970; Thurmond, 2001).

4.3.1 Sequential multiple paradigms

A multiple paradigm approach can be conducted in a sequential fashion (Gioia et al., 1989; Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Lewis & Grimes, 1999), where the outputs of one paradigm (in this case, positivist) provides inputs into a subsequent study (constructivist) (Lewis & Grimes, 1999). This sequential approach to multiple paradigm research advocates an itinerary approach (Lewis & Grimes, 1999), where there is a planned order of paradigm use. It recognises that paradigms remain separate at a philosophical level (Curran & Blackburn, 2001), and that the conventions and rigours of both paradigms are preserved (Kelemen & Hassard, 2003). The methodological approach to addressing the research problem is best presented in the following table (Table 4.2), which sets out a summary of the research approach, and the two paradigms', theoretical perspectives and methods utilised in this thesis.

Table 4. 2 A sequential multiple paradigm approach

Paradigm	Positivist	Constructivist
Theoretical perspectives	Integrated perspective (Sociological and psychological foundations)	
Methods	Quantitative - Mail survey	Qualitative - Semi-structured interviews of a subset of respondents to the mail survey
Primary purpose	To establish relationship with prior literature	Theory development
How addressed	Research Question One	Research Questions Two-four


 Sequential approach

(adapted from Gioia et al., 1989)

In terms of research outcomes, a multiple paradigm approach offers the possibility of 'comprehensiveness' and 'completeness' (Gioia & Pitre, 1990), and aims to identify similarities and differences with other paradigmatic approaches. Given the recognition of the inherent differences between the two paradigms, it cannot be expected that different paradigms will generate the same 'answers', as using multiple paradigms is

analogous to being on the same search, but leading to different ends (Lincoln, 1990). These outcomes of comprehensiveness and completeness are in stark contrast to the goals of more traditional methodological triangulation, which aims for ‘confirmation’ (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001; Gummesson, 1991; Jick, 1979), or the pursuit of ‘accuracy’ (Gioia & Pitre, 1990). Some positivists would go as far as discarding both sets of results of methodological triangulation if they are not congruent, because they may both be ‘biased’ (Brewer & Hunter, 1989; Cavana et al., 2001).

However, there are various problems with pursuing a multiple paradigm approach that must be acknowledged. Some of these relate to practicalities, where a researcher must have training in both paradigms, and it may be demanding on the researcher in terms of moral strain (Kelemen & Hassard, 2003). Perhaps the more substantive concern that Kelemen & Hassard (2003) note involves the difficulties researchers may have in changing their world view from one paradigm to the next. I purposefully keep the descriptions of each paradigm separate in the remainder of this chapter, in order to overcome any tendency to cross between the methodological traditions of the two paradigms. As mentioned earlier, it is useful to point out the parallels that this research has to feminist methodologies and these are outlined next.

4.4 Feminist methodologies

The overarching objective of feminist research has been said to be to “capture women’s lived experiences in a respectful manner that legitimates women’s voices as sources of knowledge” (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :783) This chapter has so far explored some basic paradigmatic stances in social science research. However, I must also refer back to the role that gender plays in this thesis, and it is essential to illustrate that the paradigms and methods used for this work are suited to studies investigating gender. However, while there may be an overall objective that many feminist researchers share, there is much more to be said about different feminist research approaches. Although researching gender issues is sometimes seen as a “difficult subject area” methodologically (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :11), there are various guiding philosophies that researchers can use. The three commonly purported feminist

research approaches are feminist empiricism (the ‘gender as a variable perspective’), feminist standpoint research and postmodernism (poststructuralism) (Alvesson & Billing, 1997; Harding, 1987; Olesen, 1998), and I briefly outline the foundations of these research approaches as this chapter progresses.

While there is much disagreement amongst feminists regarding their beliefs and principles (eg. radical, liberal), Harstock (1998) suggests there is a methodology that is common amongst feminists. Thus, she believes that feminism can be thought of as a “mode of analysis, a method of approaching life and politics, rather than a set of political conclusions about the oppression of women” (pg 35). Alvesson & Billing (1997) continue with this line of thought, and suggest a common way of classifying different positions on gender is the researchers understanding of knowledge (ontological and epistemological assumptions). These assumptions about knowledge impact on the appropriate methods researchers employ to study gender and are perhaps more useful for the purposes of this thesis than entering into an extensive debate about different strands of feminism (Campbell & Wasco, 2000).

I find DeVault’s (1996) categorisation of what feminist methodologies share most useful, but am aware that others propose different points. She notes the shared commitments recognise and reflect on the emotionality of women’s lives (Campbell & Wasco, 2000), minimise hierarchical relationships (Campbell & Wasco, 2000), facilitate trust (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). Other goals include bringing women into research, and to minimise harm and control in research process (DeVault, 1996). Continuing with the earlier debate about the use of multiple paradigms, using multiple feminist research perspectives (feminist empiricism, feminist standpoint research and postmodernism) is possible at a theoretical level, while bearing in mind the different world-views that each approach has (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). Both paradigms used in this research is outlined next and where relevant, I show how they borrow from feminist methodologies.

4.5 Paradigm One: Positivism (Feminist empiricism)

The first paradigm I apply in this thesis is clearly a positivist one, and can be considered to fall under the feminist empiricist classification. In Chapter Two, I outlined in brief the different strands of feminism. As Alvesson & Billing (1997) proposed earlier, a further way of classifying gender positions is by various ontological and epistemological positions. Firstly, some feminist researchers use variable research (often the dominant mode of research in many fields). This approach is known as ‘gender-as-a variable approach’ (Alvesson & Billing, 1997) (also referred to as “body counting” (Alvesson & Billing, 2002) or a feminist empiricist approach (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). This approach is in many ways similar to the beliefs of positivism and indeed focuses on research being scientific, objective and neutral (referred to as gender-conscious positivism) (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). Liberal feminists do not advocate major modifications to scientific research methods, but believe that sexist bias must be removed (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). However, this approach has been criticised in a number of ways (Alvesson & Billing, 1997), particularly by some feminists who critique the positivist nature of most science as being androcentric (Gilligan, 1982; Harding, 1986).

While this approach is positivist, it nevertheless attempts to compare women and men, while noting that women have sometimes been “disregarded women as a category” (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :24). Quantitative research is most common in feminist empiricist research method (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). Such an approach is appropriate in the first instance to establish (using a similar methodological paradigm to that of prior studies) whether there are gender differences in this sample in relation to the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. This allows one to compare and contrast the findings from this study with previous literature. In support of using a feminist empiricist approach in the first instance, Alvesson & Billing (1997) suggest that studies that can be classed under the feminist empiricist banner are often concerned with “imitating established ideas and models in social science without adding very much in terms of novelty or taking more sophisticated ideas on gender into account” (pg 28). Indeed, this is the deliberate stance taken with respect to the first paradigm, where the goal is comparison with prior research. What a feminist empiricist paradigm does seek

to do however, is to make theories less “susceptible to gender bias” (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :781).

Feminist empiricists seek to use fair research methods, and to only attempt to generalise to both women and men if both were studied (Campbell & Wasco, 2000). As stated in Chapter One, this has been a continued problem regarding gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, so addressing this is of high priority. However, feminist empiricism, while useful for addressing the question of the existence of gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, is not able to capture the nature and dynamics of any gender differences, or explore these motivations from a wider social context. Feminist empiricist approaches to research have been criticised for having a naive view of language being able to produce objectivity through methods (largely questionnaires). Other critiques of these approaches relate to the “artificial nature of the empirical material” (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :26). Finally, problems with this approach regard “social totality and critical evaluation” and the “researcher objectifying and controlling the research subject” exist (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :27). In light of these criticisms of feminist empiricism, it must be considered that such a paradigm is a starting point for further research, and a constructivist (feminist standpoint) paradigm allows a greater ability to work towards understanding more about the nature of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

4.6 Paradigm Two: Constructivism (Feminist standpoint)

This second paradigm can be classed as constructivist. Constructivists believe there are a number of problems with a positivistic paradigm (Guba, 1990), and here I continue with Guba’s (1990) paradigm dialogue to describe the constructivist paradigm’s basic epistemological and ontological beliefs. Constructivists believe that research is theory laden, and that ‘facts’ are only so within a theoretical framework (Hesse, 1980, cited in Guba, 1990). Secondly, a constructivist approach suggests that there are a number of differing theories available to a researcher, and each may offer a different ‘explanation’ of the phenomenon. Thus, ““reality” can be “seen” only through a window of theory, whether implicit or explicit” (Guba, 1990: 25). Constructivism also disputes the idea that inquiry is value free, and suggests that many constructions are possible (Guba,

1990). Finally, constructivists suggest that objectivity is an impossible outcome, and that it is the interaction between the inquirer and the inquired into that shapes research. Therefore, knowledge itself is a human construction in the view of a constructivist (Guba, 1990).

Following the problems constructivists have with positivist approaches, it is not surprising that the relevant ontology, epistemology and methods depart from these to present an alternative paradigm. Constructivists “construct the ‘world’ at the only point that it exists: in the minds of constructors” (Guba, 1990 :27, his emphasis). Constructivists believe in a relativist ontology, where there is no one truth, but several interpretations can be made within an inquiry. While the boundary between ontology and epistemology in constructivism is blurred, a subjectivist epistemology is the position taken by constructivists, where the inquirer and inquired are “fused into a single (monistic) entity” (Guba, 1990 :27). From these ontological and epistemological foundations, it follows then that constructivists also prefer a focus on qualitative methods (Guba, 1990).

While I also use the heading ‘feminist standpoint’ in brackets, I hasten to add that few researchers actually use this standpoint in full (Dougherty & Krone, 2000). Nevertheless I attempt to use the basic principles of feminist standpoint research in this section (for a review, see McCarl Nielsen, 1990), but deliberately put this in brackets as I cannot claim to ‘fully’ use such a standpoint. While some liberal feminists suggest that positivist approaches to research such as feminist empiricism are acceptable as feminist research, other strands of feminism (radical, socialist) suggest that research methods should be changed to develop “uniquely feminist approaches to science” (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :778). Indeed, Alvesson & Billing (1997) note that unlike positivist approaches to research, “the major contribution of gender studies is not to establish the truth once and for all” (pg 11).

Thus, a feminist standpoint research approach is most aligned towards an interpretive paradigm and is outlined next⁴⁰. Feminist standpoint perspectives' foundations lie with gender being seen as a "fundamental organizing principle of patriarchal society; social relations (of all kinds) are heavily structured by hierarchical differences in the social position of men and women" (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :29). Thus, women and men are likely to have different experiences because of this patriarchal situation. The feminist standpoint is most closely linked to radical and socialist strands of feminism and the purpose of a feminist standpoint is to "contribute to emancipation from oppressive social conditions" (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :29). Feminist standpoint theory uses a variety of research methods (Campbell & Wasco, 2000), but because of the desire for understanding personal experiences, qualitative methods are often preferred avenues for data collection (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). However, some researchers suggest that there is no single method most appropriate for feminist standpoint research and that this is one of the strengths of such a research perspective (Dougherty & Krone, 2000). Three particular points I take from feminist standpoint approaches are outlined next.

4.6.1 Gender comparisons

While some feminist standpoint perspective researchers would question whether making gender comparisons is useful (Alvesson & Billing, 1997), in this thesis I do so because while there is much said about 'gender' in entrepreneurship research, few studies have attempted to compare women and men entrepreneurs directly in relation to their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. In this thesis, the decision to make comparisons between women and men was made for a number of reasons. Firstly, I

⁴⁰ A further research standpoint is postmodern/poststructuralist feminism rejects the feminist empiricist and feminist standpoint approaches as being in pursuit of a 'truth', and "questions the very idea of finding a universal ground for reason, science, progress or even the subject" (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :39). Researchers utilising a postmodern stance have an interest in operating at a higher level than their individual subjects, and is interested in opening dialogue about gender. Postmodern feminist researchers are more inclined to be interested in theoretical and philosophical issues about gender and data collection is often concerned with texts, language, narratives and discourses (Alvesson & Billing, 1997).

purposefully ask questions about both men and women in order to develop a clearer understanding of how gender affects entrepreneurship in terms of “the conditions and constructions which differentiate men from women” (Allen & Truman, 1992 :174). The number of women starting their own businesses has grown significantly, so it is important to understand whether their experiences are different from those of men (Buttner, 1993). In relation to exploring gender differences in entrepreneurship research, Brush (1992) proposes we try to unify these differences using the integrated perspective which “looks at the business through the eyes of women” (Brush, 1992: 16). Similarly, Allen & Truman (1992) agree it is necessary to ask questions about both men and women in order to develop a clearer understanding of how gender affects business owners “in terms of differential participation and the conditions and constructions which differentiate men from women” (pg 174).

Secondly, some feminist writers suggest that because women exist in a “male society”, it is important to examine the part men play in it, and “be concerned with all aspects of social reality and all participants in it” (Stanley & Wise, 1983:30-31). Others have noted that gender comparative research which draws its sample from the same population at the same time avoids “situational or temporal factors that may invalidate comparisons between women studies in one setting at one time and men studied in another setting at another time” (Fischer et al., 1993:166).

4.6.2 Researcher values

Like any piece of research, the researcher sees the problem through a certain paradigm, and it is here I wish to give an overview of my own viewpoint. To this end, a researcher must “come clean about one’s own predispositions” (Guba, 1990 :21) about their own views. This is more succinctly stated by Hurley (1999), who believes that feminist theory is a vehicle for researchers to “come out from behind their façade of value-free research and explicitly put forth values that are implied in their research” (pg 60). Feminist standpoint researchers need to “reflect upon (and share with their readers) how their own social group status influences their interpretations of their data” (Campbell & Wasco, 2000 :782). I write this thesis from the view of a 30-year-old academic with no children. I am particularly interested in the experiences of women

entrepreneurs, but have never been an entrepreneur myself nor have I had a family background of entrepreneurship.

4.6.3 A woman's voice

I borrow again from feminist standpoint research, and aim to write from a woman's perspective. Prominent French feminist Simone de Beauvoir proposes that men are largely treated as the standard from which women are viewed. Women are often viewed as 'other', exhibiting the opposite characteristics and behaviours to men (de Beauvoir, 2000), and the standard against how we measure women (Stevenson, 1990). Indeed, some used the 'other' argument in entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2002). Calas & Smircich (1992b) also resonate with such statements, suggesting we should be aiming to include a women's voice to:

demonstrate the differences between male and female experiences and then position "the different" as another valid form of representing human experience (Calas & Smircich, 1992b :225, their emphasis).

As research participants, women are sometimes said to have double consciousness, where they have knowledge of the male culture in addition to their own (Alvesson & Billing, 1997). Indeed, research from a feminist standpoint perspective is often pro-women and is focused on including the experiences of women as a way of attempting to remove "knowledge bias" (Alvesson & Billing, 1997 :31).

However, using a women's voice is not unproblematic, as Tanton (1994) suggests, she finds it difficult to write "how women are" (pg 10), and refer to men as "other" (see, for example, de Beauvoir, 2000), when the literature has "men's values, style and organisation" as the norm (Tanton, 1994 :10). I am also aware of the potential danger that taking a woman's voice may imply that women's perspectives are better or more accurate than men's, or that they have more potential for the creation of knowledge (McCarl Nielsen, 1990). In addition, it is problematic to assume that 'women' are a homogenous group (Alvesson & Billing, 1997) or their experiences are universal in nature (Dougherty & Krone, 2000). I attempt to overcome issues surrounding this point by focusing on a relatively 'narrow' research group – entrepreneurs, as well as

considering other dimensions such as industry and family status for example (Alvesson & Billing, 1997).

The paradigmatic traditions that the four research questions arise from have been explored in this chapter. These traditions form the basis for designing appropriate research methods with which to address them. The consequences of using multiple paradigms means that the use of multiple methods is also appropriate (Gioia et al., 1989) to investigate the research questions. As discussed, the approach used here is not methodological triangulation within a single paradigm, which may be “in vogue”, but operates at a higher, meta level (Gioia & Pitre, 1990 :596). Using multiple paradigms in a sequential fashion means it is appropriate to present the methods used for each paradigm separately (Stainback & Stainback, 1988; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988). The research questions for this study are as follows:

- 1) Using a positivist paradigm, do statistically significant gender differences exist within the sample in the primary motivations for becoming an entrepreneur?

Using an integrated perspective:

- 2) How do women and men construct and apply the term ‘entrepreneur’?
- 3) Explore potential gender differences in work-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.
- 4) Explore potential gender differences in family-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

4.7 Positivist research process

The purpose of the positivist portion of this research is two-fold. Firstly, and most importantly, it provides an initial view of the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur from which to build the constructivist portion of this research. Secondly, it is designed based on the paradigmatic assumptions of much prior research, to assess whether there are statistically significant gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur for this particular sample. It provides the ability to make comparisons

with existing research in the field. Another outcome of the mail survey is that it provides a means of accessing the names of people willing to cooperate in the interview phase of the research. This is important because of the difficulties in gaining access to names of entrepreneurs.

4.7.1 Survey instrument

As outlined in Chapter Three, much of the research which investigates gender differences in motivations to become an entrepreneur uses mail surveys as a research method (eg. Borooah et al., 1997; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991). A survey instrument was therefore chosen here as the best method of examining Research Question One. The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was deliberately confined to two pages (one piece of A4 paper, double-sided) in an attempt to increase the number of respondents (Mangione, 1995). In particular, it is noted that small business owners and entrepreneurs have limited time, and a substantial amount of information can be gathered in a brief questionnaire (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). The survey contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The closed questions were primarily interested in collecting nominal data that allows categorisation (Janes, 1999). Other questions on the survey use rating scales (eg. income prior to being an entrepreneur was 'more', 'less', or 'about the same').

Given that motivations for becoming an entrepreneur is the primary area of focus of this survey, a discussion on how these questions were developed is important. The literature review in Chapter Three pointed to six key categories of motivations (independence, work, family, money, achievement/recognition/challenge, and ideas/opportunity). The corresponding factors that appear in this survey are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3 Motivating factors in the survey

Literature review classifications	Question as it appears on survey
Independence	Independence Be own boss (eg. Freedom/flexibility)
Work-related motivations	Job satisfaction ⁴¹
Opportunity/ideas	Saw an opportunity. (eg. Saw gap in market)
Money	To make money (eg. To increase income)
Achievement/recognition/challenge	Challenge
Family	⁴²

Respondents were asked to indicate which of the motivation factors on the questionnaire were important to them when they became an entrepreneur. Assumptions are made that if no tick is placed beside the motivating factors, then the respondent was not motivated by this factor⁴³.

4.7.2 Sample selection

Recall that for the purposes of this thesis, an entrepreneur is defined as a person (or group of people) who creates a new business (for profit) and employs at least one other paid employee. However, there is no publicly available database that lists entrepreneurs as defined in this study. Therefore, this led me to look for a larger pool of business owners to be used as an initial sample, in order to be able to identify entrepreneurs (further discussed in Section 4.7.4). This lack of suitable sampling frames is also a common problem in the United Kingdom (Carter & Cannon, 1992; Curran & Blackburn, 2001). For the purposes of this study, ‘business owner’⁴⁴ was the closest match available publicly, and the Business Who’s Who provided an up-to-date source of business owners. Other similar New Zealand studies of motivations to

⁴¹ The work category contains several different motivating factors. For this survey, job satisfaction was selected as a general motivating factor.

⁴² The family question was not included in the mail survey as a motivation question. This was due to the many varied and differing approaches to asking questions about ‘family’ in the literature, and the perceived difficulty of this categorisation.

⁴³ As pointed out by Mangione (1995), this may be problematic, as this type of question cannot distinguish between a ‘no’ response, and someone who missed answering that question.

⁴⁴ In some cases, more than one owner was listed. Only one survey per business was sent. An entrepreneur may own more than one business. For the quantitative and descriptive data and otherwise where relevant, one particular business venture was discussed – the business which was listed in the Business Who’s Who.

become business owners or entrepreneurs that include gender comparisons have used 'government records' (Shane et al., 1991), the Directory of Maori women business owners, and Te Puni Kokiri's (Ministry of Maori Development) list of self-employed Maori (Fox, 1998), and organisations providing advice or assistance to the new venture founder (Pinfold, 2001).

The New Zealand Business Who's Who (2001 edition) lists 22,000 businesses and their owners. This listing has also been used in another New Zealand study into the motivations of business founders (Hamilton, 1987). The Who's Who lists basic information for companies at no charge to them, including the business name, contact details of the owner(s) and start year (in some cases), but charges companies a fee for more comprehensive listings, such as who the company's bankers, auditors, accountants, solicitors and advertising agencies are. The Business Who's Who is sold to customers in a print copy or as an online subscription. For this study, it proved to be a relatively close match to the definition of an entrepreneur used in this thesis, as it emerged that 75.9% of the business owners listed in this book who responded to the survey could be considered 'entrepreneurs' as defined here.

The sample was selected by focusing on several large and medium-sized cities in New Zealand (Auckland, Wellington, Dunedin, Christchurch, Hamilton, Napier, Hastings, Invercargill, Timaru). In total, these cities account for 78% of the total businesses (geographic units) in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2002), and 75.9% of New Zealand's main and secondary urban population (Statistics New Zealand, 2001b). Rural firms were not studied for two reasons. Firstly, they do not form a component of any of the samples in gender comparative studies that are directly compared with this research. Secondly, while 14.9% of New Zealand's population can be classed as rural (Statistics New Zealand, 2001b), it is recognised that their motivations for becoming entrepreneurs may be different from urban entrepreneurs.

Using the Business Who's Who has some limitations. For example, it does not give any indication of the type of industries it encompasses. For this reason, it was important to find criteria with which to assess how representative the sample is. The total number of businesses appears to be the most appropriate measure with which to make

comparisons. The most current statistical records indicate that there are 323,893 businesses classed as ‘total industry’⁴⁵ in New Zealand (Statistics New Zealand, 2001b). Of ‘total industry’, the locations chosen to survey cover 191, 257 of these businesses, or 59% of the total industry in New Zealand. Table 4.4 illustrates the geographic spread of the sample.

Table 4. 4 Geographic spread of sample population

Location	Number listed and mailed	Number mailed as a %	% of ‘total industry’
Auckland	467	50.1	52.5
Wellington	143	15.3	16.6
Christchurch	84	9.0	13.7
Hamilton	82	8.8	5.0
Invercargill	56	6.0	1.9
Hastings/Napier	46	4.9	4.8
Dunedin	46	4.9	4.0
Timaru	8	0.9	1.6
Total	932	100	100

It was possible to ensure that the study represented the location of businesses in New Zealand. Because all businesses listed in the Business Who’s Who in the locations above were sampled, the percentages of businesses mailed and the percentages of businesses in New Zealand are not matched. This indicates that the Business Who’s Who offers a list that is more representative of Auckland than the spread of the total industry measure of businesses. However, these differences are not substantial enough to be of concern.

⁴⁵ Total industry’ is best described as a geographic unit – which is “a separate operating unit engaged in New Zealand in one, or predominately one, kind of economic activity from a single physical location or base” (Statistics New Zealand, 2001b).

4.7.3 Sample criteria

Business owners who started their businesses after 1993 were chosen to ensure adequate recall of their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur⁴⁶. The retrospective nature of this study parallels similar research on entrepreneurs (Carter & Cannon, 1992) and managers (Huber & Power, 1985). In such cases, researchers often only have retrospective accounts to rely on, and there exist potential issues with accuracy of recall in any survey methodology (Mangione, 1995; Reynolds, 1993). Huber & Power (1985) set out to offer solutions to the weaknesses of retrospective reports. Those that are relevant to this research are as follows⁴⁷. It is important to motivate informants to cooperate with the researcher. I was able to provide informants with an undertaking that they would receive preliminary results, in addition to postage paid envelopes (and reminder questionnaires), and an information sheet about the research (Huber & Power, 1985). Disincentives were removed with the promise of anonymity and disguise. In addition, attempts were made to minimise elapsed time between events and data collection. It is expected that the memory of events occurring earlier than 1993 may be difficult to recall, although similar research by Hamilton (1987) suggests that relying on the recall of founders from 10-15 years prior was a weakness of his study, but not a major defect. The final suggestion that I take up from Huber & Power (1985) is to use questions that are pretested without being complex. Because the motivation questions were informed by previous surveys in the area, they could be classed as being pretested.

In August 2001, a mail survey was sent to all businesses that were listed in the Business Who's Who as having started a business since 1993 (in the location listed in Section 4.7.2). This amounted to 932 business owners in New Zealand. As mentioned, a postage paid return envelope was included. A follow-up reminder letter with another questionnaire was mailed two weeks after the initial mailing, as this is often a way to increase response rates for questionnaires in small business research (Dennis, 2003;

⁴⁶ In reality, this year was for the business owner's current business. They may have had other businesses that operated before this date if they owned more than one business. Some 83.3% of the businesses in this sample actually started from 1993 onwards (refer to Appendix C for a complete breakdown of the start year for the respondent's current business).

⁴⁷ Others that are not relevant to entrepreneurs, but feature in these guidelines include: identifying the person most knowledgeable and tandem interviewing, considering how the framing of questions will affect responses, recognising emotional involvement with a topic.

Forsgren, 1989; Mangione, 1995). An additional incentive was provided, in that all respondents were told they would be sent a summary of the results shortly after the responses had been analysed (see Appendix B).

4.7.4 Responses

Of the 932 surveys mailed, 66 were returned undeliverable, indicating that these businesses had most likely closed, as there were no forwarding addresses. The 381 replies received represented a 44% response rate, a respectable percentage given that response rates for small business mail surveys average around 30% (Dennis, 2003). Small business research has been noted as having particularly poor response rates (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). Response rates for similar pieces of research in the gender comparative entrepreneurial motivation area range from a low of 18% (Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986), to 21-28% (Shane et al., 1991) and 38% (Fox, 1998), and a high of 70% for women respondents (Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). The response rate from similar previous research using the Business Who's Who was 53% (Hamilton, 1987). One possible explanation for a lower response rate than this may be due to the increasing documentation requirements placed on business owners (eg. Statistics New Zealand, Inland Revenue, GST reports), since Hamilton's (1987) study. Responses by location are presented below in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5 Responses by location

Location	Number of responses	Response rate (%)	Responses as a % of 381	% of 'total industry'
Auckland	180	38.5	47.2	52.5
Wellington	55	38.5	14.4	16.6
Christchurch	29	34.5	7.6	13.7
Hamilton	28	34.1	7.3	5.0
Invercargill	29	51.8	7.6	1.9
Hastings/Napier	26	56.5	6.8	4.8
Dunedin	28	60.9	7.3	4.0
Timaru	3	37.5	0.8	1.6
	381		100	100

As Table 4.5 indicates, response rates varied between locations, and it is not surprising to see a high response rate from Dunedin and Invercargill (supporting a local university's research) and Hastings/Napier, which may be because they are outside of the main centres, and may not receive a large number of requests to fill in questionnaires. At the other end of the spectrum, relatively low response rates were received from surveys sent to Christchurch. As Auckland was over represented in the sample selection, it is not surprising to note that the percentage of respondents from Auckland was also high. Table 4.5 indicates that the locations surveyed by this study are a relatively good match with the total industry figure (aside from Invercargill and Christchurch).

In addition to the location and start year criteria established above, the respondents also had to meet the definition of an entrepreneur established in Chapter Two. Eighty responses were excluded because they were not the founders of the business, and a further 12 were excluded because they had no employees (ie. they were sole traders). This left 289 usable surveys (the effective response rate), as indicated in Table 4.6.

Table 4. 6 Total responses

Number mailed	932
Undeliverable	66
Total responses	381
Not founders ⁴⁸	80
No employees	12
Total remaining	289

4.7.5 Data analysis

The quantitative data from the survey was analysed using SPSS 10.0. Nonparametric statistics are suitable for responses where there are no scores, means or variances (Kranzler & Moursund, 1999; Rowntree, 1981). Because the intention was to compare women's and men's responses, chi-square tests were conducted to assess whether there

⁴⁸ Some of these 80 may have founded another business, so could very well be entrepreneurs. In this case, the question asked whether they had founded the business listed in the Business Who's Who.

were statistically significant differences in responses between the gender of respondents (Howitt & Cramer, 1997; Reynolds, 1993).

4.7.6 Validity

The conventional benchmarks of rigour (validity and reliability) apply to positivist research (Altheide & Johnson, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Validity refers to “the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers” (Hammersley, 1990: 57, cited in Silverman, 2000). In this case, the questionnaire was strengthened by its relationship to the literature (shown in Table 4.2) and this is a way of increasing internal validity.

One way this study measured external validity was through its close geographic representativeness (both in terms of sample selection and responses) to the locations in which New Zealand businesses lie. A second measure of external validity came from investigating comparisons between those entrepreneurs who wanted to continue with the study. Fifty-five percent of the 289 respondents (159) indicated (from a question on the survey) they would like to participate further in the study by way of a face-to-face interview or be sent another survey in the future. As the following table shows (Table 4.7), the demographics of those willing to continue with the survey differ only slightly between the entire sample of 289, enabling some measure of confidence that there is no evidence of bias between the entrepreneurs who participated in the qualitative study and the entire sample.

Table 4. 7 Comparing yes and no respondents

Demographic	Not willing to continue n = 128	Willing to continue n=159	Significance p value
Sales:			
>\$50,000	8	7	.955
\$50-100,000	9	10	
\$100-500,000	39	51	
\$50,000-\$1 million	24	32	
\$1 million +	48	58	
Gender:			
Male	111	128	.203
Female	17	31	
Age:			
>25	0	2	.712
25-29	6	4	
30-34	14	12	
35-39	19	26	
40-44	20	30	
45-49	27	28	
50-54	25	34	
55+	18	23	

Such a large number of participants willing to continue with further studies perhaps indicates the interest these entrepreneurs have in learning more about other entrepreneurs. Preliminary results from the survey were mailed to all respondents, and many commented that this was unusual for researchers to offer, but they appreciated having a glimpse of the views of many other entrepreneurs. This perhaps suggests the entrepreneurs may experience feelings of isolation.

4.7.7 Reliability

In quantitative research, reliability is easily possible through replication (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Stainback & Stainback, 1988), and this is one of the strengths of quantitative research (Tolich & Davidson, 1999). This survey could be easily replicated if desired, but no tests for reliability were carried out in this instance. Because only one question on the survey is used for the purposes of this thesis, this is not deemed to be a major concern. Indeed, because of the heavy emphasis on the constructivist phase of the research, much more effort has been spent in dealing with reliability and validity issues in Section 4.8.9. Following the quantitative phases of this research, and in the fashion of a sequential multiple paradigm approach, the

constructivist study commenced approximately three months after quantitative data collection (in order to allow time for statistical analysis).

4.8 Constructivist research process

As noted in Section 4.6, a constructivist paradigm lends itself to a qualitative methodology. Qualitative research methodologies have become more popular over recent years (Berg, 2001; Tesch, 1990). Although significant improvements have been made in qualitative research techniques over time, Dreher (1994) believes that there is still a perception that qualitative studies are purely exploratory and must be followed with large scale quantitative studies. Clearly this attitude is true in the case of positivist researchers. This researcher does not share this view, and sees qualitative inquiry as being able to address different types of questions, and concentrate on the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions, with a view towards theory development.

There are various methods for collecting data in qualitative research, but interviews, in their various forms, are the most widely used qualitative method (Fontana & Frey, 1994; King, 1994). For the purposes of my constructivist approach, they are the best option available in order to be able to understand the reality of the entrepreneurs themselves. A qualitative research interview’s purpose has been defined by Kvale (1996) as attempting to understand a topic from the subject’s viewpoint, and “to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, to uncover their world” (pg 1). An interview is a mutual effort on the part of the interviewee and interviewer and therefore it is important to gauge the effects of the context surrounding the interview. This social context of the interview is vital, and it is important to consider when making sense of data (Silverman, 1993). Therefore, semi-structured interviews were chosen because they are considered to be a good method of gaining people’s perceptions (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

The choice of semi-structured interviews as a method also emerges from the gender comparative literature reviewed in Chapter Three, where theory development is not particularly well advanced (Paulin, Coffey, & Spaulding, 1982). In addition, the complex decision to become an entrepreneur lends itself to an interview which allows for “full expression of the interrelationships between the many variables that can impact

on one person's ultimate decision to start a business" (Stevenson, 1990: 442). Interpretive researchers such as constructivists view the relationship between researcher and participant as important and necessary (Benny & Hughes, 1970; King, 1994). It is recognised here that all researchers bring "our biases, assumptions, patterns of thinking, and knowledge gained from experience and reading" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 95).

4.8.1 Ethical issues

Ethics cannot be ignored in any research (Tolich & Davidson, 1999), but may be more important in qualitative research because researchers are interviewing people (Fontana & Frey, 1994). The University of Otago's Ethics Committee approved this study before interviews commenced. Full 'Category A' approval was gained. How I dealt with three key ethical issues (voluntary participation, informed consent and confidentiality) is addressed next.

Participation in the interview phase of this study was entirely voluntary, and the participants were self-selected. In addition, if a participant had difficulties with the interview, they were free to withdraw at any time, or postpone the interview to a more suitable time. No participants did so, however. Informed consent was achieved, as a full explanation of the study and its purposes was given to participants prior to the interview. In addition, each participant signed a consent form prior to the interview (both are presented in Appendix D). Confidentiality was assured. The information sheet assured participants that under no circumstances were their names or the name of their company to be identified in the research. The participants' names and businesses are disguised so it is not possible to identify them.

4.8.2 Interview Schedule

An interview schedule was sent to participants prior to the interviews (See Appendix E). As mentioned, some of the questions emerged from a review of the literature. Although the purpose of this study was to explore the research problem from a different perspective, some focus on the current literature is necessary (Eisenhardt, 1989; Glaser,

1978). The questions were designed to gauge individual opinions and therefore were broad and open-ended. The questions were aimed towards addressing the research questions, but broad enough in order to leave room for other issues to emerge. The interview schedule was trialled on two women entrepreneurs in Dunedin in August 2001. These women had participated previously in my earlier research and were not included in the sample of 50 entrepreneurs. Both suggested that entrepreneurs are usually very busy people and an hour was their suggested length of time to ask for an interview. During these pilot interviews, both of the women talked a lot about their families and the role their families played in their businesses. The comments from both of these interviews were used in the interview schedule refinement process.

The interview schedule was further altered as factors that seemed important to the participants emerged, and these were included in the interview schedule for subsequent interviews. The adjustment of interview schedules can enable a “better understanding of the setting” (Huberman & Miles, 1994 :431). As an example of adjustments made to the schedule, a number of the early participants raised issues that were not on the interview schedule. In addition, I realised early on that the participants did not necessarily have a definition of what an entrepreneur was, and some asked me for my definition at the start of the interview. I revised the interview schedule to address these ‘missing’ issues, along the lines of convergent interviewing (Carson et al., 2001), and adding questions that are ‘native’ to the entrepreneurs (Buckley & Chapman, 1997; Harris, 2000).

4.8.3 Selecting participants

As discussed in Section 4.8.1, all of the interview participants had earlier indicated that they were interested in continuing their involvement with this research, and on this basis, were self-selected. However, significantly more people self-selected than could be interviewed, so a selection process ensued. The response rate for the interviews was excellent, but this was not surprising, given that these participants’ self-selected to continue as research participants. Only one person declined to be interviewed, four did not reply in the required time frame, and three could not be interviewed during the limited time frame established while travelling to other cities.

From the group of respondents to the mail survey who chose to participate in further research, 30 women entrepreneurs indicated that they would be willing to continue with the study. Five of these women were not interviewed for various reasons, such as travelling expenses (one in each of Hamilton and Hastings), and one woman in Auckland cancelled her interview three times so was removed from the sample because it appeared she was not committed to the interview. Another woman in Auckland had no employees and therefore did not fit the definition of an entrepreneur (contrary to her report on the questionnaire) and, finally, one woman in Invercargill was not interviewed because it was deemed that theoretical saturation had been reached (discussed further in Section 4.8.4). In total, 25 women were approached by email and/or phone to be interviewed. All of these women said they would participate in an interview. The proportion of women entrepreneurs from Auckland was much larger than other centres, solely due to the fact that this was the location of the majority of the 30 women entrepreneurs who agreed to be interviewed.

Following the women being selected⁴⁹, an equal number of men entrepreneurs were selected. The rationale for comparing women and men is due to the problems noted with the literature on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. The plethora of studies of only women entrepreneurs are often compared and contrasted with dissimilar studies to produce conclusions about whether women and men's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur differ (Brush, 1992). Catley & Hamilton (1998) also note a problem with purposefully excluding one gender, as do feminist researchers, who welcome the inclusion of men (Stanley & Wise, 1983). Because there were significantly more men who indicated they would like to continue with the study, the selection process was based on convenience, namely location. As Table 4.8 shows, nine men were interviewed in Dunedin and 10 in Auckland.

⁴⁹ Only one entrepreneur (if there was more than one) from each business was interviewed. In this case, it was the person who answered the questionnaire who was interviewed.

This table shows the location of all participants⁵⁰, and indicates with an asterisk those interviewed for theoretical sampling (discussed in Section 4.8.4).

Table 4. 8 Participants by location

	Auckland	Wellington	Dunedin	Christchurch	Invercargill
Women	Cara Cath Diane Dee Emma Elly Jean Jess Kay Lana Lisa Mary Rachelle* Rae Ruth Sarah Viv*	Ann Beth Jane Sara	Sue Kate	Kim*	Shirley*
Men	Brent Craig George John Marty Max Ralph Ross Steve Todd	Don Gary Grant Keith	Dave* Gerry Gordon Mike Monty* Pete Rob Stew* Trevor*	Harry* Simon*	

* denotes participant numbers 40-50 (theoretical sampling)

4.8.4 Interview Process

Following the two pilot interviews, data collection proceeded in three distinct time periods. All interviews were conducted face-to face, in the participant's workplace, home, or a café. These two time periods related directly to financial considerations which meant that interviews were best undertaken in bulk. The first interviews took

⁵⁰ As a note, while making gender comparisons is the purpose of this study, Table 4.7 illustrates the participants spread over the five interview locations. The different geographic distribution between women and men participants is not deemed to be of concern, but I refer back to this later in Chapter Nine once the impact of this geographic spread is assessed.

place over the summer months of 2001/2002. During this time I conducted interviews with 28 entrepreneurs. Data collection and analysis proceeded simultaneously (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Interview tapes were transcribed in full and I began coding the data received for this first block of participants in Nvivo (discussed further in Section 4.7.8). Another round of interviews occurred in Auckland in February 2002 and interviews with 12 entrepreneurs were conducted at this time.

The final round of 10 interviews occurred in mid-2003 (Table 4.7 indicates these participants). These final 10 interviews had two purposes. Firstly, they were a means of theoretical sampling, and secondly, they ensured that saturation was reached. Firstly, I address theoretical sampling. As the goals of this study are theory development, after some data collection and analysis, theoretical sampling is undertaken, where a researcher “decides what data to collect next and where to find them” for the purposes of theory development (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:45). Theoretical sampling cannot be planned in advance, and must be dependent on the theory emerging from data analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

For the purposes of economy, participants in three locations (Dunedin, Wellington and Auckland) were chosen initially. Forty interviews were conducted, and it was decided that further sampling would allow greater comparisons between the participants. Maximising differences in comparison groups can involve going to other cities (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). While location was not a significant factor in the analysis, two additional cities, Invercargill and Christchurch, were added to the interview locations. The following list indicates the theory development reasons for adding the final 10 participants to the sample:

- A single, childless man
- An entrepreneur who was an only child
- Two women with no experience in their chosen field
- Three more experienced serial entrepreneurs, with multiple (three to four) previous businesses.

Given that there were limited numbers of potential women participants remaining (from the 30 who said they would continue as a research participant), theoretical sampling was limited in the case of the women participants. Theoretical sampling ends when

theoretical saturation is reached, and when there is no more data that can be used to develop properties of the category (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). While these 10 interviews were in progress, many consistent patterns emerged, and indeed those patterns appeared similar to those obtained from interviews with the previous 40 participants. This led me to a conclusion that the sample had probably reached saturation point. As an example of theoretical saturation, no new descriptions of an entrepreneur emerged from these final 10 participants.

4.8.5 Length of interviews

The interviews ranged in time from 45 minutes to over three hours. Most interviews tended to last approximately 90 minutes. As the interviewer, it was my job to build trust and rapport with each of the participants (Dreher, 1994). I attempted to gain rapport with the participants prior to the interview by phoning and emailing them with information regarding the study. I purposefully suggested that interviews were likely to last approximately 60 minutes, given the suggestions from the pilot participants. I also considered prior research in the small business field, which suggested that 50 minutes was the maximum time for an interview before “respondent resistance” became apparent (Curran & Blackburn, 2001 :74). No participants refused on the grounds of length of the interview and, as illustrated, many interviews went for substantially longer than the agreed 60 minutes.

There are three possible explanations for the differences in interview times. Firstly, many of the entrepreneurs can be classed as habitual, meaning that they have owned multiple businesses. For this reason, many of their interviews were longer than others, as I asked them to explain ‘from the start’ where their entrepreneurial path had taken them, hence possibly requiring more time to explain than someone in their first business venture. Another explanation of these time differences may relate to the earlier reference to retrospective recall. That is, the time period between starting a business and the interview taking place may have impacted on the interview length, where people may have had more to say if they had started their businesses relatively recently.

Secondly, while the vast majority of the participants were good natured and several indicated that their willingness to participate was related to their belief that my study would one day 'help' other entrepreneurs, there were some participants who were very busy and were interrupted on occasion, or seemed distracted. In such a case, one of the men participants was interrupted nine times during the course of the interview. The variation in interview time also depended on the degree of interest and time the entrepreneurs had available and, to a certain extent, the time of day the interview took place. The issue of time scarcity had previously emerged in the pilot interviews as a potential barrier, and there appeared to be no feasible solution to this issue.

The final issue with the interviews appeared to be gender related (Fontana & Frey, 1994). There was quite a distinct difference between the ways the women participants approached the interview and the way men did. This may be related to my being an 'insider' in the research process (a woman interviewing women) (Neff-Gurney, 1991). The women generally talked for longer, seemed more interested in the research than the men and one woman invited me to dinner at her house before we had met. Another three women (and one man) invited me to conduct the interview at a café, appearing to prefer the informal approach, but also because two of the women had open-plan offices. On the other hand, many of the men showed little emotion and were very business-like. This is important to note, as the dynamics of some of the interviews were vastly different from others, but this did not appear to hinder the answering of questions. What may be different are the additional stories and background information that some participants gave. This is not something that could have been avoided, but is nevertheless an issue to consider in the discussion of the findings, as some entrepreneurs provided more discussion than others, and therefore their views feature more often in the following results chapters.

4.8.6 Tape recorded

While tape recorders can be considered intrusive to a research setting (Stainback & Stainback, 1988), they are essential for providing a record of the interview and, more importantly, are important for coding of the interview material (Curran & Blackburn, 2001). Each interviewee was asked for permission to tape record the interview in order

to make the interview sessions more time economical, and to gain more accuracy in coding at the analysis stage. All participants agreed, although some had slight apprehensions about being taped. This was not deemed to be serious, as their concerns primarily related to the fact that I would have to listen to their voice on tape. The tape recording did not appear to cause any difficulty after the initial few minutes. On two or three occasions, participants asked me to stop recording for a period, usually when they were going to talk about something related to their dealings with the Inland Revenue Department (regarding taxes), or dubious business practices they had come across. Tapes will be stored in a secure location for three years as per university regulations and destroyed after this time.

4.8.7 Transcription

Of the 50 interviews, the first 27 were transcribed verbatim and in full, including pauses and laughs (Silverman, 2000). I began by transcribing seven interviews in full, as suggested by Tolich & Davidson (1999). The other 20 of these first interviews were transcribed in full by a professional secretarial service. After initial coding of the first 17 of these 27 transcripts, it appeared viable to selectively transcribe the last 23 interviews selectively. This decision was made because I felt I had gained an understanding of what seemed important to the participants (Tolich & Davidson, 1999), and I had noted that many of the participants did get 'off track' during the interviews. Much of this material, while interesting, was not deemed relevant to this study's focus (eg. discussions about politics and complaints about government departments, or industry standards and practices which were specific to their industry). Therefore, not transcribing this additional material made the task more manageable and allowed me to focus on the research problem at hand.

4.8.8 Data analysis

Computers have become more recognised lately as tools to assist with analysing qualitative data (King, 1994; Richards, 1999, 2000; Richards & Richards, 1994; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). Berg (2001) outlines the development of computer

programmes that assist the qualitative researcher. The QSR NUD*IST Vivo (Nvivo) software package was used here for data management (Richards, 2000). NVivo allows coding to be undertaken in a relatively simple and useful way. It comprises both a code and retrieve component, as well as an index system of nodes and trees (Richards & Richards, 1994). NVivo was used as a data management tool and provided excellent data retrieval systems.

Coding proceeded according to Strauss & Corbin's (1990) method. 'Open coding' was conducted first in order to name and categorise the phenomena that is found in the data. It is at this open coding stage that the:

data are broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences, and questions are asked about the phenomena as reflected in the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990: 62).

The purpose of open coding is to make comparisons and to ask questions. Phenomena are labelled and categories are discovered which can then be analysed in terms of their properties and dimensions and it is these concepts from which theory is able to be built (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). I began by coding the transcripts and, from this, categories emerged (called nodes in Nvivo). Initially, 40 free nodes were created, and at the end of coding these documents, two nodes were merged with other nodes. A total of 2,184 passages were coded into the 38 node categories (see Appendix F), where a passage may be a few words or a number of paragraphs of text. I coded by paragraph and sentence as proposed by Strauss & Corbin (1990), and also viewed the entire document to see if (and how) it differed from the previous transcript. Code notes were written from the open coding procedure and these were my initial thoughts about important themes, and possible relationships and issues that seemed important to the participants.

Theory development is the aim of this thesis, and I ask the 'why' questions that allow theory development, in addition to the usual description questions such as what, how, when and who (Bacharach, 1989; Whetten, 1989). I borrow from Eisenhardt's (1989) method and process for building theory that is "highly iterative" and "tightly linked to data" (pg 532). Although this thesis does not involve case research per se as in Eisenhardt's (1989) work, it exhibits several of the same activities of case research

(Bryman, 1989; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 1984, 1993, 1994). The theory evolves during the research, and data collection and analysis occur simultaneously (Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

4.8.9 Trustworthiness of the research

Some qualitative researchers have posed ‘alternative’ criteria for judging the goodness of research. As discussed, the positivist phase of the research was primarily concerned with validity and reliability as measures for judging the research. Reliable methods and valid conclusions are essential to any good piece of research, whether it be qualitative or quantitative (Silverman, 2000; Stainback & Stainback, 1984), but the methods for assessing reliability and validity may be different (King, 1994). A constructivist approach, such as that of Guba & Lincoln (1994), considers the goal is trustworthiness, and includes credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (mirroring internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity respectively). I use these tests of trustworthiness to assess the goodness of this piece of research, but am aware that other interpretive researchers suggest differing approaches (Marshall & Rossman, 1995; Silverman, 2000).

4.8.9.1 Credibility and Transferability

It has been suggested that qualitative and quantitative methods do not require different approaches to validity (King, 1994; Tschudi, 1999), but it may be that the emphasis differs, with qualitative methods focusing on valid interpretations (King, 1994). Improving validity can occur in a number of ways (Silverman, 2000). In this thesis, the issue of credibility and transferability is addressed in three main ways – using convergent interviews and native categories, selecting quotes and contrary cases, and in the use of tabulations.

As discussed in section 4.8.2, the interview schedule initially evolved after analysing the results of the quantitative study. It further evolved after two pilot interviews and the first few interviews. This process is similar to convergent interviewing (Carson et al., 2001). I made several adjustments to the interview schedule as a result of the discovery

of 'native' categories (Buckley & Chapman, 1997) among the participants. Native categories are those that the participants use themselves, rather than the researcher interpreting their answers (such as the exact terms that the participants use to describe an entrepreneur). The evolving interview schedule helped to ensure that the questions were relevant to the participants.

Data reduction in qualitative research is a necessary task. Given that there are 50 participants, there is a need for 'selecting' portions of transcripts to illustrate the opinions and views of the participants. This selection process is inevitable, but care has been taken here to mitigate any concerns with 'contrary cases'. I show that I have not just selected well-chosen examples to illustrate the phenomenon by providing tabulations (Section 4.7.9.2) (Silverman, 2000: 176). Approximately 200 quotes are weaved through Chapters Six to Eight. Quotes from all 50 participants are included, ranging from one quote, to ten quotes for several participants. The number of quotes for each person directly related to what they said, and to some extent, how long they spoke for. With respect to contrary cases, I aim to present the views of the participants on a particular research question, and there are many contradictory comments, which add to the richness of the data and underline the complexity of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

Some qualitative researchers avoid numbers altogether but, I use tabulations of participants' own categories, as suggested by Silverman (2000), in order to view all of the data and give the reader a sense of the entire range of responses. To this end, I provide tables at the commencement of each major results section that outline the participants whose responses can be classed in each category. While some would argue that this is a positivist approach, these tables are illustrative only, and the constructivist paradigm approach is more interested in explaining how and why gender differences exist (if they do).

4.8.9.2 Dependability

The issue of dependability cannot be ignored in qualitative research, and careful documentation of procedures is required (Kirk & Miller, 1986). Silverman (2000)

offers two ways to increase reliability of qualitative research: by using field notes, and assessing inter-coder agreement. Reliability was addressed in these two ways for the qualitative portion of this study, in addition to a third way – tape recording the interviews.

The primary method for establishing reliability here is the use of inter-coder agreement (King, 1994). A postgraduate student who was unfamiliar with the research was asked to code five interview transcripts using seven of the codes⁵¹ (these accounted for 10% of the transcripts). The additional coder was in agreement with my codes in 67 cases and in disagreement five times. For a person unfamiliar with the material, this result was deemed adequate. This was not perceived to be a concern, as the transcripts were coded by me at least three times each.

Additionally, field notes were also taken to supplement the recorded interviews (Silverman, 2000; Stainback & Stainback, 1988). These field notes, typically amounting to two to three pages per participant, were written up as soon as possible after the interview. The field notes were where I recorded my thoughts on the interview, including the nature of the relationship I had with the participant, and other comments they made once the tape recorder had been switched off. The field notes provide another part of the analysis process, in addition to the interview transcripts.

Finally, all 50 interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Twenty-seven were transcribed verbatim. I chose to selectively transcribe the remaining 23 interviews. In addition to the transcription process, all interviews were listened to at least two more times and compared with the printed transcript to check and correct any errors. The field notes, combined with the taped interviews and the inter-coder agreement mean that reliability issues have been addressed comprehensively.

⁵¹ Partner, sibling, children, parents, perception of an entrepreneur, tall poppy, New Zealand culture.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has presented a detailed outline of the research process. Beginning with a focus on paradigms, it has outlined the multiple paradigm approach used in this thesis, and the resulting methods and research processes. Given the use of two different paradigms, the analysis of the research questions proceeds as follows. The results chapters begin with the positivist paradigm, which employed a quantitative method to investigate Research Question One (Chapter Five). The three subsequent chapters (Chapters Six to Nine) present the findings from the remaining three research questions using qualitative research methods. With the sequential use of two paradigms, the results from the positivist paradigm feed into the constructivist approach.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter, the first of four results chapters that are concerned with addressing the four research questions, begins with a presentation of some demographics of the mail survey sample. Next, the chapter focuses on the statistical analysis of the data on primary motivations for becoming an entrepreneur gleaned from the positivist paradigm. It compares the results of this survey with existing literature in the field, as one purpose of the mail survey is to be able to compare it with previous studies. Based on the literature review in Chapter Three, a number of motivating factors are tested with the aim of investigating whether gender differences exist for this sample of entrepreneurs. The primary objective of this chapter is to address Research Question One, which is aimed toward analysing whether, using a similar positivist paradigm as prior studies, gender differences exist in this sample of New Zealand entrepreneurs with respect to their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

5.2 Sample demographics

It is useful to begin with some demographics about the sample, in order to provide a context for the results that follow. While there are many demographics that could be commented on, because this chapter is concerned with the existence of gender differences, it is appropriate that gender be the key demographic that is investigated further. As illustrated in Table 5.1 that follows, the sample comprises 82.7% men and 16.6% women (and 0.7% who do not state their gender).

Table 5. 1 Demographic of the sample

Demographic	Women %	Men %	Significance (p value)
Gender	16.6	82.7	
Married or living with partner	70.8	83.3	.104
Ethnic origin:			.172
Pakeha/European	89.6	90.7	
Maori	6.3	1.3	
Other	4.2	8.0	
Age:			.268
Under 35	20.8	11.7	
35-39	12.5	15.9	
40-44	16.7	17.6	
45-49	25.0	18.0	
50+	25.0	36.8	
Birth order:			.989
Oldest	31.3	38.9	
2 nd	31.3	26.5	
3 rd	20.8	19.7	

n=289

The number of women respondents here is lower than the general population of women business owners. Statistics New Zealand notes that in 1998, 32.3% of business proprietors were women (but only 17.7% were 'full time'). On the contrary, 67.8% of business proprietors were men, and only 10% of this figure are those men who are part-time proprietors (Statistics New Zealand (August 1998), cited in Cameron & Massey, 1999). The relative under-representation of women in this sample compared to these statistics is not uncommon, and Stevenson (1990) finds that women respondents are generally not well-represented in studies of business owners and entrepreneurs, even though they are becoming more represented in the business world. The difference between the numbers of women responding to this survey and the numbers of women business proprietors could be due to the nature of the listings within the Business Who's Who, but no specific gender information is available in this listing.

However, the numbers of women responding to this study is not a concern when compared to Shane et al.'s (1991) study, whose definition of an entrepreneur is the most comparable to the one used for this thesis. Their study shows women comprise 8-12% of their samples (for three countries). The New Zealand sample comprises 88% men

and 12% women (Shane et al., 1991), and this is a relatively close match to the gender breakdown for this study, as shown in Table 5.1. Other studies of motivations to become an entrepreneur have different approaches to including gender in their studies, such as using matched samples (Cromie, 1987a; Marlow, 1997), or samples that are deliberately more heavily weighted towards women (Scott, 1986; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). As the other demographics presented in Table 5.1 show, no gender difference exist when comparing women and men on the basis of ethnic origin, age or birth order. Other business demographics are referred to in Appendix G.

5.3 Motivating factors

Before presenting the statistical analysis to test for gender differences, it is useful to first outline the results for the sample (n=289). These results show that over half of all respondents agree that all six motivating factors were motivating factors for them when becoming an entrepreneur. Table 5.2 shows these results.

Table 5.2 Motivating factors for the sample

Motivating factor	Percent
Independence	63.3
Opportunity	58.1
Be own boss	57.1
Challenge	55.4
Job satisfaction	54.3
Money/wealth	52.9

As Table 5.2 shows, the highest scoring motivating factor for the entire sample was independence (63.3%), followed by seeing an opportunity (58.1%), and the second independence related factor, to 'be own boss' (57.1%). The other three factors were also motivating factors for over half of the sample – challenge (55.4%), job satisfaction (54.3%) and lastly, money/wealth (52.9%). These findings show that the majority of respondents entered multiple motivations. This is because a ranking method or naming a single motivation is not appropriate when measuring such a complex and multi-faceted construct as motivation. This is consistent with other literature, where five or

more different motivating factors are listed (Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991).

When examining the difference between women and men in relation to their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, chi-square tests were conducted on all six of the motivating factors. These statistical tests were conducted in order to investigate whether there were statistically significant differences between women and men's motivations to become an entrepreneur. The tables that follow report the findings of the sample (n=287, because two respondents did not state their gender) and then I compare the results found in this study with the prior literature discussed in Chapter Three.

5.3.1 Independence

As noted in the literature review, the desire for independence is often found to be a significant motivator for people when deciding to become an entrepreneur. In this study, two factors that relate to independence are tested. The questionnaire included both 'independence' and 'be your own boss'. Both of these factors relate to independence in some form, but the second measure is perhaps more specific than independence in general. Results of the chi square tests for both of these factors are included in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Motivated by independence/be own boss

	Women n=48	Men n=239	Significance (p value)
Independence	29	154	.597
%	60.4	64.4	
Be own boss	30	134	.411
%	62.5	56.1	

This results presented in Table 5.2 illustrated that independence was the highest rating motivating factor amongst the sample, with 63.3% of the respondents indicating this to be a factor in their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, and 57.1% wanted to be

their own boss. These findings are not unexpected, because similar studies also find independence to rank highly in the motivations of entrepreneurs (Dubini, 1988; Hamilton, 1987; Harrison & Hart, 1993; McDowell, 1995; Scheinberg & MacMillan, 1988; Shane et al., 1991; Vivarelli, 1991) and, more specifically, of women entrepreneurs (Belcourt, 1990; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Deng et al., 1995; Donckels & Degadt, 1986; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1981, 1982; Holmquist & Sundin, 1986; Kim, 1996; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Rashid, 1996; Schwartz, 1976; Sexton & Kent, 1981; Stevenson, 1984; Vokins, 1993).

This study finds that the desire for independence is a high-ranking factor for both women and men when deciding whether to become an entrepreneur. Men are slightly more motivated than women by 'independence', while the reverse is true for 'be own boss'. Nevertheless, these differences are not substantial enough to be statistically significant, and therefore no gender differences exist in these two factors that relate to independence. The prior study that is most comparable to this one in terms of definitions also finds no gender differences in relation to independence (three separate measures) in any of the three countries studied (Shane et al., 1991). No gender differences regarding independence exist for New Zealand, and therefore, the results of this thesis support this previous study of entrepreneurs.

Independence is often the highest motivating factor in previous gender comparative studies but, as noted earlier in the literature review, few studies find gender differences in relation to independence as a motivating factor for entrepreneurs (Marlow, 1997; Pinfeld, 2001; Scott, 1986; Still & Soutar, 2001; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). However, as noted in Chapter Three, the degree and direction of gender differences remain inconclusive as, in four cases, women were more motivated by independence (Pinfeld, 2001; Scott, 1986; Still & Soutar, 2001; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991), while in the other case men were more motivated by independence than women (Marlow, 1997).

5.3.2 Seeing an opportunity

This study finds that seeing an opportunity is relatively important in terms of motivation for becoming an entrepreneur in this study, and 58.1% of respondents in the entire sample were motivated by this factor. Seeing an opportunity was the focus of few studies in the prior gender comparative literature. Only two such studies listed seeing an opportunity as a motivating factor (Fox, 1998; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986). Neither of these studies found gender differences regarding seeing an opportunity or making the most of a commercial opportunity. Table 5.4 indicates the statistical results of this factor.

Table 5. 4 Motivated by seeing an opportunity

	Women n=48	Men n=239	Significance (p value)
Opportunity	33	135	.116
%	68.8	56.5	

Although Table 5.4 indicates women are slightly more motivated by seeing an opportunity than men, there was no statistically significant gender difference in the seeing an opportunity as a motivating factor for becoming an entrepreneur. This result supports the findings prior studies which find no gender differences regarding seeing an opportunity (Fox, 1998; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986) as a motivator for becoming an entrepreneur.

5.3.3 Money

Making money is a relatively low motivating factor for becoming an entrepreneur for the respondents in this study, again concurring with much previous quantitative research in the field. In total, 52.9% of respondents say money was a motivating factor in their decision to become an entrepreneur. Gender breakdowns are shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5. 5 Motivated by money/wealth

	Women n=48	Men n=239	Significance (p value)
Money	24	129	.614
%	50	54	

As Table 5.5 indicates, money as a motivating factor does not show statistically significant gender differences in this study. Again, like independence and seeing an opportunity, this finding is similar to prior studies, but the most similar previous study did not include money in their questionnaire (Shane et al., 1991). However, in studies using the 'owners' or 'other' definitions, statistically significant gender differences exist in several studies (Borooah et al., 1997; Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Fischer et al., 1993; Marlow, 1997; Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986). As in the case of the previous factors (independence, be own boss, see an opportunity), the direction of differences differs between these studies, with three studies finding men are more motivated by money (Borooah et al., 1997; Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Marlow, 1997), while others show the reverse results, where women are more motivated by factors involving money (Fischer et al., 1993; Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986). While these studies show gender differences, a further nine factors in relation to money do not show gender differences. Hence, while this study finds no evidence of statistically significant gender differences, the results of previous studies on whether money is a major motivating factor for becoming an entrepreneur are inconclusive.

5.3.4 Job Satisfaction

This study supports the findings of these earlier research studies, with 53.4% of respondents to this study reporting job satisfaction was a motivating factor for them in becoming an entrepreneur. Job satisfaction is a factor located in the literature that could mean two things – either people are dissatisfied with their jobs, or they are not dissatisfied, but they wanted to increase their job satisfaction. The results are broken down by gender in Table 5.6, and show no gender differences between women and men entrepreneurs.

Table 5. 6 Motivated by job satisfaction

	Women n=48	Men n=239	Significance (p value)
Job satisfaction	29	127	.356
%	60.4	53.1	

While there are many different work-related motivating factors, as noted in Chapter Three, this category it is a classification that encompasses many factors, such as redundancy, co-career issues and freedom to adapt own approach to work. In this case, job satisfaction was selected as the motivating factor to be tested. Job satisfaction (and career dissatisfaction) is included in three prior studies. One study finds ‘career dissatisfaction’ shows differences between women and men (Marlow, 1997), the remaining factors related to job security show no significant gender differences (Cromie, 1987a; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986), as does the results of this study.

5.3.5 Challenge

Needing a challenge is a factor for over half of the respondents in the current study (55.4%). Other comparative studies do not find challenge to be a factor, but similar motivation factors, such as meeting new challenges (Still & Soutar, 2001), and challenge (Hakim, 1989; Scott, 1986). Two of these three studies (Scott, 1986; Still & Soutar, 2001) found gender differences with respect to challenge being a motivating factor, with one study finding women are more motivated by a desire for a challenge than men (Scott, 1986), and the other study finding the reverse trend (Still & Soutar, 2001). Table 5.7 displays the results from this factor, where it is apparent that no gender differences exist for this sample on the factor ‘challenge’.

Table 5. 7 Motivated by challenge

	Women n=48	Men n=239	Significance (p value)
Challenge	30	129	.278
%	62.5	54.0	

None of the six motivating factors that were tested in this study found statistically significant gender differences. The prior literature shows mixed results on motivating

factors for becoming an entrepreneur when looking at the factors individually. Because the purpose of this phase of the study is to allow comparisons to be made with other research, the goal was to see whether these entrepreneurs were motivated to become an entrepreneur by similar factors to those in other studies. In previous studies, the incidence of gender differences in each of the six motivating factors that have been discussed and analysed in this chapter show many gender differences, but the direction of differences is often contradictory. In addition, the studies include vastly different sample compositions to that used in this thesis. Table 5.8 illustrates the results that show gender differences that directly compare to the six motivating factors that were tested in this study. It also shows the direction of the gender differences, where a tick in the 'women' column indicates that women are more motivated than men by this factor.

Table 5. 8 Summary of gender differences found in prior studies

Factor in survey	Prior studies	Women	Men
Independence and Be own boss	Pinfold, 2001 Still & Soutar, 2001 Marlow, 1997 Sundin & Holmquist, 1991 Scott, 1986	√ √ √ √	 √
Money	Borooah et al. 1997 DeMartino & Barbato, 2003 Fischer at al. 1993 Cromie, 1987 Marlow, 1997 Pinfold, 2001 Scott, 1986	 √ √ √	√ √ √ √
Challenge	Scott, 1986 Still & Soutar, 2001	√ 	 √
See an opportunity	-		
Job satisfaction	Cromie, 1987	√	

Perhaps the most important observation we can make from Table 5.8 is not what studies it includes, but those that are missing. Continuing with the focus on definitions and

sample compositions from Chapter Three, the study that is most comparable to my results to is absent. Thus, Shane et al., (1991) find no gender differences in any of the areas of focus in the current survey. This is significant, because my results corroborate with this study and perhaps provide greater ability to suggest that the entrepreneurs in this study have similar motivations to those of other entrepreneurs. Thus, we can have some degree of confidence that the entrepreneurs in this study are ‘comparable’ to those in prior studies.

5.4 Conclusion

The results presented in this chapter show no gender differences in relation to the primary motivating factors for becoming an entrepreneur. The chi-square tests find no statistically significant gender differences regarding motivations for starting a business for the 289 entrepreneurs in this study. These results are not unexpected, as much previous literature points to few (and mixed) statistical differences between women and men in terms of their motivations for starting a business. As a further test, chi-square tests were performed on the entire set of 381 respondents (ie. including business owners) in order to establish whether the definition (founders, employing one other) was a factor in these results. No gender differences were found in any of the factors for this sample of business owners and entrepreneurs.

The results presented in this chapter confirm that the sample of entrepreneurs used in this research, like many other studies, reveal no gender differences when evaluated using a positivist paradigm. As I use multiple paradigms (sequentially) in this study, the outcomes of the first paradigm are used as an input into the second paradigm. That no gender differences were found in this study is supported by earlier research using a similar definition of an entrepreneur and sample composition. These parallels are significant as they give some degree of confidence that the entrepreneurs in this study appear, on the face of it, to have similar motivations to entrepreneurs in other studies.

The discussion in Chapter Three suggested that gender differences exist in prior studies for six cases for work as a motivating factor, and in nine cases for family as a motivator. In both the work and family categories, these factors present the most mixed results,

with almost the same number of results finding that the family is not an area where gender differences exist. Similarly, work-related motivating factors show that in 12 cases, no gender differences exist.

These two motivating factors are, therefore, those that perhaps offer the greatest opportunity to expand the limited existing theory using the integrated perspective to the study of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Work and family-related motivating factors are chosen because, as outlined in detail in Chapter Two, they are where gender differences lie in society. Fifty of the mail survey respondents participated in the interview phase, so I look at the same people using a different paradigm, to investigate potential gender differences that may have been hidden so far to researchers using positivist paradigms. However, before presenting the two motivating factors it is important to consider the 50 participants' terms they use to describe an entrepreneur. The terms used by the entrepreneurs to construct their vision of an entrepreneur are the subject of Chapter Six. At this stage, I refer the reader to Appendix H for brief profiles of each of the 50 participants before proceeding.

CHAPTER SIX

CONSTRUCTING THE TERM ENTREPRENEUR

6.1 Introduction

Before focusing on the two motivating factors under study in this thesis, some context setting is needed in order in terms of how the participants construct the term entrepreneur. This chapter contributes to the thesis by understanding how the participants construct the term entrepreneur, and whether (as well as how) they apply these terms to themselves. This is important for a number of reasons. Firstly, because the roots of the integrated perspective focus on identity, I felt it important to understand how these women and men saw themselves in relation to an 'entrepreneur'. In addition, because of the constructivist nature of this phase of the research, understanding how these participants construct the term entrepreneur was also deemed important. In addition, this chapter continues the theme of being interested about definitions that runs through this thesis. The theme of how participants construct the term entrepreneur emerged from early interviews, where some participants asked me to define an entrepreneur for them⁵². This chapter is aimed at addressing Research Question Two: How is the term entrepreneur constructed and applied?

6.2 Terms used to describe an entrepreneur

A review of the literature on definitions of entrepreneurs presented in Chapter Two shows a focus on a range of different terms used, including risk (Hebert & Link, 1989; Long, 1983; Stewart et al., 1996), innovation (Drucker, 1985; Schumpeter, 1934), and the founding of a business (Belcourt, 1987a; Brockhaus, 1987; Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Gartner, 1990; Goss, 1991; Wright et al., 1997). The literature review also pointed out the difficulties in comparing studies because of the array of different definitions used

⁵² However, all of these participants completed a survey entitled 'entrepreneurs' and were asked if they would be interviewed as an entrepreneur, yet appeared unclear of its definition.

(Brockhaus, 1987; Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Cameron & Massey, 1999; Carter & Cannon, 1988; Gartner, 1990). The implications of not being explicit about definitions has led to researchers comparing dissimilar studies (Carland et al., 1988; Monroy & Folger, 1993). The problem of dissimilar definitions has been mitigated for this thesis by the careful and methodical analysis of the gender comparative literature in Chapter Three.

An analysis of the terms participants use to describe an entrepreneur results in a vast array of different terms emerging. Some terms are used by both women and men participants, and I discuss four of these recurring terms first. In a number of cases, some terms are described only by women or only by men participants and these are discussed in turn. The terms the participants use are then compared and contrasted with the prior literature and with the definition of an entrepreneur I use in this thesis. Finally, after the terms that were used have been presented, I explore how the participants actually apply the categories to themselves, in relation to Bourdieu's (2001) theorisations. Bourdieu (2001) suggests women (the dominated) apply categories that are constructed by men (the dominant), and that these categories are seen as being "natural" (pg 35). In this chapter, I apply his theorisations to the construction of the term 'entrepreneur', by analysing the participants' constructions of an entrepreneur, and then establishing how the participants apply these terms to themselves. Table 6.1 illustrates the results of an analysis of the 50 terms participants use to describe an entrepreneur (using participants' categories⁵³).

⁵³ The terms in Table 6.1 are all those of the participants 'own words', except for two cases. Firstly, 'execution' is a composite category of those entrepreneurs who use such words as follow through with idea, and take action to implement the ideas. Secondly, innovation is also a composite grouping, which comprises those who also say that it had to be something new.

Table 6. 1 Terms the participants use to describe an entrepreneur

Women and men	Women	Men
Confidence	Achieving things	Abundance philosophy
Courage/courageous	Aggressive	Brave
Do on own	An attitude	Build relationships with things
Execution of ideas	Ball breaking	Captain of industry
Founded a business	Big picture	Clever
Idea	Challenge	Driven
Innovation	Competitive streak	Energetic
Male	Fun	Fingers in many pies
Money	Get up fighting	Give it a go
Risk	Go getter	Identify opportunities
Technician (E-Myth)	Go in to win	Impeccable timing
Vision	Hard worker	Midas touch
	Making something	More than one company
	Self belief	Move resources
	Strong	Possibly fail
	Success	Responsibility for own destiny
	Take a chance	See things others don't
	Think outside of square	Sell self
	Use others money	Take own path

* listed in alphabetical order

As Table 6.1 indicates, the number of different terms named by participants is significant, and this makes it impossible to discuss every one in depth. In this chapter, I focus on the three columns it displays – those terms that both women and men state, and those that are only stated by women or only by men. However, while Table 6.1 may be indicative of the participant's views, and may direct us to trends and patterns in relation to the incidence of gender differences, it is essential to attempt to understand the meanings behind the terms the participants use⁵⁴. The discussion first turns to discussion of some of the terms (shown in column one of Table 6.1) that are identified by both women and men participants.

⁵⁴ Throughout this chapter and the two subsequent chapters (Seven and Eight), participants' verbatim quotes are used at all times, and these can be identified because they are indented, and in italics (11 point).

6.3 Terms used by women and men

Twelve terms to describe an entrepreneur emerge from both women and men entrepreneurs. The four most recurring terms are discussed in this section, and include someone who is innovative, the execution of ideas, taking risks and defining an entrepreneur as a man. These four terms are discussed individually in Sections 6.3.1 to 6.3.4, beginning with those terms that emerge for many participants as their constructions of the term entrepreneur.

6.3.1 Execution of ideas

The most recurrent theme that emerges from the participants here is that they describe an entrepreneur as someone who executes their idea. Their views distinguish someone who executes their idea from a ‘talker’, a person they see as not following through with their idea. I begin here with George, who identifies the first stage of the entrepreneurial process as having an idea (he also describes seeing an opportunity, discussed in Section 6.5):

Lots of people have ideas, I should have done this, or I should have done that, I saw this opportunity, but I think, for an entrepreneur, they'll say yep, I can do that, and have the confidence to actually do it. Because most people have an idea, but then they'll find all the old reasons why they can't do it -
George

George sums up the difference between having an idea and actually following through with an idea, and suggests an entrepreneur is the individual who puts their idea into practice. Table 6.2 lists those participants who note that execution of ideas or an innovation is a feature of how they construct the term entrepreneur. The execution of an idea appears relevant to eight women and 12 men participants.

Table 6. 2 Participants who name execution of an idea

Women	Men
Diane	Brent
Jane	Dave
Kate	Gary
Kim	George
Mary	Gerry
Rachelle	Gordon
Sarah	Grant
Shirley	John
	Mike
	Rob
	Simon
	Stew

6.3.1.1 Women participants

The women participants who named execution of an idea as part of their description of an entrepreneur are discussed first. The words of Jane begin this section:

Somebody who gets a really good idea and then puts it into practice – Jane

Jane focuses on an entrepreneur as being someone who turns their idea and visions into reality. Mary goes on to add a further dimension to these descriptions of an entrepreneur:

To me, an entrepreneur is someone who creates something and comes up with an idea and strives for it and goes for it no matter what - Mary

In her view, Mary sees an entrepreneur as someone who will go on to execute their idea and does so “no matter what”. Diane expands on these views to explain how she views herself in relation to the idea – execution process:

A (sic) entrepreneur is a big picture person with great ideas and knows how to make things happen, and I don't really see myself in that role. Yeah sure, I have got some great ideas but I always put that to guys I work with and I don't attach it to myself, and I am starting to realise that it might be [entrepreneurial] - Diane

Diane works with the building industry, an industry she notes is particularly male dominated. Diane's construction of an entrepreneur is interesting, as after she describes an entrepreneur, she goes on to distance herself from being an entrepreneur (although she reluctantly admits that she might be entrepreneurial). This quote suggests that Diane may be unwilling to take full credit for her great ideas, and shares the credit with the men she works with. It would appear that the 'guys' are actually implementing her ideas physically (ie. building the design), and not contributing to the execution of her ideas. Diane's example shows the first case of a woman distancing herself from the possibility of being an entrepreneur, but her case is not isolated, and this theme returns later in this chapter.

6.3.1.2 Men participants

The men participants who suggest execution is a term to describe an entrepreneur focus around similar ideas to the women participants. This execution of ideas is referred to as someone who "goes for it" (Stew). In addition, Simon and John elaborate on how they see an entrepreneur as being someone who executes an idea:

Somebody who sees an idea and takes it to fruition – Simon

New ideas, and I guess ability to turn those things into reality
and do those things – John

For Simon and John, turning an idea or a vision into reality is how they construct the term entrepreneur. This execution of an idea appears very similar to the descriptions given by the women participants. Mike also suggests an idea must somehow be executed, but speaks about an entrepreneur as having to have courage to do so:

A person who has enough courage to get an idea and make it
work – Mike

Mike is the only man here who suggests there are any limits to what an entrepreneur can do. In Dave and Rob's cases, there appear to be no restrictions on what is possible for an entrepreneur:

One that can take any idea and run with it – Dave

Create something where it wasn't before. Go out and grabs
something and creates something out of nothing. Or creates
more than there was before – Rob

Dave and Rob both suggest their vision of an entrepreneur is someone who is able to execute “any” idea or creates “something out of nothing”, implying that an entrepreneur is more than just someone who executes an idea, but is someone who can create growth out of an idea, or that an entrepreneur can make any idea work. No women participants suggest that identifying an opportunity is a feature of how they view an entrepreneur, but some of the men do so. The women and men participants’ descriptions of execution of ideas seem quite similar, except from the example of Diane, where she seems to be very reluctant to accept the role of entrepreneur.

6.3.2 Innovative/Innovation

Being innovative, or an innovation is a common theme that the participants talk about when discussing their construction of the entrepreneur. In academic texts, an innovation is generally referred to as a new product or service that has been commercialised (Drucker, 1985). However, some of these participants refer to a different notion. Their construction of the innovation theme appears to be also concerned with something that is new or different, such as an invention, rather than just a commercialised product or service. Seven women and eight men describe an entrepreneur as someone who is innovative, as shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6. 3 Participants who name Innovative/Innovation

Women	Men
Ann	Grant
Elly	John
Emma	Keith
Jane	Ralph
Kate	Rob
Kim	Ross
Shirley	Stew
	Trevor

6.3.2.1 Women participants

A number of excerpts from the eight women who describe innovation as a defining feature of an entrepreneur are now presented. I begin with Elly:

Someone who is very innovative. I don't feel I am innovative but I think we do a very good job for our clients and they keep coming back and that's the way our business has grown through, not through my entrepreneurial skills, but my analytical skills and report writing skills – Elly

Elly's views are particularly interesting because she categorically states that she is not innovative. Elly's business is specialised and in the science industry. Given that her business is the only one that does some of the types of work she offers, it would be prudent to suggest that from my view, it appears that her business and skills are quite innovative. Elly's quote also reveals an apparent reluctance to take ownership of her business. She owns the business independently but refers to 'we' twice in this excerpt, suggesting her staff also contribute to the success of her business. Here, Elly constructs her view of an entrepreneur based on an opposite view to how she sees herself and her own business. This separation of the self from the notion of the entrepreneur is not an isolated case, and is also illustrated in Jane's words:

I always think that [it] is somebody who has had a really brilliant idea that nobody else ever had, and lets face it plenty of people have had the selling [product that Jane sells] idea - Jane

Jane speaks of innovation in relation to her business, and notes that having an idea that no one else has is what makes an entrepreneur. Thus, she can distinguish herself from this because the idea she had is not the only shop to sell the type of product she sells. Therefore, she does not see herself as being innovative. In an apparently similar fashion, Kate also refers to an entrepreneur as an innovator (doing something unique), yet at the same time, distances herself from being innovative:

An entrepreneur is someone in my mind, who has come up with a brilliant idea and made money on it, and made money on it, or done something unique. I don't see that I don't class myself as being unique (ha ha) – Kate

Elly, Jane and Kate all, without prompting, distanced themselves from being an innovator, and therefore also distanced themselves from being an entrepreneur. These women all show signs of constructing the term entrepreneur in relation to what they haven't done in their own business ventures. However, other women did not, such as Emma and Ann:

I think its people starting something new, something different
and achieving things – Emma

Innovative and creative, bloody hard working – Ann

Emma and Ann continue with the theme of an entrepreneur being someone who is innovative or doing something new.

6.3.2.2 Men participants

In contrast, while a similar number of men named innovation (eight) to be a term they use to construct the term 'entrepreneur', there appear to be no instances where they distance themselves from being an entrepreneur in a similar way to Jane, Kate and Elly. For Grant, John and Pete, they construct the term entrepreneur in relation to being innovative yet do not offer their own experiences in business into their description:

See something and wants to do differently – Grant

Forging new ground - Pete

Both of these men focus on the newness or difference of something. In addition to these views, John, Keith and Trevor talk of an entrepreneur as being someone who is quick to reach the market:

Innovative, new ideas and I guess ability to turn those things
into reality and do those things – John

Somebody has invented a new smart way of doing something
they are first in the market with the idea, and they build it up
and often they destroy it as well – Keith

To me a true entrepreneur is someone who is first or second
there, no good being fifth. It's lost - Trevor.

The idea presented by these men participants suggests that taking a product or service to market is a distinguishing factor of an entrepreneur. Keith's description of an entrepreneur highlights multiple ideas, but he focuses on being innovative in terms of inventing something and being able to carry through the idea to commercialisation. As Table 6.3 shows, there is little difference between women and men in this sample in terms of the incidence of innovation as a term to construct the notion of an entrepreneur. In addition, the explanations of an innovative person or an innovation or invention appear similar; a focus on doing something differently, or something that is new. Others focus on being first to market, and this emerges as features of innovation for some of the men participants. However, what does appear as interesting is that some women tend to construct the terms to describe an entrepreneur and in the same instance, distance themselves from being innovative. They name similar characteristics of innovation as the men participants, yet in some cases, women add a further explanation of why they are not innovative in what they do in their own businesses. This is an example of women not applying 'being innovative' to themselves. Therefore, because being innovative is something that characterises the term entrepreneur, and they are unable to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. There are no such cases of men doing this, and it appears that some of the women lack the ability to consider they can be entrepreneurial. It also hints that these women perhaps lack confidence in their own abilities and businesses, and is something to consider in future sections.

6.3.3 Risk

An entrepreneur is also described by some of the participants as being involved with risk. As displayed in Table 6.4, seven women and five men say an entrepreneur is characterised by someone who takes risks.

Table 6. 4 Participants who name risk

Women	Men
Jean	Gerry
Kay	Gordon
Rachelle	Harry
Rae	Stew
Sara	Steve
Sue	
Viv	

6.3.3.1 Women participants

Seven women participants use risk as part of their description of how they construct the term entrepreneur. To begin this section, I start with Jean and Sue's views on risk (elsewhere in her interview (Section 6.7) Sue makes it clear that she considers herself an entrepreneur)⁵⁵:

An entrepreneur to me is someone who takes risks, and usually you see an entrepreneurial person as someone that never gets knocked down, or they get knocked down they are back up again fighting – Jean

I guess you have to be pretty self-driven and you have to be prepared to take risks, and be prepared for things if they all turn to custard. Quite strong I guess – Sue

As these two women suggest, they view risk as not being isolated, but see it as linked with other terms to describe an entrepreneur. Jean focuses not only on risk, but also on the resilience of the entrepreneur, who she sees as someone who does not quit. Sue also appears to allude to a similar view when she describes an entrepreneur, and both women describe the possibility of failure, with Sue focusing on dealing with the potential consequences of failure. Sue had just made several of her staff redundant at the time of our interview, and was facing the possibility that her business was not going to survive much longer. Kay is another woman participant who also views an entrepreneur as someone who takes risks, and her lengthy quote below provides further insights into the type and nature of risks that she sees entrepreneurs taking:

I think an entrepreneur is someone who is prepared to take quite distinct risks in business, irrespective of the effect that might have on children, so I would never class myself as an entrepreneur. Yes, I am a business owner, yes I am prepared to take an element of risk, grow that business, and develop that business. Having a business itself is a risk. Could all collapse under your feet tomorrow. People like Richard Branson are entrepreneurs. They are prepared to put everything at risk for the whole thing...I will go so far with a calculated risk, but I think if it were blatantly obvious that if it went wrong it would

⁵⁵ In some cases, it is useful to know whether the participant consider themselves entrepreneurs in these Sections. However, a full explanation of whether the participants apply the term to themselves is conducted in Section 6.7.

have a bad influence on my family or my children life and what they were able to achieve, and in that case I am not an entrepreneur because I think about people – Kay

Kay also describes the potential for business failure, but she highlights an expanded version of entrepreneurial risk than Jean and Sue speak of. Kay links her family to the degree of risk she takes, and describes her own experiences in relation to risk taking. Like the words of some of the other women participants in earlier sections of this chapter, Kay distinguishes herself from the entrepreneur she describes. Kay is well aware of the possible effect of her business on her children and family. In her case, she is prepared to take some risk but in no way does she consider herself to be a true entrepreneur, because she is only willing to take a certain level of risk. Kay's measure of the level of risk she is willing to take is directly linked to her family. Kay has two children and her husband is in paid employment (linking risk taking with the possible detriment of the family is further explored in Chapter Eight). Sara also talks of an expanded version of business risk, and suggests there is personal risk involved in being an entrepreneur:

I think [it] is an attitude. I think it is somebody who is willing to take risks, whether it be financial or anything. Really, I think it is kind of almost a personal risk thing - Sara

Sara speaks of two different types of risks, the financial risk which is obvious in business, and is mentioned by Kay and Sue, and another type of risk – personal risk or risk to one's family.

6.3.3.2 Men participants

However, for some of the men participants, risk is described more in terms of business or financial risk. Gerry and Gordon both describe an entrepreneur as someone who is prepared to take risks:

They take risks, calculated obviously - Gerry

Willing to take a risk - Gordon

When considering the types of risk the men participants refer to, Gerry and Gordon appear purely aligned with 'business' risk. Meanwhile, Stew also believes an

entrepreneur is characterised by risk taking, but he, like Kay, distinguishes himself from an entrepreneur based on the level of risks he takes:

Takes a novel idea, with some risk attached to it...I don't think I do anything particularly risky - Stew

Stew is the only man to suggest that while he sees risk as a feature of an entrepreneur, he does not find he takes enough risk to meet his description of an entrepreneur. Thus, while most examples in this chapter point to women participants being unwilling (unable) to accept the entrepreneurial role, Stew provides an example of how he does not see himself as a risk taker, or therefore, an entrepreneur. However, no men describe risk in relation to their families. Harry's quote describes a type of risk that involves money:

Prepared to take a risk. When you leave salary, you risk nest egg, property, mortgage, and you have to achieve that dream through your own efforts – Harry

Harry's notion of an entrepreneur as someone taking risks is concerned with the potential risk to physical assets and money. However, he also suggests that it is possible for an entrepreneur to overcome the risk that she/he might take. Harry suggests that if an entrepreneur puts 'effort' into a business, then they shall achieve their dreams. What this implies is that Harry sees an entrepreneur as having an ability to control their own destiny, and he seems to not consider that external factors (such as changes in the market) may have the potential to impinge on the fulfilment of the entrepreneurs' dreams.

While it appears that women and men are relatively similar in terms of the number of accounts where risk taking emerge as a term, their explanations of what 'risk' means to them may reveal gender differences. Risk appears as an attribute for both women and men but the nature and actual meaning of risk appears different in some cases. Kay focuses on a much more interdependent view of risk, with her linking it to the family. Kay distances herself from being an entrepreneur based on the levels and types of risk she takes. In contrast, the men participants describe a narrow form of risk that relates to financial risk. The men participants speak of risk in terms of its common business usage (eg. calculated risk, financial risk), and do not link this to external factors such as

the family, but some are aware of risk to physical assets surrounding the family (eg. mortgage on a property). It is interesting to note that there seems to be a continuum of risk taking, with different levels or degrees of risk being described by different participants.

In summary, these three terms used most commonly (execution, innovation, risk) by the participants in this study to describe an entrepreneur do not show gender differences in terms of the incidence of the term being used. However, upon closer examination of the voices of the participants, it can be seen that in a few cases, the differences in meanings are where gender differences may be seen. This is shown where several women (and Stew) discount the possibility that they meet their own description of what an entrepreneur is. While few gender differences are apparent in these three commonly discussed terms to describe an entrepreneur, some terms offer more gender differences. The most obvious is describing an entrepreneur as a man, or naming a man, and these accounts follow.

6.3.4 Describing or naming a man

Six of the women participants suggest the entrepreneur they describe is a man, or some name a man in relation to their description of an entrepreneur (Table 6.5). Needless to say, none of the women participants who characterise an entrepreneur as a man think of themselves as entrepreneurs. In contrast, of the four men who use male pronouns or describe a male entrepreneur, three (Mike, Todd and Brent) consider themselves to be entrepreneurs.

Table 6. 5 Participants who say an entrepreneur is a man/name a man

Women	Men
Beth	Brent
Emma	Mike
Kay	Steve
Lisa	Todd
Rachelle	
Viv	

6.3.4.1 Women participants

Firstly, the views of the women are presented; beginning with those who suggest an entrepreneur is someone they associate with being a man. In the six instances where women participants describe or name a man, some of these women explicitly describe an entrepreneur as being a male (others name a man). To begin, Beth suggests an entrepreneur is a ‘male’ and then goes on to talk in more depth about the other required characteristics she sees an entrepreneur must have:

They are probably male (laugh), they would probably have an aggressive competitive streak that I don't have, yeah, that was a key difference I would say that they, yeah, that they really have a slightly more ball breaking issue, that they go into win, whereas I wouldn't I would go into play, but I would not go into win - Beth

This comment by Beth makes reference to an entrepreneur being a man, but also links this to other factors, such as winning, an aggressive competitive streak, and being ball-breaking. These additional factors that appear in her account to be suggestive of masculine traits. What Beth then does is distinguish herself from the entrepreneur, and she notes that she is less competitive than this entrepreneur she describes. In Beth’s description, she limits the degree of competition she is prepared to engage in, and suggests that she is not as serious about being a winner, but is happy considering herself as being a player. Her description of an entrepreneur is constructed based upon a distinctly male notion of an entrepreneur. Hence, when she views herself in relation to this description, she finds she cannot ‘fit’ the description, and therefore does not see herself as an entrepreneur (see also Section 6.7). Beth is not the only woman who is quite specific about her description of an entrepreneur being a man. Lisa also comments:

Is a guy who is about 35-40, and he has a really clever idea, usually about making something, and he makes something that is hugely successful, and he gets bought out from someone in the [United] States and makes lots of money – Lisa

In addition to describing a “guy”, Lisa also talks about an entrepreneur as being someone who is successful, with success being measured in terms of making a lot of money and going on to sell the business offshore. The following two women (Rachelle

and Viv) suggest their views of entrepreneurs are influenced more obviously by external factors:

Um, I think the media associates that with males, so it's hard to think that you could be that [an entrepreneur] and be a female
– Rachelle

If you thought of an entrepreneur, the only people you think of are men, aren't they? Which is very interesting – Viv

Both Rachelle and Viv's views suggest they are influenced by the public image of entrepreneurs in the media. Rachelle links her perception of an entrepreneur to one created in the media, and this influences her views of an entrepreneur. Viv goes further to suggest that she finds it 'interesting' that she can only think of entrepreneurs as men. While these three women all give descriptions of an entrepreneur as being a man, three other women (Beth, Kay and Emma) automatically think of prominent male entrepreneurs or sporting figures when asked what they consider an entrepreneur to be:

Peter Blake that has just lost his life today. He was, he was.
[Pause] I would say he would be one of the better ones [entrepreneurs]. I wouldn't have thought of him perhaps if he hadn't died, but he was a person who has done something for the country, not only for himself. He pumped thousands of dollars into the New Zealand economy – Emma

Emma's example of a top New Zealand yachtsman as an entrepreneur highlights that the money issue need not only be for personal gain, yet in this case, she sees Peter Blake as someone who contributed money to the nation's economy. All three of these women construct the idea of an entrepreneur around a specific person (a man). For them, the very word entrepreneur seems to be gendered. One woman participant describes her view of an entrepreneur, and names a prominent New Zealand businessman in her description of an entrepreneur:

When you say entrepreneur I would be going, you know Eric Watson – Beth

Following her earlier view, this statement about the entrepreneur being a male, Beth goes on to discuss the different perceptions that she has between women and men entrepreneurs. She offers these words:

[if] I think of female entrepreneurs I would probably think of Anita Roddick - Beth

Beth firstly suggests that an entrepreneur is a male, and if she has to think of female entrepreneurs as a separate category, she thinks of Anita Roddick of The Body Shop. This statement, in addition to the views of the other women who say an entrepreneur is a man, adds further weight to the suggestion that the word entrepreneur, as constructed by these women, is gendered. Anita Roddick is the only woman entrepreneur whose name was mentioned by any of the participants. In one other case, two women entrepreneurs are suggested by Viv, but in relation to their businesses, and not specifically naming the women as entrepreneurs:

Look around and see a number of women who do it [entrepreneurship]. Lisa's hummus, [the] perfume lady up North. I definitely don't think I did that - Viv

The two quotes from Beth and Viv suggest the term entrepreneur needs to be prefaced by the words woman or female, as they automatically assume an entrepreneur is a male. What Viv's description also shows is her distancing herself from the two women entrepreneur's businesses she names. Here, Viv compares herself to these 'successful' women entrepreneurs and doesn't believe she can be classed as being in their league. Here, Viv seems to accept that other women may be able to assume an entrepreneurial role, but she feels she cannot. The six women participants who either describe an entrepreneur as being a man or who name a man provide an interesting starting point to compare the experiences of the four men who do so.

6.3.4.2 Men participants

Constructing an entrepreneur as a man is suggested by some of the men participants, but in somewhat different ways to the women participants. In these cases, the differences lie in men participants using 'he' implicitly, rather than explicitly saying an entrepreneur is a man. However, it is still interesting to see some of the male participants refer to an entrepreneur as being a man, as highlighted in the first instance by comments from Mike and Brent:

I believe an entrepreneur is a maker, he wants things to happen. He is a person who is a person who doesn't want to sit back, but actually wants to make things a reality – Mike

I think the sign of an entrepreneur is a person who will give it a go and sometimes he will succeed and sometimes he won't. If this person doesn't succeed they are still an entrepreneur. He is prepared to give it a go - Brent

Mike and Brent both (perhaps unconsciously) use the word 'he' to describe entrepreneurs and they both switch between using the terms 'person' and 'he'. While the use of 'he' may have been unintentional, it nevertheless offers grounds to suggest that even some of the men construct their views of an entrepreneur as being a man. This is supported by Todd and Steve's descriptions of an entrepreneur, where they both name a male entrepreneur. Todd uses an example of Donald Trump as an exemplar case of an entrepreneur. Steve names an Auckland restaurant owner (also a male) as an entrepreneur. The men name no women entrepreneurs in their descriptions of an entrepreneur.

It is evident that for some of the participants, their view of an entrepreneur is a masculine one. The views of the women who construct their view of an entrepreneur as (in part) being a man is certainly more explicit than those of the men entrepreneurs, where the women actually point out that they believe an entrepreneur in their view is a 'man', a 'male' or a 'guy'. Alternatively, the men participants are less explicit about an entrepreneur being a man but do, however, use the male pronoun in several instances to describe an entrepreneur. In addition, both women and men name several examples of entrepreneurs, and all of these entrepreneurs are men too. Here, the gendered nature of the term entrepreneur emerges most strongly, where some of the women participants recognise that they individually cannot accept the entrepreneurial role. Thus, it can be suggested that for these women participants, their constructions of an entrepreneur are masculine, and they feel alienated from these images. In addition to the women, several of the men implicitly or unconsciously refer to an entrepreneur using a male pronoun. These two findings allow us to suggest that the very concept of an entrepreneur is gendered, and is mostly associated with being masculine.

It appears that the four most recurrent terms participants use to describe an entrepreneur can be further classified into three different areas of focus. Some of the terms specifically focus on the person (describing or naming a man), some terms focus on the process of entrepreneurship (risk, execution of an idea, innovation), and some may also

focus on the outcomes of entrepreneurship (but none of these four terms do). With respect to the person, only one term emerges for both women and men participants. The focus of a number of participants on the idea that an entrepreneur is someone they most associate with being a man is the sole theme in this category. A further set of terms used to describe an entrepreneur appear to focus on what I have termed the ‘process’ of entrepreneurship. This category bears some resemblance to the economic theories of entrepreneurship that are concerned with ideas, innovation and risk. These defining features of entrepreneurs have already been considered in Chapter Two. These factors regarding the process of entrepreneurship do not focus specifically on a person, but relate to having an idea, or an innovation, and going on to execute these ideas or innovations. The participants also focus on risk taking. In the final category of terms used to describe an entrepreneur, examples such as making money is not concerned with a person or the process of entrepreneurship, but appears to be an outcome of entrepreneurial behaviour. These categories of terms provide a good way to organise the following two sections, which explore terms used by women or men participants only.

6.4 Terms described by women participants

While Section 6.3 focuses on the key patterns and themes that emerge from both women and men, it is important to revisit the second column of terms listed in Table 6.1. These are the terms that are described only by women. Table 6.6 lists these further terms that are described only by women participants (each term was named by either one or two women participants). As illustrated above, the terms the participants use to describe an entrepreneur can be classified into three distinguishable categories. Some terms focus on the person (personality), some focus on the process of entrepreneurship, and some focus on the outcomes of entrepreneurship. I use these three categories in Table 6.6 as a way of understanding the nature of the terms the women participants use to describe an entrepreneur.

Table 6. 6 Terms described by women participants

Person	Process	Outcomes
Aggressive	Big picture	Achieving things
An attitude	Go getter	Be successful
Ball breaking	Go in to win	Get up fighting
Challenge	Fun	
Competitive streak	Making something	
Hard worker	Take a chance	
Strong	Think outside of square	
	Use others money	

The terms listed in Table 6.6 show that the women participants speak of many terms associated with a person (such as their personality traits). Terms such as ball breaking, aggressive, and having a competitive streak are words that one woman uses in combination with the entrepreneur being described as a man. In particular, the ball breaking term is particularly associated with masculine traits, as are other traits such as being strong. In terms of the entrepreneurial process, some women suggest that an entrepreneur is someone who is making something, thinks outside of the square, sees the big picture, or takes a chance. Cara and Jean expand here:

An entrepreneur, I would say, is someone, I would say, who takes more chances. Probably more chances with other people's money, do you know what I mean – Cara

I think people that think outside the square. Yeah, I would say my husband is probably more entrepreneurial than me because he does things different – Jean

Both Cara and Jean return to what appears to be a common theme running through many of the women's accounts when they are describing an entrepreneur. They both describe an entrepreneur and then contrast it to themselves. With no prompting, these two women explain what they see an entrepreneur to be, and then distance themselves from being an entrepreneur. For example, Cara suggests she has not taken enough 'chances' to be an entrepreneur, and has taken a relatively low risk approach to business, where she funded her businesses from her own finances. Jean is more direct in distancing herself from what she considers to be entrepreneurial. Thinking outside of the square is how Jean sees an entrepreneur, and she views her husband, an entrepreneur in the building industry, to exhibit greater 'difference' than herself and her own

business. For Dee, she also relates her description of an entrepreneur to her own experiences:

If it looks like fun, [husband] and I give it a go - Dee

She suggests that an entrepreneur should have fun, something she and her husband try to do with respect to their businesses. Terms that relate to outcomes of entrepreneurship that emerge for the women participants include being successful. For Shirley, although she suggests that success is how she describes an entrepreneur, she suggests that external measures of success are not as important as the internal fulfilment of the entrepreneur's own view of success:

Be successful. [The] measure of success is the fulfilment of their vision of success – Shirley

The terms described only by women participants vary widely, and show elements of each of the three categories suggested here. The women participants continue to suggest that they look outside of themselves when describing an entrepreneur, and several women here offer explanations of why they do not consider that they fit their description of an entrepreneur.

6.5 Terms described by men participants

Like the women participants, terms that are named only by men participants are aligned with all three categories (person, process, outcomes) of entrepreneurship. In a similar vein to the terms described only by women participants, Table 6.7 shows the terms that are each stated by one or two of the male participants. One exception applies regarding the identifying of opportunities. This is named by eight men participants as being a component of their description of an entrepreneur. I continue to structure this section around the three categories - the person, process and outcomes of entrepreneurship.

Table 6. 7 Terms described by men participants

Person	Process	Outcomes
Abundance philosophy Brave Clever Driven Energetic Midas touch	Build relationships with things Give it a go Identify opportunities (8) Impeccable timing Move resources See things others don't Sell self Take own path	Captain of industry Fingers in many pies More than one company Possibly fail Responsibility for own destiny

In terms of describing an entrepreneur as having certain personality characteristics, some men use such terms as being brave, energetic, clever, and driven. However, the focus for the men participants is on the process of entrepreneurship, and in particular, the identification of opportunities. Eight of the men participants consider the identification of opportunities (differentiated from execution) to be a feature of how they construct the term entrepreneur. The absence of identification of opportunities from the women participants' accounts may be related to the idea that women do not see opportunities because they may not be in positions to identify opportunities. Here, this refers to both human and social capital, and includes factors such as the level of management experience, types of jobs, and the nature and extent of the networks they have. I leave this discussion to Chapter Seven, but the tentative suggestion made here is that women see fewer opportunities than men, so women are therefore unable to describe the identification of opportunities as a component of an entrepreneur. Eight men use terms that relate to the identification of opportunities when describing their views of an entrepreneur. Gordon and Gary suggest an entrepreneur is someone who can see opportunities:

See a market opportunity and wanting to give it a crack –
Gordon

An entrepreneur in my view is a person who identifies an
opportunity and then acts on it – Gary

The views of Gordon and Gary re-emphasise that some people may identify opportunities but choose not to act on them (like the previous discussion of ideas and execution of these). George picks up on another theme that seems to pervade some of

the participants' responses. George refers to an entrepreneur as having confidence to carry through an opportunity that one identifies:

I saw this opportunity, but I think, for an entrepreneur, they'll say yep, I can do that, and have the confidence to actually do it
– George

George links these two issues specifically, where he sees identifying an opportunity as well as having the confidence to execute it. These three men focus on seeing an opportunity, and suggest that doing so may be relatively obvious to them. However, Gerry takes this one step further when he suggests that opportunities don't merely become visible to entrepreneurs, but entrepreneurs can actually create opportunities:

They look for opportunities and they drop on board, they create opportunities – Gerry

Gerry talks of finding opportunities in a different and more active way, where an entrepreneur will look for and 'create' opportunities. In both of these cases (identifying opportunities, or going further to create opportunities), no women use this term to describe an entrepreneur. The implications of these gender differences in the incidence of participants using the term 'identifying opportunities' must be considered.

Some of the terms used by the men participants also refer to terms that can be considered to involve the outcomes of the entrepreneurial process. Here, several men participants see an entrepreneur as a captain of industry, have their fingers in many pies, and as someone who has more than one company. Ralph and Todd expand:

I kind of see an entrepreneur as being someone who has fingers in a few pies to be honest – Ralph
It is actually someone who is responsible for their own destiny – Todd

The terms used to describe an entrepreneur that are only stated by men suggest that men may draw from a wider range of sources than women when they describe an entrepreneur. This is particularly evident in identifying opportunities, where eight men participants see an entrepreneur as being someone who can identify opportunities. The terms used to describe an entrepreneur have been presented for all three groups of participants (both women and men, only women, and only men) and now the discussion

moves towards comparing their constructions with the prior literature and the definition of an entrepreneur that I use for this thesis.

6.6 Comparing definitions and terms

Chapter Two outlined the various definitions of an entrepreneur in the literature, and discovered that definitions focus on three main areas: risk taking (Hebert & Link, 1989; Long, 1983; Stewart et al., 1996), founding a business (Belcourt, 1987a; Brockhaus, 1987; Bruyat & Julien, 2000; Gartner, 1990; Goss, 1991; Hamilton, 1987; Shane et al., 1991; Wright et al., 1997), and innovation (Carland et al., 1984; Drucker, 1985; Gartner, 1990; Schumpeter, 1934; Stewart et al., 1996).

The definition of an entrepreneur used for this thesis is that of a founder (someone who creates a new business), with an additional condition of employing at least one other paid employee. This founder definition of an entrepreneur appears to be somewhat likened to a type of ‘risk taking’, as starting a new business almost certainly involves some type of risk and uncertainty. Innovation is not a required component of the definition used in this thesis, but innovative entrepreneurs are not excluded from the sample. As described in Section 6.2, the participants in this study use a multitude of terms to describe what they consider an entrepreneur to be. The following table (Table 6.8) shows how these terms compare with both the literature and the definitions used in this thesis.

Table 6. 8 Comparing definitions and terms

Definition/term	Literature	This thesis’s definition	Participants terms
Founding a business	√	√	√ (Execution of idea or innovation)
Innovation	√	X	√ (Or idea)
Male	√	X	√
Money	X	X	√
Risk	√	√ (Employing others)	√

The founding behaviour that is shown in the literature and used for this thesis does not emerge for participants as such, but the ‘execution’ category they describe appears to be

related to people taking an idea or innovation or opportunity further, and for all of the participants in this study, the execution of these factors involved starting a business. Innovation is a defining feature in the literature, but is not a required condition for the definition of an entrepreneur for this thesis. However, as Table 6.3 indicates, innovation is a feature of an entrepreneur that is described by many of the participants. With respect to risk taking, in this thesis I suggest risk taking is similar to founding a business and employing others, both of which are potentially risky decisions. In addition, actually seeing an idea, or identifying an opportunity (for men participants) are also themes that are common among the participants. In summary, the definitions and terms from the literature, this thesis, and the participants, all appear relatively consistent. However, given that women and men use different terms to describe an entrepreneur, the following section analyses the participants' responses regarding whether they believe they are entrepreneurs. Section 6.7 is therefore concerned with understanding whether the participants apply the term entrepreneurs to themselves.

6.7 Applying the term entrepreneur

The literature review in Chapter Three suggests that an entrepreneur is a term that is more commonly associated with men than women (Lee-Gosselin & Gris , 1990; Ljunggren & Alsos, 2001; Simpson, 1991; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991; Verheul et al., 2002). The second part of Research Question Two is aimed at addressing whether the participants apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. Most of the discussion in the interviews was complex and very difficult to divide into distinct yes/no answers (and indeed it wasn't the purpose of the constructivist approach to obtain this type of response). However, for this part of the research question, a yes or no type of response is appropriate in the first instance regarding whether the participants consider themselves to be entrepreneurs. The responses to this question mark the starting point of this section, which goes on to investigate the application of the term entrepreneur. The incidence of the participants who consider themselves to be entrepreneurs is presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6. 9 Participants who are entrepreneurs

Women	Men
Dee	Brent
Sara	Don
Sarah	Gary
Sue	George
Shirley	Gerry
	Gordon
	Grant
	Harry
	John
	Keith
	Max
	Mike
	Pete
	Rob
	Todd
	Simon

6.7.1 Women participants

Table 6.9 illustrates that only five of the 25 women participants consider themselves to be entrepreneurs, while in comparison, 16 of the 25 men do so. The gender differences in terms of the incidence of a 'yes' answer is a strong indicator that the women and men participants differ in their application of the term entrepreneur to themselves. However, the key objective of this section is to move beyond the incidence of participants in Table 6.9, to understand the application of the term entrepreneur from both women's and men's perspectives. Given that many women seem reluctant to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves, it is important first to carefully consider the participants who do consider themselves entrepreneurs. As reported in Table 6.9, five women consider themselves entrepreneurs. Because of this small number, I report all of their views, beginning with Sara, Sue and Dee:

I think I must be to a certain extent – Sara

I guess I am, um, I wouldn't normally go out and say yes, that's what I am – Sue

Yes, I think I am, but compared to what? – Dee

In the case of these three women participants, there is a distinct sense that they agree they are entrepreneurs, but do so with hesitancy and are not completely sure that they

really are entrepreneurs. Sue agrees she may be an entrepreneur, but refers to a reluctance to tell others she is an entrepreneur. Dee also highlights the difficulty she has in defining an entrepreneur, as she doesn't know how to describe one. In a similar way, Sarah thinks she might be an entrepreneur, but only became one after a period of time:

Um, I think I probably am now, I don't think I was...so I think I have become one. I don't think I was born one. I also have a lot more confidence about myself now that I had - Sarah.

Sarah had often been told by others that they thought she was an entrepreneur, and she thinks she has become one over time. She speaks about her gaining in confidence in the same statement. This suggests that being able to apply the term entrepreneur may be related to being confident about ones self. In contrast to the four women who are not entirely sure of themselves being entrepreneurs, the remaining woman who can apply the term entrepreneur to herself does so with more conviction:

Yes, I was brought up to be - Shirley

Shirley, while agreeing she is an entrepreneur, adds a further dimension to her answer, suggesting that her parents (who were farmers) instilled an entrepreneurial spirit into her as she was growing up. This suggests that she looks to others when considering whether she is an entrepreneur, she believes her upbringing (See also Section 8.2) has affected how she views herself in terms of being an entrepreneur. The views of the other women participants are less certain than Shirley. The four other women participants who do consider they are entrepreneurs do so with trepidation. The remaining 20 women who believe they are not entrepreneurs offer an alternative view. None of these women feel they can apply the term to themselves, and they offer many different ways of saying 'no':

No (laugh) – Ann

No, not at all. No – Viv

No, I don't actually – Cath

Haven't really thought of myself as being an entrepreneur –
Kay

It can be seen that for these first four women, they are quite confident that they do not consider themselves to be entrepreneurs. Ann even found this question amusing. It seems that these women have not considered the possibility that they may be entrepreneurs. These women clearly cannot apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. Elly and Mary, on the other hand, had to think for some time about whether they are entrepreneurs or not:

Ahh, (pause). Not really - Mary

(Long Pause). No, not really, not an entrepreneur – Elly

Both Mary and Elly pause before offering their responses to whether they believe they are entrepreneurs, while they think carefully about their answers to this question. Two other women who do not apply the term to themselves offer more of an explanation of the rationale behind their responses:

It is hard to say, no I don't really, I always just look at myself as a busy little worker (Laugh) – Jean

No, I consider myself a worker. I am a worker - Cara

Jean and Cara's responses suggest that they see themselves as being a worker but do not view themselves as an entrepreneur. Jean and Cara both suggest that an entrepreneur and a 'worker' are somehow different, and while both pride themselves on working very hard in their businesses, they do not think of their work as entrepreneurial. Kate and Ann are two more women who do not apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. Their comments offer further insights into the reasons why they cannot apply it to themselves:

I don't actually see myself as an entrepreneur...I see myself as a businessperson, not a businesswoman particularly – Kate

Kate's quote not only shows she doesn't apply the term entrepreneur to herself, but adds a further dimension. She also indicates that she is not willing to apply the term businesswoman to herself, further distancing herself from anything related to being entrepreneurial or businesslike. In addition, Ann also talks about why she doesn't see herself as being an entrepreneur:

It has taken me 25 years for me, like that, to realise that I can run a decent outfit. But, I think if I had not been pushed into it I probably would have never. So you know, I would love to be

one of these, you know, born entrepreneurial from day one –
Ann

Ann speaks about lacking confidence, where she feels she would not have started her own business without experiencing difficulties at work (See Section 7.2). She went into business in 1995 with two other male colleagues from work, and her quote shows she lacked confidence for some time before and after starting the business. Ann is aged in her early fifties, and has only become confident in herself in the last 25 years. Her words are interesting because she speaks of taking 25 years to realise she can run a good business, but this timeframe also refers to times before she had a business of her own, so she is speaking about her time as a manager in paid employment. Ann also speaks about being born entrepreneurial, and her wishing that she had been born an entrepreneur.

6.7.2 Men participants

In direct opposition to the women participants, Table 6.9 shows that 16 of the 25 men participants are able to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. In almost complete contrast to the words of the women, many of the men who consider themselves entrepreneurs are quick to say yes, with little hesitancy and no doubt, as shown in this first set of comments by four of the men participants:

Yep, yep. - Gordon

Yes, always – Brent

I consider myself an entrepreneur – Pete

I'd like to think of myself as that – John

These four men all apply the term entrepreneur to themselves with ease. In the case of some of the other men participants, they offer more detailed insights into their views. When Simon asked if he considered himself an entrepreneur, he replied:

I wouldn't have been this successful to date if I hadn't been. Not that I have made a lot of money – Simon

Simon seems to consider it should be obvious to everyone that he is an entrepreneur. Simon's quote offers a further interesting notion. He assumes he is an entrepreneur and

has been ‘successful’, yet suggests he has not been financially successful. It is unclear what Simon considers success to be. Simon’s statements, and those of the other men who apply the term entrepreneur to themselves, illustrate a selection of the 16 men participants’ who consider themselves entrepreneurs. Several of the male entrepreneurs put a caveat on their answers, as shown by Todd, Mike and Don:

I think of myself as an entrepreneur, not in the Donald Trump sense – Todd

Try to, try to – Mike

Yes, up to a point – Don

What the experiences of these men suggest is that men are not limited to accepting the entrepreneurial role, and seem to apply the term to themselves with relative ease. In contrast to the 20 women who indicate they do not consider themselves to be entrepreneurs, only seven men do not apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. Monty does not apply the term to himself:

No, [I am] a bit dull. A bit dull – Monty

Monty compares himself to his perceived notion of an entrepreneur and finds himself lacking something. Trevor, Stew and Steve also offer further explanations of as to why they do not consider themselves to be entrepreneurs:

I never thought of myself as an entrepreneur but yes, going into business is a big risk – Steve

Hardly (laughs). I don’t think I do anything particularly risky – Stew

Stew and Steve suggest a description of an entrepreneur that is related to the degree and nature of risk involved. Stew believes he isn’t exhibiting ‘enough’ risk to be an entrepreneur, while Steve also distinguishes the entrepreneur from the risk taker. For others, risk is not a reference point in their description of an entrepreneur, but seeing an opportunity or owning multiple businesses is. Trevor focuses on the idea that while he can see opportunities, he differentiates this from an entrepreneur:

I would say I look for opportunities, I wouldn’t say specifically an entrepreneur – Trevor

While Trevor does not consider himself an entrepreneur, he does mention identifying opportunities as part of his description of an entrepreneur. This suggests that, like some of the women participants, Trevor is reluctant to apply the term to himself, yet considers seeing opportunities to be part of his view of what an entrepreneur is. Two other men participants, Ralph and Marty, explain why they too don't apply the term entrepreneur to themselves:

This guy [friend], he has (sic), just making so much money but he runs a real estate company. He runs another company, and another company, and another company. I see him as being an entrepreneur...I would just say I am a small business owner –
Ralph

Ralph's method of applying the term entrepreneur comes from external sources. He looks to one of his friends as an exemplar, and finds that he cannot compare himself to his friend. His friend, who owns many companies, makes what Ralph considers to be a lot of money. Using his friend as a measure means that Ralph considers himself a small business owner rather than an entrepreneur. While Ralph looks externally to explain why he doesn't apply the term entrepreneur to himself, for Marty, the measure is different:

I don't see myself as an entrepreneur, I see myself as a person who gets out and gets on with what they want to do. And thinks it's the appropriate thing to do – Marty

What Marty's voice suggests is that he looks to himself as someone who does what they want to do, but is not entrepreneurial. In summary, most of the women participants appear reluctant to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves, while many of the men have little hesitation in believing that they are entrepreneurs. Some women seem to be describing men, and subsequently cannot apply the category to themselves (especially the five women who consider an entrepreneur to be explicitly masculine). Most of the women are unable to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves, and hence do not consider themselves to be entrepreneurs. In the case of the women participants, only five believe they are entrepreneurs. Others have found this also to be the case (Verheul et al., 2002). This may be partially due to the finding that media attention towards entrepreneurs tends to be focused on a small number of men, and seldom shows women entrepreneurs (Ahl, 2003; Ljunggren & Alsos, 2001). Some women participants link their view of an entrepreneur to external sources such as the media and others they

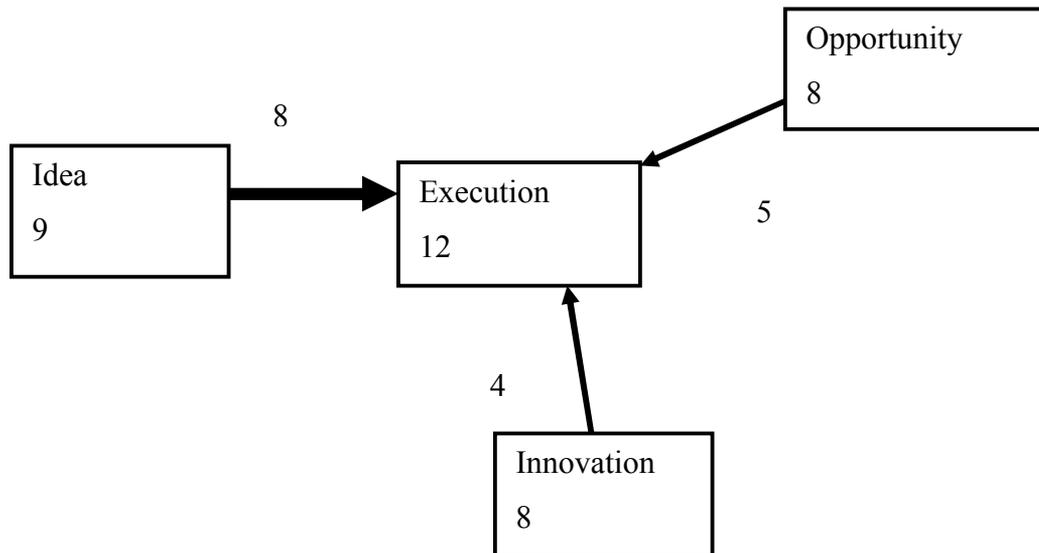
know. Therefore, from this external view, women compare themselves with people such as Richard Branson or Eric Watson and they perceive themselves as somehow 'lacking' the necessary characteristics of an entrepreneur.

Returning to Bourdieu's (2001) theorisations of symbolic violence, the findings in this section suggest that the construction of the term entrepreneur fits his ideas that men construct categories (terms) of entrepreneurs, and women attempt to apply these categories (terms) to themselves and find they cannot. What this suggests is that the categories constructed by men are considered to be natural, and that the very term entrepreneur is one that is constructed and applied by men, but not by women. Indeed, this chapter has illustrated that Bourdieu's (2001) theorisations are appropriate to apply to the term entrepreneur.

6.8 Discussion

Given that this chapter has illustrated that women and men construct their meanings of the term entrepreneur differently, and also that many women participants are unable to apply the term entrepreneur to themselves, the opportunity arises for offering further explanations. As can be seen in the voices presented in this chapter, many illustrate the participants connecting several terms together to explain what an entrepreneur means to them. Thus, a further gender difference can also be seen when looking at how each entrepreneur combines various terms together in their description of an entrepreneur. Few women participants see relationships between the terms used to describe an entrepreneur. When viewing women's responses regarding all of the terms they use to describe an entrepreneur, few patterns can be established. However, it is interesting to view the men's descriptions first, because their responses show much more of a linked approach to the terms to describe an entrepreneur, as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 How men link the terms to describe an entrepreneur



The connections that many of the men participants make between the terms they use to describe an entrepreneur are shown in Figure 6.1⁵⁶. As discussed earlier in this chapter, the male participants use terms such as ideas, execution, innovation and identifying opportunities to describe an entrepreneur. What many of the men participants also do is link these four terms together when they describe an entrepreneur. As illustrated above, 12 men (the number inside the box) suggest the execution of an idea/innovation or opportunity characterises an entrepreneur. Many of the men link this execution with other factors. For example, of the nine men who say that having an idea is a term they think of when describing an entrepreneur, Figure 6.1 shows (the number on the arrow) that eight of these men also suggest that execution of that idea is important in defining an entrepreneur. In a similar vein, five of the eight men who describe identifying an opportunity as a defining attribute also talk of execution of opportunities. Lastly, men in four cases also link innovation and execution. The terms that show linkages are all those that relate to what I have termed the process of entrepreneurship. Other recurring terms named by women and men (risk and a man) do not appear to be spoken about in relation to any other terms when describing an entrepreneur.

⁵⁶ This figure shows the idea and execution phases broken down, as in this case, one man named idea but did not talk about execution.

However, there is no comparable diagram that can be presented for the women participants. As a group, they seemingly do not see an entrepreneur as someone engaged in a process of getting an idea, innovation or seeing an opportunity, and then following through with this (execution). It would appear that the way many of the women participants construct the term entrepreneur is less process-oriented, and likely to be constructed in ways that consider others. For example, the women look to others (men) who they consider entrepreneurs, suggesting that some women have a more interdependent construal of self. This interdependence seems to emerge again when some women describe an entrepreneur, but at the same time (without being asked) distance themselves from being an entrepreneur. Thus, some women devalue their innovativeness or their willingness to take risks. Here, some women think of their husbands as being more entrepreneurial than themselves, or think of an entrepreneur in relation to a high profile (man) entrepreneur. This apparent lack of confidence in their own abilities to be an entrepreneur seems linked to the more interdependent construal of self that women have. Some women have difficulty in considering they can be entrepreneurs because they view themselves in relation to other more successful and more visible entrepreneurs (primarily men).

This chapter illustrates that many of the men participants seem to apply their own constructions of the term entrepreneur to themselves. What Figure 6.1 does not show is that most of the men who link the four terms together consider themselves entrepreneurs. For example, 10 of the 12 men who thought of executing an idea believe they are entrepreneurs. What this observation may illustrate is that the men participants who link these terms together are describing an entrepreneur in relation to what they have actually done themselves. In other words, the men appear to be both constructing the terms and applying the terms to themselves in relation to their own experiences in business. This conclusion supports the idea that men have a more independent construal of self than women do. Hence, because they believe they are entrepreneurs, they look to themselves when describing who an entrepreneur is. This observation also seems to hint at men being more confident about themselves being entrepreneurs than women.

6.9 Conclusion

The findings in this chapter present a number of important considerations and implications for the following chapters. I conclude that, as a group, the women participants seem to construct the term entrepreneur somewhat differently to the men participants, and more importantly, that most women participants cannot apply these categories to themselves. Given this thesis is interested in the meanings and experiences of women and men entrepreneurs, their constructions of the term entrepreneur are important as the backdrop to their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. These motivations are the focus of the next two chapters.

CHAPTER SEVEN

WORK-RELATED MOTIVATING FACTORS

7.1 Introduction

This thesis now turns to the motivations to become an entrepreneur that relate to work. Chapter Three pointed to several gender differences that exist in terms of the motivations to become an entrepreneur that relate to work. Career flexibility, co-career issues, advancement, redundancy, unemployment, and career dissatisfaction are all areas in which gender differences exist in the motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur (Borooah et al., 1997; Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Hakim, 1989). Here, I use the integrated perspective to understand gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur that relate to work. The purpose of this chapter, therefore, is to examine the experiences of the participants in relation to work and understand whether (and if so, how) this influenced their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. The exploration of work-related motivating factors is the concern of Research Question Three.

Seventeen women and 20 men participants can be classed as being motivated in some way by their experiences at work (in some cases, participants were motivated in more than one way by work-related factors). Four key sub-themes emerge from an analysis of the Nvivo nodes that refer to work experiences. The discussion begins with dissatisfaction at work, which appears as a motivating factor for many of the participants. The other themes are the changing world of work, work experience as an incubator, and getting help from an employer to start a business.

7.2 Dissatisfaction at work

All of the participants had worked in paid employment at some point prior to starting their own business. The levels of experience at work reached immediately prior to starting their businesses are a useful reference point to consider in combination with the following discussion of work-related motivating factors (the highest level of seniority the participants reached at work is shown in Appendix I). In summary, some observations can be made with respect to the women and men participants' levels of work experience. Few of the women participants had prior management experience and a high number of women participants worked in administrative or retail positions, or in factories. Meanwhile, in terms of management experience, 12 of the men participants had been previously employed at a management level, while only one man had worked in a factory. These gender differences are perhaps unsurprising, given the previous discussion in Section 3.6 regarding the vertical division of labour. One implication of more men participants being in management positions already emerged in Chapter Six, where it seemed evident that men participants suggest identifying opportunities when describing an entrepreneur, while women do not. This could be linked to men being in a position at work to see other business opportunities.

Table 7.1 shows seven women and 14 men experienced some difficulty with their previous job and/or their boss. This dissatisfaction prompted most participants to leave employment of their own volition (four were made redundant). Upon closer examination of these participants, Table 7.1 also shows that many of the participants who were dissatisfied with their jobs also had previous management experience.

Table 7. 1 Participants who were dissatisfied with their jobs/boss

Women	Men
Ann *	Dave
Beth*	George*
Cath	John *
Jean	Keith*
Lana	Marty
Sara	Max
Sue	Monty*
	Pete
	Ralph*
	Rob*
	Ross*
	Steve*
	Todd*
	Trevor*

* denotes participant had management experience

In relation to job dissatisfaction, two sub-themes emerge when the nodes that regard work experience are closely examined. Firstly, there seem to be issues relating to job dissatisfaction, such as office politics and organisational culture (otherwise referred to by Sara and George as “bullshit”), or the participants believing that their employer was ‘doing it all wrong’. The second theme of dissatisfaction with a boss is visible only for some of the men participants. In some cases, participants experienced both job dissatisfaction and dissatisfaction with a boss.

7.2.1 Women participants

With respect to the women participants who could be classed as experiencing job dissatisfaction, there are two different components to their dissatisfaction. The first is that some women participants were not enjoying the type of job they were in, and for some, their commitment to their jobs was certainly tested by their employer’s actions (or lack of actions). For some of the women participants who were dissatisfied with their jobs, an incident or a build-up of incidents were factors in their motivations to leave employment and become an entrepreneur. None of the women participants had issues with a particular boss, but were more concerned with issues regarding the culture of the company and issues relating to a lack of appreciation of their efforts at work.

The second component to job dissatisfaction involved more serious concerns regarding how the company was managed and operated.

In perhaps the most extreme case of job dissatisfaction among the women participants, Ann left under difficult circumstances. For Ann, the situation at her work had become so intolerable that she and several others resigned from their positions. Ann was in a senior management position:

I resigned on the Monday, the two fellows resigned on the Monday. We told the staff and three staff resigned on the Monday, and we sat there for the next four weeks and hardly anyone spoke to us. No-one came to see us until the Friday when they came in with a lawyer waved a big stick, bellowed everybody, and we left and that was it, and on the [next] Monday we set up the new business – Ann

Ann and two other business partners (both ‘fellows’) started a business in direct competition to her previous employer, and this culminated in a legal challenge by her previous employer. The end result of this was that Ann’s new company had to pay a small amount of money to her previous employer in an out-of-court settlement. Ann had been previously unhappy in her management position, where she felt she was being exploited. She had volunteered to help her employer out by acting in a caretaker management position on a trial basis, and if she didn’t like it, it was agreed that she could return to her previous position. Ann found that the employer reneged on several promised rewards for her if she achieved certain milestones. Therefore, her decision to leave was aided by these broken promises. However, Ann feels that she could not have started a business alone, and she relied on her two ex-colleagues:

I think where I fall down is I don't have this massive belief in myself...I lack courage, you see I could never of have done this on my own without my two blokes [business partners] – Ann

Ann’s words appear to mirror an apparent lack of confidence that emerged in Chapter Six, where many of the women participants were reluctant to call themselves entrepreneurs. Here, Ann felt she needed to have the support of two business partners that would work with her in the new business, highlighting her seemingly interdependent self construal. In another case, Sara found that, while not being

dissatisfied with her employer as such, she was unprepared to be promoted by her employer:

Just thought, well, no, I don't want to be a manager. I didn't. I like being hands on. I like doing, I don't like managing. I am not very good [at] managing people. I just wanted to be much more hands on, so I just thought well now is the chance to try it [starting a business] – Sara

Interestingly, Sara wasn't dissatisfied in her present job, but when the opportunity to be promoted to a management role was presented to her, she decided against the promotion and left her employer. For her, this offer of a promotion came at a time when she had broken up with a long-term domestic partner, and these two incidents in combination provided the impetus for Sara to start her own business. The recognition by Sara that she did not aspire to be a manager is interesting, and shows her admitting she would not be good in such a role. Even though Sara decided that management was not her preference, she could have remained in her current position. However, the situation of having to choose between these two propositions made her resign from her job to start her own business. While Sara may not have experienced job dissatisfaction as such, the likelihood of being placed in a management position was a motivator for her to start her own business. A further observation can be made from Sara's experience. While she does not talk about lacking the confidence to be a manager, this appears to be a possibility.

The second component of dissatisfaction for the women participants is that some of the women participants were unhappy with the way the company they worked for was being managed. For three women participants (Lana, Jean and Cath), the experiences they had with their previous employers almost forced them to start their own businesses. Lana was made redundant several times because her employers went out of business. In her experience of changing jobs many times, Lana made some observations about the way these companies were being run:

And I could see, I know it sounds crazy, but I could see where a lot of the businesses were making mistakes, so I decided - I bet I could do it. So I did, and then this is the result - Lana

In Lana's case, her experiences at work enabled her to have the confidence to set up her own business in a completely unrelated area to that of her work experience. What is interesting from Lana's quote is the self-doubt she shows when suggesting she could see the mistakes that her employer had made. By saying, "I know it sounds crazy", Lana diminishes her own observations of the mistakes her employers were making, and she seems to doubt her own judgement. For two other women participants, the situation was more desperate, where Jean found herself running out of patience with her employer:

So, I decided after one day when I had a very bad (laugh) day and wasn't appreciated, then I would go and do it for myself -
Jean

Jean felt she was not being appreciated, so she resigned. Prior to resigning to start a new business, she suggested to her employer that she would be interested in working with the company to set up a new branch in an expanding area of Auckland. They refused her ideas continually, so Jean decided to set up a company of her own (in direct competition to her employer) to fill a gap in the market that she had identified. Jean's business continues to grow as the market she identified also grows. Cath is another woman who also set up in direct competition to her previous employer and she felt that her employer did not see her to be a serious threat to their business. For Cath, after many issues with her employer not wanting to hear her suggestions for improving their service, she started a business as a competitor:

The first was, we could do it better, and that company taught me so much of what not to do. And the second thing is that I really had it in for them. I wanted to show them how easy it was and how stupid they were. And I did it. So, they are probably not great reasons – Cath

Cath had, like Lana and Jean, learnt from the 'mistakes' the companies she worked for had made, and saw there were better ways of doing things. Cath's views indicate the strength of feeling she had towards her previous employer, who "didn't want any changes" to the way they ran their business. Cath's (and her business partner, another former employee of the same company) poor treatment by her employer led directly to her starting her own business. Starting a business was not something she had previously considered doing; she explains "no, I never wanted to start a business. I had

been asked many times and I didn't want to". In this case, Cath's decision to start a business appears solely to be attributed to her previous employer's treatment and attitude towards her suggested improvements. After many difficulties with her employer she felt like she wanted to get back at the company and do better than it (which she feels she has since done). Even though Cath admits the reasons she started her business were not great ones, her motivations to do so were guided by a will to compete with her previous employer and actually do better than them. Cath seems to be the only woman participant who directly aimed to be so fiercely competitive with her employer.

7.2.2 Men participants

While Ann was one of the few women participants who had management experience, 10 of the 14 men who were dissatisfied with their jobs had prior management experience. Office politics meant that some of the men participants also felt 'forced' to leave for their own well-being, as they had put up with much dissatisfaction with their jobs for some time. However, most of the men cited here who experienced dissatisfaction were in management positions and experienced some severe cases of dissatisfaction, such as in Ross's case:

I was so, so unhappy with where I was. You know, it was just getting so frustrating, so it is me that stresses, and I just thought, I would do anything to get out of this. Could not think of going to another organisation cos (sic) somebody else is going to tell me how to do things, so just left – Ross

Ross worked for a very large company and felt so stressed that he left his employer with no future plans. For Ross, leaving his employer was definitely out of his comfort zone, but he was able to use his work experience to his advantage and set up a business that was in the same industry, but which had a different focus. Ross was earning a substantial salary in his senior position at the company, but desired control of his own work and independence from an employer. He expands:

I was just sick of working being told how to work and told what to do, working within an environment which was not really inspiring me – Ross

Ross again speaks of his desire not to be told what to do, and his wish to do something that inspired him. Todd experienced a remarkably similar situation to Ross, where he was earning a significant salary in his management position but this came at a personal cost:

[I] was getting \$150 grand a year which was pretty good money, but they owned me. I had sold myself so it was a, it was a sophisticated form of prostitution – Todd

Todd uses a prostitution analogy to explain his position in the company. Interestingly, as Section 7.5 discusses, Todd's company went on to assist him in starting his own business, so Todd was obviously able to 'prostitute' himself for another year while getting help in starting his own business. Todd also speaks of his dislike of being 'owned' by his employer. For him, ownership of his life was a priority, as shown in his second statement:

I had reached the point of pain in the corporate life where my life was not my own – Todd

Todd, like Ross, desired control over his own working life, and seemed to want to be independent from an employer who might tell him what to do. For some of the other men participants, the experiences at work were not as extreme as those of Pete, Ross and Todd, but nevertheless had an impact on their ultimate decision to leave their jobs and start their own businesses. For John, many years of working in a large company was a factor in his decision to leave and start a business:

Got sick of and disillusioned working with so many people in a large organisation that is 24-7, it's a lot of work, lot of hours...struggled with working in a large organisation where you felt you were a small cog – John

John's experience echoes similar views to Jean's earlier quote. Both Jean and John appeared dissatisfied with a lack of recognition and appreciation of their efforts at work. In John's case, being in a management position at a young age meant he often worked weekends and never had two consecutive days off. As John had worked for this company for many years, he understood the '24-7' nature of the operation, and eventually found he was not enjoying working with many other people. He speaks about wanting to not be a 'small cog', and this may be interpreted as John looking for

control of his own work life, and wanting independence. Two other former managers, Steve and Rob, were also dissatisfied in their jobs and recognised that they had the ability to ‘do it better’ than their previous employers:

Because with every company you work with there is dissatisfaction in every area. [name of company], great company, really good to me, good company to work for but some of the things they did I didn't like. I am not all bitter and twisted about [it], but I think there is (sic) better ways to do things – Steve

Was always happy to manage a company for someone else. But at the time it was either leave the industry because they were messing it around and it's a very small industry, especially in the South Island, or do something ourselves, and we did it ourselves - Rob

Steve had always wanted his own business, but as Rob’s comments indicate, Rob was perfectly happy with a management role and had not actively considered starting his own business until the point where his employer began ‘messing it around’. Rob and a colleague went into business together and his previous employer is no longer in business. Steve and Rob both saw they had the abilities to run their own companies, and Rob talks further of his management experience and his confidence that it would work:

They were doing it so badly, and I said to [name of] partner, ‘how hard would it be to do it ourselves? There is probably no one out there, a creditor or supplier who wouldn't support us’ - Rob

Rob’s confidence at success echoes Marty’s earlier words, where they both show belief in their own abilities to make their new businesses work, even if, as in Marty’s case, it was in an area completely new to him, and one in which he had absolutely no experience.

Of the men who were not in management positions, the comments by these men show similarities to the themes spoken of by the men in management positions. Pete explains his reasons for being dissatisfied with his job:

It was kind of like being in the war together. You were there cos everyone else was working long hours but you couldn't leave because it was like deserting the ship or something. But you

didn't see that until you left. Got caught up in the whole thing.
It's like war buddies - Pete

Pete uses a military analogy of being in a war, and speaks of being trapped in his employment, which had a culture of very long hours, and resulted in high stress levels. Pete also describes the difficulty in 'getting out', and for him, it took a major life change – having a child, before he realised that things needed to change. Once he left his employer (with no new job), he took six months off and then was approached by someone to work on a contract basis. At this stage Pete had no desire to become an entrepreneur, but the combination of leaving his job, having a baby, and being open to working as a contractor mean he is now quite happily an entrepreneur. In this example, experiences at work certainly played a part in his decision, as Pete saw how unhealthy the workplace was for him personally. In another case, Marty was equally unhappy with his job, and for him, timing appeared important in making the decision to finally leave employment. After staying in a job he didn't enjoy for some time, Christmas provided him with the impetus to finally make a move:

I said before Christmas, I am getting out of here, I don't like it, it's not my thing, I was reasonably successful, but it wasn't an atmosphere I enjoyed working in – Marty

In a similar way to Pete, Marty goes on to show that he had no specific plans with respect to his new business when he resigned from his job:

I hated it, absolutely hated it. I said to the partners, 'right time for me to go and do something'. They said, 'what are you going to do?', and I said 'I don't care, I am just going to do it. I don't care, I am going to do it' – Marty

What Marty suggests is that while he had no plans for his business, he was desperate to leave his job and appeared to have no doubts that his new business wouldn't work. Marty was adamant that he needed to leave work and was happy to do anything, as long as it was his own business. He had no idea of what the business would involve, indicating his confidence at being able to make any type of business work. Like Pete and Marty, several other men participants had similar experiences of unhappiness at work. More specifically, some men participants spoke of dissatisfaction with their boss

in particular. As indicated earlier, some of these men were also dissatisfied with their jobs, suggesting it may be difficult to separate these two types of dissatisfaction.

7.2.2.1 Dissatisfaction with a boss

The second cause of job dissatisfaction was one that was only experienced by three men participants, but is not evident in any of the women participants' accounts. This suggests that women perhaps become dissatisfied with the organisation, while men (particularly those who were managers) become dissatisfied with the organisation and then continue this to more of a personal level. These three men were dissatisfied with an individual at work, particularly their boss. This dissatisfaction with an individual was a motivating factor for Harry, Trevor and George to leave and start their own businesses. Harry begins:

[I] Had a very controlling, domineering and emotionally difficult boss, and that sort of in the end, made life difficult for me, because I was a high achiever – Harry

For Harry, he believed he threatened his boss. Harry reached the end of his patience with his boss, so resigned and started a business in a related field. This example suggests that Harry and his boss both had issues regarding power and control, and Harry was not prepared to continue working for this individual. In the two other cases, relations with a boss were also a catalyst for becoming an entrepreneur:

We didn't get on well, so I decided I didn't want to work for other people any more – Trevor

[boss] and I had a bit of a falling out in the way things should have been done, and then he thought I was a bit anti his ideas, and I could see his ideas were rather stupid – George

In both of these examples, George and Trevor were made redundant from their positions (see Section 7.3), and it is difficult to separate dissatisfaction with a boss from redundancy. There is no way of knowing whether the personality clashes that seem evident between these participants and their bosses any way related to their positions being made redundant. However, it must be pointed out that the views of George and Trevor are 'in hindsight', and it is unclear whether redundancy caused them to be dissatisfied with their bosses, or whether they were already dissatisfied with their bosses

before being made redundant. Nevertheless, both went on to start their own businesses, and as Trevor indicates, the relationship he had with his boss was a key determinant in his decision not to return to paid employment. Again, like other men participants, Trevor refers to wanting to be independent from a boss. It is plausible that for the men participants who were dissatisfied with their job or boss, there is a relationship between job dissatisfaction and being employed in a management position. Given that the majority of the men who were dissatisfied with their jobs were in management positions, it raises questions regarding power, conflict and ego issues. In addition, given the transfer of this dissatisfaction to a boss (in three cases), it can be suggested that the power and control issues can also become personal. These men all clashed with their bosses, who were also all men.

7.2.3 Summary

Within job dissatisfaction, there appears to be a continuum of levels of dissatisfaction, ranging from the particularly bad, to more general dissatisfaction with organisational culture and politics. The decision to leave their employer appears to be a relatively simple one of being treated poorly by others and deciding not to put up with an intolerable situation anymore. It appears that some participants felt there was little option of continuing working with their employer. Rather than find alternative employment, the participants all decided to start their own businesses. Negative experiences at work were often the impetus that led many of the entrepreneurs to start their own businesses, where they left out of frustration, and had a belief that they could operate a business in a better way than their previous employer had done. A direct outcome of such dissatisfaction was that many of the participants set up a business in the same industry. Some participants also noted with satisfaction that their business was now doing much better than that of their previous employer. This may be attributed to the idea that they had gained insights into how 'not' to run a business in that particular industry.

Thus, job dissatisfaction appears as an important motivating factor in starting one's own business, especially for the men participants. In contrast, the women participants had feelings of being able to do it better than their employers, but in several cases, had first

approached their employer to offer them a chance to implement their suggestions for improvement. The women participants tended to be quite cautious in their decisions to leave employment and took this decision very seriously, and some women participants did so as a last resort. In comparison with the women participants, as Table 7.1 indicated, the majority of the men who were dissatisfied with their jobs had previous management experience in the company. The men participants tended to experience dissatisfaction that related to their being in management positions in an organisation. Many of these dissatisfied men spoke of a desire for control over their work lives and independence from an employer. Some became unhappy with their jobs after much stress and long hours. The two events of being a manager and being dissatisfied seem closely linked.

The gender differences that exist in relation to job dissatisfaction are closely tied to the level of seniority in an organisation. That is, for women participants, where few were in management positions, their levels of job dissatisfaction seem relatively minor, and they did not become personal (ie. dissatisfaction with a boss). Meanwhile, the men participants were primarily in management positions prior to becoming an entrepreneur, and perceived much higher levels of personal stress with their jobs. Some even reached the point where they hated being controlled and working long hours. These men had particular dissatisfaction with the seemingly limited levels of control or influence they had in the organisation. Some took this one step further, to a more personal level, where they clashed with their boss (who was also a man). A more direct route out of employment was to be made redundant, and this is discussed next.

7.3 Changing world of work

Some participants were faced with redundancy or saw the threat of redundancy and left their position before it was made redundant. As Table 7.2 indicates, five women and nine men were motivated in part to become an entrepreneur by the changing world of work. Of the participants listed in this table, one woman and six men in the previous section (Section 7.2) were also dissatisfied with their jobs. As Table 7.2 indicates, only four of the participants in this study were actually made redundant from their last job.

Table 7. 2 Participants who were influenced by the changing world of work

Women	Men
Diane*	Craig
Emma	Dave
Lana*	George*
Ruth	Gerry
Sarah	Marty
	Max
	Rob
	Steve
	Trevor*

* made redundant

7.3.1 Women participants

Lana and Diane were made redundant from their previous positions. For Lana, who was already dissatisfied with her previous employer(s), multiple redundancies seemed to be a reality of working in the retail sector:

I was made redundant but I didn't get any redundancy pay, then I went to another company and I only lasted three months before they closed up, and then on my third company that I went to work for I was there for almost a year before they closed up and I just thought 'oh this is not working for me' - Lana

Lana had not previously considered starting her own business until she was made redundant several times and was able to see the 'mistakes' her various employers were making (refer to her previous dissatisfaction in Section 7.2). Lana then went on to set up a business in an unrelated field, but she felt she had learnt enough from her prior experiences at work to be confident of success in business. In Diane's case, she worked for a company that closed down at relatively short notice, leaving her with a very difficult decision to make:

It meant that we had a contract that we had won literally the week before, and there wasn't a company to do it, so I had to really pick it up because of its unusual nature – Diane

Diane felt that her decision to start a business had been forced on her because of a large contract that had been won and needed someone to complete it. This unexpected and

unwanted foray into business ownership meant Diane resisted having her own business for several years because she had not specifically chosen this option herself. For Diane and Lana, redundancy was an impetus for them to move into entrepreneurship. This is especially so for Lana, who hadn't thought of being an entrepreneur until she was faced with multiple redundancies. Diane was also reluctant to own a business.

7.3.2 Men participants

As Table 7.2 indicates, two of the men participants were also made redundant, while another seven experienced issues regarding the changing world of work, and these influenced their decisions to become an entrepreneur. The experiences faced by the men participants follows. In the cases of the two men who had been made redundant, both were also dissatisfied with their jobs. Their redundancies provided them both with the impetus to start their own businesses:

Could see the company had some good ideas, but the people didn't have the vision to make it work...was made redundant – Trevor

And so we had a few problems, and at the end of the day he, they made me redundant from this company I was working for, and I decided then I didn't want to work for anybody else again so I decided that, bugger it - George

George and Trevor both had dissatisfaction issues with their bosses (Section 7.2) and were both subsequently made redundant. For the remaining men participants, the threat of redundancy was something they were conscious of, in various ways. For example, Steve was well aware of the changing nature of the world of work:

I tell you one thing that was a really major stimulation in terms of going into my own business was I saw a number of my friends being made redundant...I believe if you haven't got control of your own income in this country by the time you are forty you are going to have a big problem. Eventually you are going to have a big problem. Definitely no job for life. That's a big stimulant - Steve.

Steve describes the changing world of work, and offers his views on how the threat of redundancy directly related to his motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. He had wanted to start a business for some time, and saw his employer (and other companies

within the same industry) making staff redundant. Steve recognised that there appeared to be a trend to replace higher earning senior people like himself with several younger and more inexperienced (hence, cheaper) staff. While Steve did not wait until actually being made redundant, not long after he left his position, several of his former colleagues in senior roles were made redundant and Steve was sure his position would have also been disestablished.

Like Steve, Craig also recognised that his position was not secure due to the culture of the organisation he worked for:

Yeah, I was happy but [company name] have a saying that - don't bring your lunch, and then don't bring any morning tea (Laugh) - Craig

The quote from Craig highlights the company culture of his last employer. Given the swiftness of redundancies at the large company, Craig was able to make his decision to leave before being made redundant himself. Craig said he “always wanted to work for myself since the year dot”, so for him, one trigger for starting his own business was working in a company where he felt little job security. For other men participants, the practicalities of finding a suitable job were the impetus for them to start their own businesses. Gerry, Marty and Max saw their job prospects as slim, so they had little option but to start their own businesses:

I really I wanted to get into a [type of] business, and so, because no one would employ me I thought, well, I'll do it myself – Gerry

I looked around, there was nothing in the senior sort of role in Dunedin – Marty

Looked for another job in that industry and it was very difficult – Max

None of these three men were able to find suitable employment, so were essentially forced into starting their own business in order to work in their desired field, or in order to stay in a particular location. In these three cases, the changing world of work acted to push them into entrepreneurship, and they were motivated by a sense of frustration at not being able to find appropriate employment opportunities. However, what these three quotes also show is that these men were open to looking for other opportunities, and to becoming entrepreneurs.

7.3.3 Summary

For the women and men participants who were made redundant or were faced with the changing world of work, this was not a wholly negative experience. Of the four participants who were made redundant, three had not previously considered becoming an entrepreneur, and this event was a motivation for them to start their own business. The remainder of the participants were faced with redundancy or were unable to find a job, and in a similar way to those actually made redundant, were presented with the choice of finding alternative employment or doing something else. In all cases, the participants obviously chose to become entrepreneurs, but the tenuous nature of their employment situation played a part in their subsequent decision to leave their jobs before being made redundant. In relation to gender differences, these do not seem apparent for this theme of the changing world of work. However, not all of the experiences the participants had could be classed as negative (job dissatisfaction, redundancy), and there were a number of very positive influences from employers, such as the workplace being an incubator for entrepreneurship. This is discussed next.

7.4 The workplace as an incubator

This section discusses those participants for whom work could be classed as a motivating factor for them to start a business. This emerged in terms of the workplace acting as an incubator to develop skills, experience and networks. For the participants in Table 7.3, some were biding their time in paid employment until they were ready to start their own businesses. In addition, some participants had used their contacts and networks in order to test the feasibility of their business ideas.

Table 7. 3 Participants who saw work as an incubator

Women	Men
Jess	Craig
Kay	Dave
Lisa	George
Mary	Gerry
Rae	Gordon
Shirley	Harry
	Mike
	Rob
	Steve

7.4.1 Women participants

In the case of these six women participants, it was a conscious decision for only one woman to set out to purposefully gain management experience. Shirley used her time at work as a means of getting the experience she felt she would require as an entrepreneur, as illustrated below:

It [management position] has given me a vehicle to establish a pathway forward to take me where I wanted to go...gave me a springboard to move into an area that I had a passion for, and that was, I guess, to take the leadership skills I had - Shirley

Shirley gained work experience deliberately as a strategy, as she knew that she wanted to start her own business at some point. While the other women had not used experience at work in such a deliberate fashion, Rae and Mary found that through work experience they re-evaluated their employment. Both women felt they had learnt enough about their industry to start their own businesses:

Why do it for them? I'll do it for me [make money]- Rae

But he [old boss] talked me into going on commission only and he offered me the half share [in the business]. Went home and talked it [over] with my husband, and he said 'well, you are on commission only now, what's the difference, don't make money for someone else' – Mary

In both of these examples, Mary and Rae realised that given the nature of their industry (both worked in human resource agencies), they were making money for someone else. Rae and Mary both worked in jobs where they earned commission on each 'sale' they made. After some time, they realised they could be doing it for themselves. Mary

realised, with the help of her husband, that her boss was trying to exploit her. Her boss didn't want to pay her any salary or wage for her work, and offered her half ownership of his business instead. At this point, Mary asked her husband for advice, and he influenced her decision to leave and start her own business in the same field. Mary's husband, who is also an entrepreneur, pointed out the potential for her to do it herself. He was able to give her the support and encouragement she needed to start her own business. The quote from Mary shows her looking outside of herself for advice and ideas, and thinking of herself in relation to others – in this case, her domestic partner. The influence of a domestic partner in the participants' motivations to start a business is further discussed in Section 8.3. However, a similar theme emerged from another woman participant. Lisa left employment because it was part of her overall plan regarding her family, and in this excerpt illustrates her considerations towards her family as well as work in her decision to become an entrepreneur:

I was reluctant to go back into paid employment, partially because I was thinking it was time to be having a family and didn't want to get committed to a job, and partially because I had had a taste of consultancy and that's where I want to be, what I want to do – Lisa

In Lisa's case, the decision not to go into another paid job was a conscious one, but intermingled with this was her realisation that she also wanted to start having children. For her, timing appeared to be everything. She had just come back from working overseas as a consultant and chose not to enter the workforce. While Lisa did not have any particularly bad or good experiences at work, she had reached a point in her life where the 'time was right' to start a business. However, in Lisa's case, it was not only the right timing for 'work' decisions, it was also related to her desire to start a family. Lisa's decision not to go back into paid employment may indicate the perceived incompatibility of working for someone else and having children. Lisa's experience as a consultant overseas provided her the motivation to start a business on her own, and therefore it could be seen that work acted as an incubator for her starting her business. However, Lisa, like the other women's experiences that follow, did not deliberately go to work to specifically gain the experiences required for starting a business as Shirley did. Other women participants experienced work as an incubator in more indirect and intangible ways, such as the contacts and networks gained from their experiences at

work. For some participants, work was a way of expanding their business networks. For example, Sara tested the waters before starting her own business:

Asked around a few people...I had met and asked if they would be interested in my kind of service and they all said yes – Sara

Sara indicates the importance of having a network of potential customers who were already familiar with her work. Having gained a good reputation with the customers of her employer, Sara was able to start a business in a related field (but not in direct competition with her employer). Sara used her contacts from work to test her target market before launching her business, and in this respect, her working environment acted as an incubator for her business idea. Given that she already knew many of her potential clients, she felt ready to start her business with the confidence that there was a market for her services, and some of her contacts from work were prepared to utilise these services. While Sara's case is more indirect than the previous examples from the women participants, it would appear that she wanted to be sure she had customers before launching into her own business, and hence, it could be suggested that gaining contacts and networks actually further motivated her to start her own business.

7.4.2 Men participants

In contrast to the experiences of the women participants, the men participants who were motivated by work as an incubator can be classed as using work experiences in quite a deliberate fashion for their new business. Some of these men were direct in their approach to getting the 'necessary' experience at work, in a similar way to the only woman who did so deliberately (Shirley). For Craig, getting management experience was directly linked to his own business start-up:

I was asked to go and head up the company, which I did, and did so for two years, and then I started my own business as a result of that – Craig

Craig pinpoints his decision to start a business as being a result of his management experience. His own business, in a related area, emerged from his experience and the networks he had gained during paid employment. Interestingly, Craig was also helped by his employer to start this business (Section 7.5), and as discussed previously, was

also aware of the changing world of work potentially affecting his employment (Section 7.2). This highlights the potential complexity of motivations to become an entrepreneur. While Craig does not indicate whether he deliberately gained this type of work experience in order to start the business, other men participants certainly were deliberate in doing so. In the cases of Steve, Gerry and Gordon, the decision to get work experience before starting their own businesses was both deliberate and strategic:

I always wanted to start my own company and needed to get some corporate [industry] type experience, and [name of company] were a very good stepping stone in that regard, in starting my own company – Steve

Steve already knew that he wanted to start a business in a different field and actively changed jobs and industry in order to get experience in the industry he wanted to start a business in. He saw this experience as a “stepping stone”, and when the timing felt right for Steve, he started his own company with the knowledge and skills he had accumulated over his time at work. Likewise, Gerry and Gordon both also had management experience, but add further dimensions to their experiences at work and the subsequent decision to leave to start a business. These two dimensions appear related to their desire for control and to be a leader:

I needed that professional training to get the experience to do this, but at the end of the day I like working in a team but as long as I am the captain, if you know what I mean - Gerry

Gerry gives further insights into their motivations for being entrepreneurs. Both of these men desired control and wanted to be leader of a team. Gerry’s goal of being the “captain” was a motivator for him to start his own business, but he also saw the practicalities of getting the work experience he would need to take with him into his own business. Gordon also exhibits a similar goal, where he was always thinking about owning the company he worked in, and seemed to be actively moving towards achieving this goal:

Control is always a good thing. Even when I was in the [type of] firm I was really certain and that [my goal] was to own the company, partnership. Very entrepreneurial - Gordon

In Gordon’s case, he started another related company while remaining a partner in the company he worked in. While some of these men participants illustrate a direct

relationship between getting work experience and starting their own business, George and Harry suggest that their business ideas came from their prior work experiences over time (not just from one job). George sums up how his business emerged:

Generally businesses are actually based on what you've had exposure to, you know – George

George relates his prior experience at work directly to his own business. He sees a strong link between learning at work and then using that experience to start a business. Harry goes on to expand on George's view, and describes what in particular he learnt from both being in business and, prior to that, working in the same industry:

When you are in business, you see other business opportunities. And when you are in the world of money you meet other people. You hear about their schemes, what they are up to. You end up being asked to fund all kinds of, you get to see their business plans. You get a sense of what will and won't work. Develop a pattern, what are the patterns of who succeeds – Harry

Harry felt he was in a prime position to be exposed to many other business ideas. He had worked in a job (in 'the world of money'), where he dealt with business owners and over time felt he had learnt what constituted a successful business idea and what it took to be a successful entrepreneur. While Harry was also motivated to become an entrepreneur because he was dissatisfied with his boss (Section 7.2), his experiences at work seem to have helped with his foray into business by providing him with invaluable lessons in business.

7.4.3 Summary

The observation that the majority of the participants in this section began businesses in areas they have experience in cannot be ignored. This observation leads to the suggestion that while it may not have been a deliberate strategy for all of these participants to seek work in areas that would assist them in their future business, work experience often proved invaluable in more indirect ways, such as gaining contacts, networks, or the confidence to start a new business. Therefore, the workplace seemingly acts as an incubator for some participants, and some are motivated to start a business directly and indirectly because of their experiences at work. In relation to

gender comparisons, few women participants were deliberate in their use of work as an incubator for their business. In contrast, some of the men participants seemed more aware that in the future they wanted to start a business and used work experience more shrewdly and purposefully as a means of helping them step into entrepreneurship. These observations may be tied to the findings in Chapter Six, which suggest that women cannot apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. This seems to also emerge in this chapter. Women do not even consider the possibility that in the future they may want to become an entrepreneur, so don't actively go to get the 'right' experience at work. The findings illustrated in this chapter so far show that some women participants were often pushed from their jobs by dissatisfaction, rather than having used work as an incubator. While some participants indirectly used work as an incubator, and this may have influenced their motivations to become an entrepreneur, other participants found their employers helped them to become an entrepreneur.

7.5 Helped by an employer

That this category exists at all is perhaps surprising and is interesting indeed. The four women and five men participants listed in Table 7.4 each received some type of assistance from their previous employer to start their business. In many of these cases, this help proved to be a compelling motivation to start their own business, as some participants had not previously considered entrepreneurship as an option.

Table 7. 4 Participants who had help from employers

Women	Men
Diane	Don
Elly*	Craig*
Sara	Max
Sarah	Ralph*
	Todd*

* denotes participant had management experience

7.5.1 Women participants

Four women were helped by their employers to start their own business. In Sarah's case, restructuring led to her position being 'outsourced', so this offered her the impetus to start her own business. Sarah feels she "was nudged into doing my own thing", and she goes on to explain the circumstances behind this shift:

Here I am, eight months pregnant, and they had said to me, 'we will give you a leg up into your own business. We will guarantee you a year's work, give you a computer and a filing cabinet and a desk. Go home and start consulting', so I said 'Ok', so I did, and I actually worked for them on and off for five or six years – Sarah

Sarah was offered guaranteed work from the company if she would start a business of her own. For her, this was a positive experience because she was heavily pregnant at the time and felt like she was in no position to be looking for more paid employment. This offer of guaranteed work allowed Sarah to make the decision to start her own business, so it was clearly a motivating factor for her. Sarah feels it would have been impossible to start a business from scratch when she was nearly due to give birth. Sarah goes on to suggest that her employer was looking for a way to avoid paying her redundancy pay. Regardless of the actual reasons, Sarah was helped to start her business by her previous employer. In a similar case, someone approached Elly to start up a business:

[I was] asked 'would you be interested in taking it on?' Would you be interested in running it?', that's sort of how it happened – Elly

Elly had not considered starting a new business of her own at that time, although she and her husband had been in business before. Being approached to start a business provided her with the necessary impetus to make the shift into entrepreneurship, and in this respect, her employer's actions were a direct motivation for Elly to start her business. In a similar case, Diane was offered the chance to set up her own business, but unlike Elly's case, this was not an entirely positive experience. In Section 7.3,

Diane's experience with work was discussed, where she felt forced to take over a project, and ultimately pushed to start her own business. She elaborates:

But also what promoted that I go out on my own as opposed to going and working for someone else was that I had brought in a project whilst I was there in that company in that first month that was kind of unique and it was, in very much (sic), needed my involvement and input – Diane

Diane was put into a position where she was either going to be made redundant, or she could take a project that the company had just won the contract for and start her own business. For Diane, starting a business was not what she wanted to do, and the business struggled for some time while she remained uncommitted to making it work. In her case, her employer's actions directly contributed to her starting a business, and because she didn't have the desire to start one prior to the events occurring within the company, she resisted the business. For Sara, the decision to become an entrepreneur was helped by her employer, but in a less direct way. Sara was previously unhappy at work where she didn't want a promotion to manager (Section 7.2), and in part her decision to start her own business was helped along by her employer giving her the opportunity to fill a vacancy on a contract basis:

They needed somebody to fill in, so they offered me six months contract for 20 hours a week which was brilliant, so that basically replaced my salary cos...obviously charge more when you are on contract, and that exactly, so that gave me time to go out and look for new business while I was still earning money – Sara

Her previous employer made Sara's move into entrepreneurship easy, and this enabled her to maintain a steady income while in the start-up phase of her business. For all four of these women participants, the help, support and encouragement from an employer was instrumental in affecting their motivations for starting a business.

7.5.2 Men participants

In contrast to the women participants' experiences with their employers, some of the men who were assisted by their employers were in management positions and were able to negotiate very financially rewarding assistance packages. Todd had experienced a

build-up of incidents at work, including five consecutive holiday leave applications being turned down. This led to him resigning from his job with a \$150,000 a year salary. This example focuses on the positive experiences that emerged from continuing negative experiences with a company. Once Todd indicated that he was going to leave the company to start his own business, the company was desperate to keep him, so they agreed that he could set up his own business while still working. They allowed Todd time during work to establish his business and also allowed him access to their customers, who were also potential customers for Todd's new business. In hindsight, Todd was able to concisely explain these events as "earn while you learn". This approach was clearly advantageous to Todd, as he maintained financial security and used the contacts he had with his employer to his own advantage. In a similar case, Ralph also wanted to leave his employer. Ralph was hired from the United Kingdom and felt his experience was wasted at the company, as they were not using him for what he was good at:

I tried to get myself made redundant (laugh) but you know when you want [to], you can't. It is amazing (laugh). Just could not get out, so I negotiated a deal with my employer and told them that evasively that I was being misused, but if you paid me for what I was good at I will do what I am good at for them, and you can use me as and when you need [me]. So, I got myself a get out clause where I was still employed, so [had] a little bit of money coming in, and I could work - Ralph

Ralph essentially did the same as Todd, and retained a relationship with his employer while setting up his own business. In both cases, their skills were considered to be important and their employers were open to assisting them becoming entrepreneurs. In Craig's case, he negotiated more tangible financial benefits from his employer:

I got six months rental on the office building in Queen Street and you know they made it as good as they could for me. I got a very cheap house loan, superannuation, all that sort of thing so that was good – Craig

Craig's employer helped in starting his new venture. It was advantageous to the previous employer to have Craig start his own business, as it was in an area that was complementary. They provided him with assistance such as low interest loans, and subsidised rent for office buildings. Two other men were approached by a contact to

start a business. In Max's case, he had no aspirations of owning his own business, but was offered an opportunity to do so by someone else:

One thing led to another and we came over here and he offered me the opportunity to start it up – Max

Here, the opportunity for Max to start his own businesses came from an external influence, rather than from his own desire to start a business. Max, unlike Diane, who felt like the business was being pushed on her, saw this as an opportunity to be taken. This quote also suggests that he was open to such opportunities, as he was looking for new work at the time (he was in temporary employment). It also suggests that men may have been in positions where they were offered the chance to start up a business, indicating again the potential importance of contacts and networks in the business start-up process.

7.5.3 Summary

The participants described in this section were all helped by their employers in some way to start a business. While in many of these cases, the participants may have gone on to start their own business regardless, some might not have done so. In particular, for some of the participants, the approach by their employer to start a business was clearly a motivating factor for them to start a business and become entrepreneurs. In other cases, participants were biding their time to start their own business, and the assistance given by a previous employer undoubtedly provided security while they established new businesses.

What emerges as apparently showing gender differences here is the levels of 'benefits' that employers were offering, or those that the participants negotiated. In the case of the women participants, two actually worked on contract (Sarah and Sara) for their previous employers, while Elly and Diane were given the chance to start their own businesses but were not given any material assistance for their efforts. In contrast, three of the five men were in management positions when their employer was helping them to start a business. These men (Ralph, Todd and Craig) had significantly greater assistance from their employer than the women participants or the other two men did. What appears to

be the distinguishing feature between the women and these men participants is that these three men all approached their employer and said they wanted to leave. They then found themselves in a position where they were considered to be indispensable to the employer and were given more tangible benefits to retain a relationship with their employer for an interim period. Two of the other men were approached by a contact to start a business, and saw this as an opportunity worth taking up. Hence, it can be suggested that women and men's experiences of an employer helping them to start a business differ in terms of financial support and this seems most related to their status and level in the company. The men that received financial assistance were in management positions in the company. This discussion, like that in Sections 7.2 to 7.4, shows that for some participants, experiences at work contributed as motivators for them to become an entrepreneur.

7.6 Discussion

The discussion in this chapter has shown that the participants whose experiences at work influenced their subsequent decision to become an entrepreneur faced many different issues. Now, I undertake to accomplish two tasks. Firstly, I summarise the findings, and offer an explanation of them in relation to the integrated perspective of the entrepreneur. Next, I compare these explanations with the prior literature and the results of the mail survey.

In various ways, experiences at work seem to impact on many of the participants' motivations to make the decision to become entrepreneurs. For some, the dissatisfaction at work (with a job and/or boss) and constant frustration was enough to push them into becoming an entrepreneur. For other participants, becoming an entrepreneur was something they had planned for. Some had used work experience consciously to gain experience and contacts in a certain industry with a view to establishing a business at a later date. In addition, some employers also assisted the participants to become entrepreneurs. Two diagrams are now presented as a means of explaining the participants' experiences at work. As the focus here is on gender differences, I offer two summaries of the participants' experiences at work based on gender, beginning with women's experiences at work (Figure 7.1).

Figure 7.1 Women's experiences at work

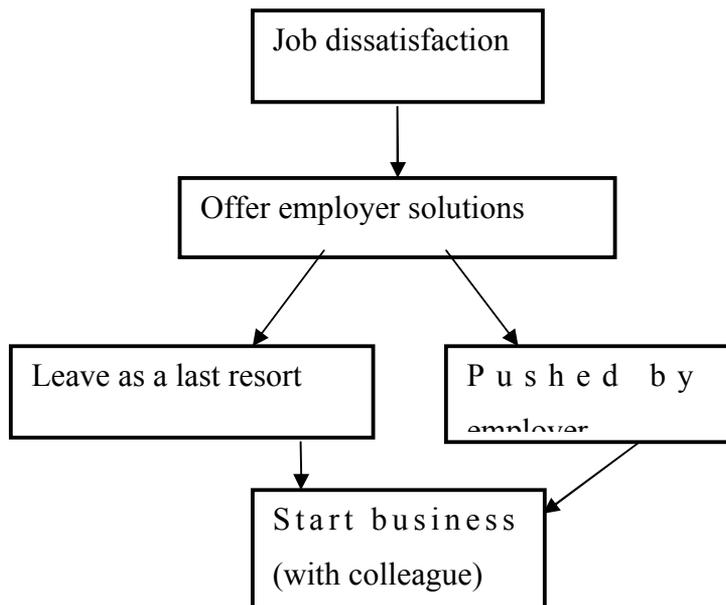


Figure 7.1 outlines the process of leaving employment that a number of the women participants took. While this chapter has shown that relatively few women participants appear to have had experiences at work that directly led to them being motivated to start their own businesses, some themes emerge. Women who were motivated by experiences at work had a very wide range of experiences at work which led them to leave their employer. What does emerge is that many of the women participants did not have the initial desire to start their own business (except for Shirley), and therefore felt quite comfortable in paid employment.

As Figure 7.1 shows, some women participants experienced job dissatisfaction and then attempted to offer their employer solutions to resolve this dissatisfaction. For example, some of the women offered to help 'change' things, by setting up a new branch of the company or changing the way the company operated, but these offers of help went unheeded. However, it was only after matters had come to a head, and the working environment became unbearable, that these women left their jobs. In this sense, women can be seen as being 'pushed' into leaving their jobs. At this point, the participants had

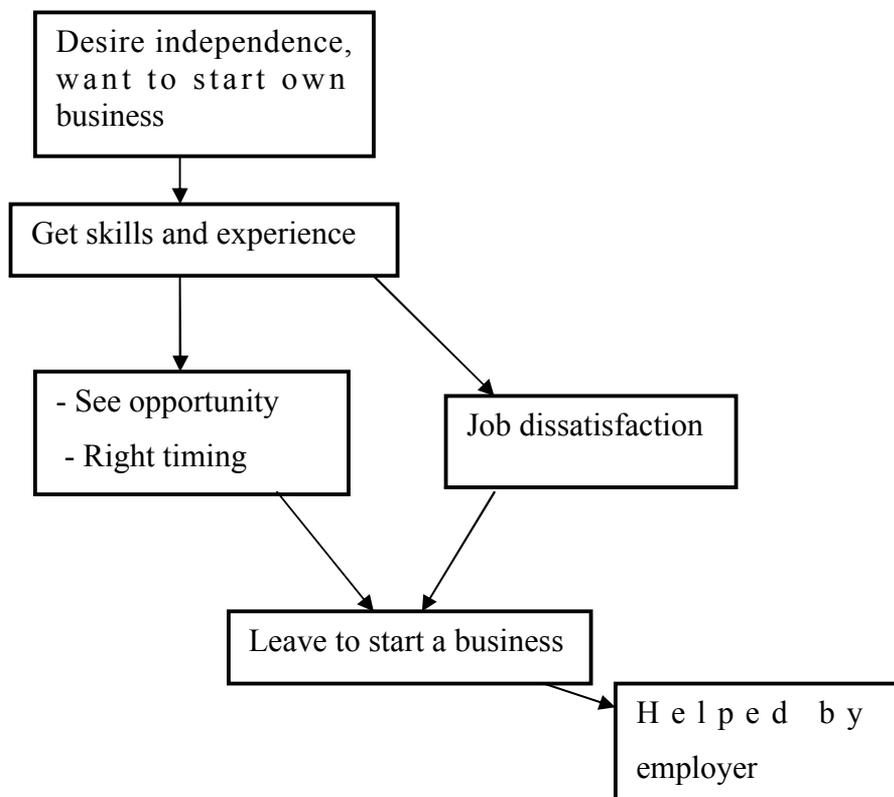
an opportunity to look for alternative employment, but all started their own businesses instead. What is observable in Figure 7.1 is that women tend to take with them their interdependent self-construals into the workplace. Even when deciding to leave employment, some women still wanted to help their employers to solve the problems they saw in the business. This tends to suggest that women continue to think of others, even when dissatisfied with their employment. Thus, this supports the view that some women are interdependent in their self construal and this flows into their work decisions.

The final box in Figure 7.1 illustrates some of the women who started a business with a colleague. Some women participants looked to people at work when deciding to start a business, as some of the women started businesses with their ex-colleagues. As a further note, some of the women participants said they could not have done it on their own, giving further weight to the suggestion of their interdependent self construal and possibly a lack of confidence as well. This is important as it follows from Chapter Six, which indicates that few women can apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. In the case of work-related motivating factors, it would appear that some women participants have such a strong interdependent construal of self that they did not deliberately and purposefully use work as an incubator (except Shirley) in order to follow their dreams of being an entrepreneur. Thus, I suggest that women participants tend to 'fall' or are 'pushed' out of employment, and find themselves becoming an entrepreneur without strong personal desire to do so. This perhaps offers an explanation of why women do not consider themselves to be entrepreneurs. Because women do not have an initial desire for independence, and were perhaps forced out of employment, they may not see themselves as being entrepreneurial.

An absence of women suffering extreme job dissatisfaction may be explained by making reference to the experiences of the men participants. Many of the men participants who experienced dissatisfaction at work were in management positions and, because few women were in management positions, they may not have had similar experiences of dissatisfaction at work. However, an alternative explanation may be that the women participants do not have the same desire for control and independence that many of the men participants illustrate. Many of the men participants had either

always wanted their own business, or were quite open to the idea of starting their own business at some time. Some spoke of wanting control, independence and leadership, and they saw that starting their own business was a way of overcoming the difficulties they had with work. Therefore, the men participants seem to ‘start’ from a different place than women, where they were more deliberate and sure of their desire to start a business at some stage in the future. Figure 7.2 shows a summary of the experiences of the men participants at work.

Figure 7.2 Men’s experiences at work



The desire for independence that is shown at the top of this figure indicates that many of the men participants already wanted to start their own business in the future. What some of the men then did was to deliberately and purposefully get the necessary skills and work experience that they perceived they would need to become an entrepreneur. Their independent self-construal seems to follow men into employment, where many experienced job dissatisfaction and some also experienced dissatisfaction with a boss.

Given that much of the job dissatisfaction that the men participants faced seemed to be tied to their positions as managers, it is possible to suggest that the men became dissatisfied with their ability to influence or change the organisation or section they were managing. In these cases, negative experiences at work appear to be a direct motivator for men to start their own business, and these are often tied to the desire to be independent from a job or a boss.

In addition, the men who had been managers may also have been in positions within the organisation that allowed them to see other business opportunities (also discussed in Chapter Six). In some cases, in addition to job dissatisfaction, the decision to leave employment and start a new business appears to have been aided by the understanding that the world of work is changing, and that job security is limited, and redundancy and downsizing is common. The remainder of Figure 7.2 illustrates the decision to leave employment to start a business, and the subsequent help that some employers offered the men participants to do so. In these cases, some men received financial help to set up their business, and this also seems to be tied to their roles as managers.

These two models (Figures 7.1 and 7.2) both display a somewhat different 'route' out of employment and into entrepreneurship for women and men. For women, it would seem that their strong sense of being interdependent plays a part in their (reluctant) decision to leave their employer. For men, the situation seems different, where many already had a strong desire to start their own business and wanted independence. Some of the men also had placed themselves in a good position to become entrepreneurs, having the necessary skills and experiences (particularly those at management level).

7.7 Conclusion

When comparing these participants' experiences at work to the prior literature and the mail survey in this research, the results are interesting. The prior literature shows that gender differences exist in a number of cases regarding the motivations to become a business owner or an entrepreneur. In some studies, women were more motivated than men by career flexibility issues, co-career issues (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003), and career dissatisfaction (Cromie, 1987a). Alternatively, men were more motivated than

women by redundancy and unemployment (Borooah et al., 1997), and not finding employment (Hakim, 1989). While other studies find no such gender differences in relation to job dissatisfaction (Cromie, 1987a), job satisfaction (Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986), or instability in a current job (Borooah et al., 1997), for the participants in this study, the process of job dissatisfaction differs for women and men participants. For example, for some of the women participants, job dissatisfaction initiates a process that pushes them into entrepreneurship, but for men, it is often a trigger that is a final step in a planned process of becoming an entrepreneur.

Similarly, the results presented in Chapter Five find no gender differences when using a similar positivist paradigm to prior studies. The mail survey included 'job satisfaction' as a motivating factor. Some 53.4% of the respondents believed job satisfaction was a motivating factor when becoming an entrepreneur. In terms of gender differences, women were more motivated by job satisfaction to become an entrepreneur than men, with 60.4% of women and 53.4% men reporting this to have motivated them to become an entrepreneur. However, this difference was not statistically significant. Given that over half of the participants in the mail survey were motivated by the attainment of job satisfaction, this certainly seems to be an area of importance to the respondents and the results of this chapter appear to support this importance.

The positivist approach of much prior research fails to uncover gender differences in the motivations (relating to work factors) for becoming an entrepreneur. Therefore, this chapter has provided insights into the nature of the gender differences in experiences at work and participants' subsequent decisions to leave their jobs and become entrepreneurs. This chapter shows that these gender differences may only be uncovered through the use of interpretive paradigms (a constructivist approach), which aims to explore the experiences of the participants. Chapter Eight continues this theme, and aims to examine more closely those participants who consider their families have been a motivator for them to become an entrepreneur.

CHAPTER EIGHT

FAMILY-RELATED MOTIVATING FACTORS

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter Research Question Four is addressed. My purpose here is to investigate potential gender differences further, and to understand how a variety of family members (parents/ siblings/ domestic partner/ children) influenced participants' motivations to become entrepreneurs. Conclusions from the prior literature in Chapter Three suggest that women and men have different motivations for becoming business owners or entrepreneurs. These motivations relate to the family and include child-rearing, family policies and obligations, fitting work with domestic commitments, and combining waged and domestic labour (Cromie, 1987a; DeMartino & Barbato, 2003; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Marlow, 1997; Still & Soutar, 2001; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). The influence of family is not explored in some studies on gender comparisons in motivation to become a business owner or entrepreneur (Borooah et al., 1997; Fox, 1998; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Scott, 1986). I begin this chapter with the potential influence of parents on the decision to become an entrepreneur.

8.2 Parents

An entrepreneur's upbringing can act as an antecedent or an incubator to entrepreneurship (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003; Belcourt, 1988). This section outlines the impact that parents may have on a participant's motivation to start a business. Table 8.1 presents the participants who link their motivations to become an entrepreneur as stemming, in part, from their parents and their upbringing. As a note, Table 8.1 shows that most of these participants' parents owned businesses.

Table 8. 1 Participants who were influenced by parents

Women	Men
Ann*	Brent
Cath	Craig
Dee	Don
Diane	Gerry
Jess	Gordon
Lana	John*
Lisa	Keith*
Kate*	Ross
Kay*	Stew
Kim	Trevor
Mary	
Rachelle	
Ruth	
Sarah	
Shirley	
Sue	

* indicates participants parents did not own a business.

Table 8.1 shows that 16 women and 10 men participants were motivated to start a business in some way by their parents. The purpose of this section is to move beyond the classification in Table 8.1 and describe, in as much detail as possible, how parents influence the decision of their children to become entrepreneurs. A number of different influences emerge from the analysis of the interviews. These reveal a number of different types of motivators with respect to parents. The two themes that emerge here relate to the participants' upbringing in general, and the specific influence of their fathers (learning from, competing with, trying to outdo, being discouraged by). Each is discussed in turn, beginning with the accounts from the women participants.

8.2.1 Women participants

While some of the women participants were not sure if their family motivated them or not, 16 women participants were somewhat surer of the influence their upbringing had on their decision to become an entrepreneur. These women recalled that their parents influenced their motivations to become entrepreneurs in a number of ways. I begin with Sue:

I guess it's a type of learned process if you like – Sue.

For Sue, this learning process came from her parents owning businesses while she was a child. While growing up, Sue was exposed to her parents' businesses, and she believes she learnt from this upbringing. For other women participants, growing up with entrepreneurial parents meant they saw things differently from other people:

I was thinking about the reasons you are doing this [study] and it's definitely got to be family. We think its normal, my brother and I, to have a business – Rachelle

It's very much in your upbringing really, you don't do things as everyone else does. I wasn't encouraged to get a job at a supermarket like all my friends did. I was always encouraged to think outside the square, think differently, always our conversation at the dinner table was companies' figures, what company was doing what – Dee

Both Rachelle and Dee talk of their upbringings as being different to their peers whose parents did not have businesses. Both women believe their parents played a key part in the way they think about business today. In relation to their subsequent motivations to become entrepreneurs, a family background of owning businesses gave these women an early view of doing things 'differently' than children whose parents did not have their own businesses. Their upbringing appears to have been a key factor in the entrepreneurial decision and, as Dee highlights, growing up in an environment where dinner conversation revolved around her parents' businesses seems to have played a part in Dee's own life path, where she and her husband now own many different businesses. Ruth goes on to further explain this link between the family and her motivations to become an entrepreneur:

It is quite normal [in family] to have your own business. Well, why wouldn't you have your own business? – Ruth

Again, Ruth continues with the theme that it is almost beyond her comprehension not to have a business. Although Ruth waited until she was in her fifties before starting her business, she recalled tales of her family's (parents, grandparents, and great grandparents) businesses in England. Ruth did not immediately start a business once she was an adult because of her desire to raise her children and they were her sole focus until very recently (when they became adults themselves). Sarah's parents were also business owners when she was a child. She too talks of the normality of this in her family:

My father was a farmer, my mother was part of that business, you know, that's what we do... we never ever known (sic) an environment where there was a boss - Sarah

Like Ruth, Sarah waited until she was in her forties before starting a business, and appeared to have been pushed into it by her previous employer when she was heavily pregnant (see Section 7.5). Ruth and Sarah both show that while they were familiar with business ownership and had experienced this while growing up, it wasn't until they had their own children that they both actually started their businesses. For Sarah, this decision was motivated in part by her desire to spend more time with her young children while Ruth waited until her children were grown (Section 8.5). For Diane, who does not have children, the experiences of her parents being in business actually seemed to be the opposite to Dee, Sarah and Ruth, where she was scared off owning her own business by her parents' experiences in business. As Chapter Seven illustrated, Diane was reluctantly drawn into her own business and felt obliged to take on the project that her employer had just started. She relates her reluctance to start her own business back to what she saw of her parents' experience as business owners:

Scared me away from doing it...It was always difficult. More so the pressure and stress, making ends meet, keeping everyone happy. I guess I thought, no, there must be a better way, there must be more to life – Diane

Diane recalls how she saw her parents constantly juggling to keep 'everyone happy'. In her case, the difficulties her parents experienced in business could also be possible in cases where parents worked in paid employment (where there could be similarly high stress environments). Diane looks back with concern at her parents struggling with stress and financial issues and worried about this same fate happening to her. However, as much as Diane's views on her parents being business owners made her very reluctant to have a business of her own, it was not strong enough to stop her own foray into entrepreneurship (albeit being pushed into it). While it is somewhat difficult to directly tie the participants' upbringings to their motivations for starting a business, the quotes here illustrate that for these women participants, their upbringing with entrepreneurial parents meant they saw first hand what it was like to own a business (both positive and negative aspects).

The early exposure to business from their parents' business ownership seems to have played a key role in many of the participants' decisions to become entrepreneurs themselves, for both women and men. The participants speak of learning from their parents, and of what they consider 'normal'. As the quotes here suggest, many participants are able to trace a link from their decision to become an entrepreneur to their parents. While this discussion focuses on parents in general, the second theme that emerges with respect to the influence of parents in the decision to become an entrepreneur is the role of the participants' fathers. This theme is evident for both women and men participants, but the nature of the influence of their fathers seems to be quite different between the women and men participants.

The observation that the participants' fathers held more influence than mothers in terms of their children's business is perhaps understandable. This is probably due to the age of most of the participants. In their parents' generation, it would have been less common for a woman to own a business than it is today (this trend of growth in women-owned businesses has been pointed out in Chapter Two). Therefore, the majority of the business experience they were exposed to would have come from their fathers. Firstly, perhaps the most extreme case of parental influence is in the case of Shirley. Shirley's father was a farmer, who took a business-like approach to parenting his only child:

From an early age, he had what is best described as a business plan for my life. He would take me to the accountant from when I was about eight years old. He used to let me carry his briefcase and we would have coffee and cookies and it was pretty cool. That was one of my first lessons in business. He gave me a cheque book when I was 15 and I had an annual salary, I had to manage my expenses. We used to have wage rounds every six months, I had to negotiate - Shirley.

In Shirley's example, it was clear to her that her father's role in teaching her about business was the major reason she started her own business. Her father was basically training her to be able to run the family farm, and this was a key factor in her own development as an entrepreneur. Shirley elaborates:

I guess from an early age I was unconsciously developing this early knowledge of business, so yes, It's definitely the inspiration for where I am - Shirley.

As described in Chapter Seven, Shirley was the only woman participant who had an active plan for getting work experience to help her to start her own business. It would seem this decision also came from her upbringing, where her father was moulding her into a person who would want to start a business of her own. Shirley feels sure her father was the inspiration for her going into business, and it would seem that his influence has also filtered through to her life decisions. Interestingly, once her father passed away, Shirley took over the family farm for a number of years and then decided she wanted to sell it. She found this decision very difficult, as it was her final tie to her father, and she felt like she should keep the farm because he wanted her to. Eventually, Shirley did sell the farm and is pleased to have done so, as she can now focus her business skills on what she has a passion for, rather than keeping the farm because she was concerned about her father's wishes. This example stands out as one where her father influenced her decisions regarding her work and business, and she can be seen looking to her father even after he died. Shirley's account seems to show she had difficulty in becoming independent from her father, and was almost reluctant to do so. Another woman also felt inspired by her father:

Definitely [entrepreneurial spirit coming from family]. There has got to be some inspiration. Even if it wasn't your father, It's got to be someone else that you sighted that you think, you see people and you think - I would like to be like them – Jess

Jess's experiences with her entrepreneurial father are quite similar to those of Shirley. In a similar way to Shirley, Jess's father taught her how to run a business but she adds a further dimension to the nature of this learning. Jess talks about believing that an entrepreneur needs to have someone as a role model, and someone to look to for inspiration. Jess elaborates on the influence her father had on her while growing up:

My dad, he was quite, a bit like my hero I suppose, he wouldn't help, he didn't help but he was an inspiration in [the] way of his own business...he probably nurtured that in me. He didn't with the others, there were two other girls, because they weren't interested, I actually became quite aligned with him and my other two sisters became quite aligned with my mother. He was quite a hard man, but I thought he was great. – Jess

The additional theme that Jess talks about is that while her father helped her with her first business venture in terms of ideas and advice, he refused to help her financially or

with problems that he felt she could solve on her own. For example, at age 15, Jess wanted to start a business, and it involved buying a large piece of land. Her father suggested she get a job in order to pay for a deposit on a rental property. She did so, purchased the property and made a significant capital gain on it within a year. She then sold it and used this money to finance her first business (including buying the land). Jess points to another issue, which is what one might refer to as the ‘singling’ out of a particular child (in this case, Jess was the middle child of three) for ‘nurturing’. Jess realises that she was treated differently from her sisters (who went on to become a nurse and a teacher), and it was probably her personality that her father had noticed and he began to transfer his knowledge to her. Jess’s father was her inspiration and her hero, and she sought approval from him for her business ideas, but he wanted her to think independently, and would not help her every time.

However, having a father in business while growing up was not always influential in such a positive way. For Lisa, her father was sometimes called out on important occasions and this was something she considered when starting her own business:

If anything it was probably a negative, because he is an [self employed]. My memories are of him at Christmas going and having to [work] or missing a birthday dinner or whatever, didn't happen every year, but only remember the bad ones...I have a great relationship with my dad, always have, he and I have a special bond so it's not that I have ever resented the fact that he hasn't been there, it's more poor dad, he has got a real hard time, but I think that's part of it. - Lisa.

Lisa, like Jess and Shirley, talks about her dad fondly, and highlights the relationship and bond she has with her father. Again, she singles out her father as being the more influential of her parents, and her quote suggests she was concerned for her father, especially in terms of the nature of his business (eg. being on call, working on holidays). Interestingly, Lisa focuses not on her own perception of growing up with her father missing some special occasions, but transfers this away from herself and focuses on worrying about how her dad coped with it. This example is one where Lisa is showing that she was thinking interdependently even at a young age, and this has followed her into her own decision to start a business.

The other women participants who didn't have parents that owned businesses were still strongly influenced by their parents. They spoke of the influence their fathers had on them growing up and how this related to their subsequent decisions to become an entrepreneur. The experiences of Ann and Kay show these influences:

I had a fantastic father, my mother was alright, but my father was particularly fantastic. He had a degree and he believes strongly in education for everyone, even though I am of an era where some people thought girls should go and be nurses and things – Ann

Whilst I get a lot of the business side from my father, my personality, thank god comes from my mother. He's too aggressive, too assertive - Kay.

Ann considers her father to be “fantastic”, while her mother was “alright”. Ann recognises that her father was particularly forward thinking for the time (Ann is aged 55+). Kay also picks up on a similar notion, where her mother and father clearly played different roles in her personality development and business skills. Kay talks of her father being aggressive and assertive, both personality traits she would rather not have herself. The experiences of the women participants show that their parents and, in particular, their fathers, influenced their motivations to become an entrepreneur in a number of ways. The exposure to business talk at an early age appears to have influenced the women who had parents who were business owners or entrepreneurs. This influence from their fathers came in the form of support, help and teachings, while others spoke of their fathers as someone they did not want to be like because of the stress of being a business owner, or because they had an aggressive personality.

8.2.2 Men participants

The men participants also had some doubt as to whether their parents influenced their motivations to become an entrepreneur. For example, Gordon replied “yeah, not directly but probably by osmosis really” to this question. However, in a similar way to the women participants, the men seemed influenced by their parents' experiences in business. Gerry and Don explain:

The reason why I wanted to work for myself is, I guess, I had that innate sense of being self employed. Most of my family are self employed - Gerry

Absolutely [parents influenced his decision to become an entrepreneur]. Yeah, it is an outlook on life, and my kids are going to be the same... they will be as independent as hell –
Don

In these two examples, Gerry and Don both describe the influence of growing up in an entrepreneurial family. Indeed, Don suggests that he is looking to transfer his own sense of independence to his children. This supports the idea that independence is learned rather than an innate quality.

In a similar vein to the women participants discussed here, some of the men participants' fathers were also key figures in their lives and influenced their subsequent motivations to become entrepreneurs. However, whereas the women discuss their fathers in relation to learning from them (what to do, what not to do), being inspired by their fathers and being concerned about their fathers, the men tend to focus on a different set of issues with respect to their fathers. One issue that appears for the men participants relates to them being motivated to be different from or better than their fathers. Keith's decision to start a business came early and appears to be strongly motivated by his father:

I had set myself at the age of fifty that I wanted to be running my own business and when I decided that probably, well probably fifteen years or so ago, but explicitly decided after my father died, who had the same sort of aspiration but basically ended up working for other people all his life. Never did it, left it too late and then died within eighteen months of retiring, and I thought, well I am not going to let that happen to me – Keith

While Keith already had aspirations to be an entrepreneur, a tragic event was a key trigger for him to make a decision to become an entrepreneur and to set a time frame for it. Keith's quote suggests that he believes his father had failed to follow through on his vision of becoming an entrepreneur and he refused to let the same thing happen to himself. The influence of the entrepreneurs' fathers in their lives is also evident in stories from other men participants, as the following excerpt from Stew illustrates:

He [father] definitely influenced the feeling of independence. He never liked me being a public servant, job for life sort of thing. I don't think he was particularly impressed by that...I certainly admired my father's ability and determination to make the business work. – Stew

Stew indicates the influence his father had on his decision to subsequently become an entrepreneur. For Stew, choosing not to work with his father in the family's manufacturing business was something he felt his father didn't like. Eventually, Stew set up his own business. The apparent desire for independence that his father instilled in him appears to have played some part in Stew's motivations to subsequently start his own business. While Stew looked to his father with admiration, he did not want to work with him or for him. Craig also viewed his father as being successful in business and saw him as being a role model in his life, yet Craig adds another dimension to Steve's view:

I saw [what] my father did and I wanted to do that, but I didn't want him to do it for me – Craig

Craig points to looking to his father and wanting to do something similar to what he did (being in his own business), but at the same time not wanting his father to give him all the answers, nor to help him directly. Craig speaks of wanting to be independent from his father. He also specifically singles out his father as being the key parental role model in his entrepreneurial beginnings. He goes on:

My mother was a great mother. She was, she didn't have a great role in...my thought processes, but my father did. You know, I wouldn't talk to him about things, but watching what he did and engineering things... Maybe I was always trying to outdo him, which I think I did by about 20 times – Craig

Craig rules out his mother having had any influence on his decision to become an entrepreneur, but his second excerpt adds further weight to the suggestion that he seemed motivated to be independent from his father, and to focus on competing with his father and trying to 'outdo him'. Craig also suggests he learnt by watching his father, rather than talking to him, and he also highlights his desire to be independent from his father and not ask for help. While Craig learnt from his father in a positive way, three other men had fathers in businesses but did not like what their fathers did. Ralph is one of these men:

My father died at the age of 53. He was self employed but he never, he was very good at what he did but he never [was very successful]. He was quite careful and cautious – Ralph

Ralph's father had owned a business, but he saw his father as being too conservative in business. He learnt from his father's approach to business and decided to try not to emulate him. Other men participants saw the 'mistakes' their parents had made with their own businesses, and decided they could learn from these and do a better job themselves. For example, Gordon and Monty:

Some of the things he did I didn't quite like, I didn't think he had enough focus, all different industries, doing a whole lot of stuff -
Gordon

No. Dad was not a success, not a silly man...but he was a clever bugger,[he just] never picked the right things – Monty

Gordon and Monty both speak of their fathers as being involved in a wide range of entrepreneurial ventures (Gordon's father had as many as eight businesses running simultaneously). In both of these cases, their fathers were not 'successful' in their view, and this perhaps influenced them to start businesses in areas they both had direct experience with, and to grow or diversify their businesses with extreme caution. In all three of these examples, Ralph, Gordon and Monty looked at their father's attempts at business ownership with disapproval. While the link between their fathers and their subsequent motivations to become entrepreneurs may be implicit, these examples illustrate how some of the men participants looked to their fathers as role models, but to learn from their mistakes, and to compete and outdo them.

8.2.3 Summary

This section shows that parents are a key source of inspiration for many participants in their decisions to become entrepreneurs. The primary influencer on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur in the participants' families during childhood was their father. Interestingly, even in examples where the mother and father owned and worked in a business together (eg. a farm), the entrepreneur's father had the major influencing role in the participants' motivations to become entrepreneurs. What this suggests is that while for the entrepreneurs of the age of those participating in this study mothers may have a large role to play in their children's early socialisation, their fathers influenced their decisions to start a business (their fathers generally had businesses of their own).

For some of the women participants, their parents were a source of inspiration and they learnt valuable lessons about business from their childhood experiences because their parents owned businesses. Women participants looked to their parents (particularly, fathers) for inspiration, to be taught, and to be supported. Thus, I suggest that women's interdependent construals of self make them think to others in terms of caring for, and with concern for their parents' experiences in business. They also see their parents as role models, and learn from them, in addition to being inspired by them. These experiences women have during childhood seem to be something they look to when deciding to become an entrepreneur. The family, in the case of the women participants, is an important background influence in their decisions, but in a different way to the men participants.

Fewer men participants seemed to be motivated to become an entrepreneur by their parents, and men's accounts of experiences within their families differed from the women participants. The quotes from the men participants often refer to the desire to be independent from their parents (fathers in particular), and this goal of independence appears to be similar to work-related motivating factors that were discussed in Chapter Seven. Some of the men also made judgements about the operations of their parents' businesses, again showing their apparent desire for independence. In many cases, men's apparent independent self construal seems to make them want to be independent from their parents, and therefore seems to be an explicit influence on their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

The participants' upbringings also may have influenced their motivations to become entrepreneurs in other ways. The next section continues to discuss their upbringing, but examines the participants whose siblings influenced their motivations to become entrepreneurs.

8.3 Siblings

Do siblings have any influence on an entrepreneur's motivation for starting a business? Firstly, some demographics are in order. In this study, most of the women and men

participants had siblings (24 and 23 respectively), with only three of the participants being only children. Appendix G also shows that when comparing women and men participants, women have slightly more siblings in their family than the men participants do, and both women and men participants have more brothers than sisters. Given that the discussion in Section 8.2 centres on the influence on participants of parents who had businesses of their own, this seems to be a good place to start discussion of the influence of siblings. Ten women entrepreneurs' siblings and 11 of the men participant's siblings also owned businesses. This is perhaps not surprising given the earlier discussion of the apparent influence parents can have on motivations for becoming entrepreneurs. Presumably if many of these participants felt they were influenced by their upbringing, then it may follow that their siblings may too have been similarly influenced to start a business.

What is of interest here is not the number of siblings or the incidence of siblings' business ownership, but whether (and if so, how) participants were influenced to become entrepreneurs by their siblings. The primary purpose is to see whether these influences are different for women and men. This section highlights several different types of influences of these entrepreneurs' siblings, such as starting a business with a sibling, or in more indirect roles, such as their being a role model. On a more negative note, some participants did not consider their siblings to be role models, and the death of a sibling provided the motivation for one participant to become an entrepreneur. Table 8.2 illustrates the participants who suggest they were influenced by their siblings in some way to become an entrepreneur.

Table 8. 2 Participants who were influenced by siblings

Women	Men
Jean	George* Grant* John* Ross Simon Steve Todd

* started a business with a sibling

8.3.1 Women participants

Jean was the only woman participant who spoke of her siblings as having had an impact on her own decision to start a business. Jean referred primarily to her brothers, even though some of her sisters also had businesses of their own:

Maybe the older brothers may have had an effect because they'd, you know, they were running businesses – Jean

When asked how her siblings had affected her in terms of her own decision to start a business, Jean elaborates to say “I always just thought, well if they can do it, I can do it”. Jean’s confidence levels were raised because she thought of her own abilities in relation to those of her siblings, and she used them as a means of comparison. Jean thought that her older siblings had some influence on her decision to start a business, and this example shows her thinking of her own abilities with reference to her siblings. Thus, Jean appears to be thinking interdependently. That Jean is the only woman participant listed as being motivated in part by her siblings is interesting when considering the influence that parents seemed to have for the women participants when deciding to become an entrepreneur.

8.3.2 Men participants

In comparison to Jean’s experience, seven of the men participants’ motivations to start a business were influenced by their siblings. As noted in Table 8.2, three of the men participants started businesses with their siblings⁵⁷ (two with their brothers and one with a sister). All three of these men describe how their siblings either complement them in business or are different enough to make the partnership work. This can be seen in the following words from George and Grant:

I'm sort of more the ideas guy in some of the ideas, you know, he has a few ideas, but he's more, he sort of follows, goes along with the flow - George.

⁵⁷ Harry had his sister working for him part-time but she did not share ownership.

He is not as entrepreneurial as I am...he is more of a plodder, a person [who] just does the day to day type thing you know - Grant

Here, these two men appear to be thinking in terms of an interdependent self-construal, where they view their brothers as being integral to the success of the business. However, while these two participants started a business with their brothers, and were obviously motivated by each other, George and Grant both point to their desire to be in control or in charge of the business. Thus, while they may indicate some degree of interdependence, they both show an overriding desire to be in control, and to be independent of their brothers. Even though both of these participants and their brothers founded the businesses together, George and Gary seem to see themselves as being 'more' entrepreneurial than their brothers, and in George's case, he sees his brother in a following role. Presumably this is not a finding that only relates to starting businesses with siblings, but is something that may emerge when starting a business with any individual. These examples of starting a business with a brother are contrasted to the example of John, who started a business with his sister. In John's case, he and his sister began a business, which ultimately she left. John explains why he believes it didn't work in the long term:

My sister, when she came on board, she had all these questions, 'what's it like to run your own business, why are you doing this, why do you want to put yourself at risk?' For her she was constantly terrified. – John

There were apparent differences in perceptions of risk and concerns about money between John and his sister. His reference to her coming on board suggests that John appears to have pulled her somewhat reluctantly into the business, and also suggests that John saw himself as taking the lead entrepreneur role with reference to his sister. In the longer term, this partnership did not work, and his sister left for a position in paid employment. In all three of the cases where participants started businesses with a sibling, issues of control and leadership emerge in their quotes, and it is apparent that the three participants saw themselves in the 'leader' role in terms of both starting the business and in making ongoing decisions. While these three examples of men participants starting businesses with their siblings are unclear in relation to their motivations per se, it is possible that they may have influenced each other in terms of

starting a business. Simon is clearer about how he believes his brother has been a role model, and how his brother influenced his decision to start a business:

Yes, I think he would have [influenced me]. I saw he was prospering, bought a new car and was doing well...my brother is, he is self made, same as me. But he is probably worth \$10 million – Simon

In Simon's case, he looked to his brother and saw his financial success and thought that if he became an entrepreneur, he may also have similar financial success. Simon suggests that his brother influenced his motivations to become an entrepreneur. Another of the men participants (Steve) said his brother had not been a role model, but his brother seemed to have some influence on his decision of what kind of business to start and how to run the business. As in some of the examples in Section 8.2 which showed fathers negatively influencing participants, Steve had seen the way his brother managed his business and did not aspire to be like him:

Ah, I guess he was an anti role model. He behaved in a way that I didn't want to behave like. I thought, I am never going to do that - Steve

However, while Steve did not think his brother was a role model, he still appears to have been influenced by his brother's business practices in his own motivations to start his own business. Steve continues, and seems to show some sense of being in competition with this brother:

I have got one brother who has got his own business, he is extremely successful, he is a multi-millionaire. I am not (Laughs) - Steve

Steve's second excerpt appears to be showing some signs of jealousy of his brother's financial success. While at the outset he seemed to think in terms of others and an interdependent construal of self, now the comparisons Steve makes are in relation to being in competition with his 'more successful' brother. While some of these examples do not illustrate a direct link between the siblings' influences on the participants' motivations to start a business, their responses illustrate an opposing view of learning 'what not to do', or having different business ethics to their siblings (brothers). This view appears to be similar to that illustrated in Section 8.2, where several of the men participants were influenced by their father in terms of how not to be in business. Here,

some men appear to want to distance themselves from brothers who they did not think of as role models. This distancing of the self from siblings appears to be related to somehow being 'better' than or 'different' from their siblings, and it suggests a desire for independence from their siblings.

While seeing a sibling as a role model (or not), or actually starting a business with a sibling is the theme of this section so far, it would seem there are several more compelling influences of siblings, as Ross and Todd's views show. One such account is that sibling rivalry appears to be a motivator for Ross:

I know why we run our [business partners] own business. It is very much indirectly, it's cos my sister was always seen as the golden girl and she was sort of like getting everything where I wasn't... My sister has always had these problems, you know emotional problems, never harassed at work, hasn't had the children yet and you know that sort of I think my mother has realised 'oh my god, Ross has actually done quite well' (laugh). Yeah, you got your grandkids. How many do you want? 'four' (laugh) – Ross

Ross's example shows that he was trying to compete with his sister for the attention of their mother. His sister was, in his opinion, favoured as a child. Ross's account of why he started his own business appears fundamentally linked to his sister and the way his mother continues to favour her. In this case, it wasn't until Ross owned a business and had produced four grandchildren ahead of his sister (who has no children) that he seemed to begin to feel worthwhile in the eyes of his mother. Again, Ross's account points to wanting to be independent from his sister, and 'better' than her in certain things. Ross was not concerned for the well-being of his sister, but started a business deliberately to be in competition with his sister. It is clear from Ross's account that he believes he has 'won' some type of competition with his sister, and measures this in terms of his business and the number of grandchildren he has produced for his mother. However, for Todd, the situation was more serious, and the influence of his brother dying was a strong motivator for him to become an entrepreneur.

Todd appears to be the only man who linked his motivations to become an entrepreneur closely with a sibling, but this was not involved with competition and a desire for independence. Todd lost his brother to leukaemia when his brother was only 31, and he

had only 18 hours between diagnosis and death. This tragedy played a role in his decision to become an entrepreneur:

I guess what you would call [him] a hippy. West Coast, South Island alternative life commune, that sort of thing... But the thing about [brother], he did exactly what he wanted to do he wasn't tied to anyone else's approval or acceptance and I admired that about him... he had far more life than I did, and my conservative corporate ladder climbing antics - you know, if I had died at his age you know I would have been the poorer for it (Laugh). At least he lived and did what he wanted to do - Todd.

Although Todd's brother's lifestyle was not one he would choose for himself, this tragedy caused Todd to re-evaluate his life. He had worked in a high stress corporate climate and he was motivated to change his life completely, escaping the corporate life and starting his own business. He built in flexibility within the business for meditation, yoga and a four-day working week. Todd's reference to approval or acceptance of others suggests that this may have been what drove him to remain (unhappily) in his corporate job for some time.

8.3.3 Summary

In summary, several themes emerge from the analysis of the role of siblings on participants' motivations to become entrepreneurs. It would appear that when siblings motivated the participants, it was likely to be their brothers who influenced them. Given that there is only one woman participant who said her siblings influenced her motivations to start a business, it is suggested that women participants look more to their fathers as being role models and influencers, rather than their siblings.

This is interesting when compared to the experiences of the men participants, who typically wanted to be independent from their parents, but suggested their siblings had influenced their motivations for becoming entrepreneurs. In three cases, this was taken as far as starting a business with a sibling. The experiences of the men participants suggest that their siblings did influence their motivations to start a business, and did so in a number of ways. The themes that emerge in almost all of the accounts of the men participants who were motivated in some way by their siblings speak of their desire to

be independent from, to compete with, or to distinguish themselves from their siblings. For these men, the themes suggest they have a strong independent construal of self. As with the discussion of the men participants' parents, it seems the pattern of desiring independence from family members continues to some extent here. The conclusion I reach when analysing these seven men participants is that they are again showing their independent self-construal, and are trying to either dominate, be better than, or more entrepreneurial than their siblings (primarily brothers).

As can be seen from the discussion regarding parents and siblings, an entrepreneur's upbringing appears to be a seedbed from which her or his motivations to become an entrepreneur grows. Clearly, the influence of family on the motivations to become an entrepreneur is a complicated one, but appears to be a strong factor in a participant's subsequent motivations to start a business. The potential influence of family life on entrepreneurial motivation does not stop with the participant's upbringing, and it is the role of family in the entrepreneur's adult life that is discussed next – in terms of the participant's domestic partner and children.

8.4 Domestic Partner

The motivation to become an entrepreneur may be influenced by a number of people within a participant's family. These influences on motivations to start a business may come, in part, from a domestic partner (eg. husband, wife, de facto partner). The participants in this study were primarily married or living with a domestic partner (17 women and 22 men). As Table 8.3 shows, 16 women participants' motivations seemed to be influenced by their domestic partner, while only six men participants' accounts of their motivations to become entrepreneurs were influenced by a domestic partner.

Table 8. 3 Participants whose domestic partner influenced motivations

Women	Men
Ann	Don
Cara*	Pete
Dee*	Ross
Elly	Simon
Emma	Todd
Jane*	Trevor*
Jean	
Kate	
Kay	
Kim*	
Lisa	
Mary	
Rae	
Sara	
Sue*	
Viv	

* started a business with their domestic partner (ie. co-preneneurs).

Few of the participants actually founded their current business with their domestic partner. Only six of the participants can be considered co-preneurs. The next section begins with the experiences of the women participants who started a business with their domestic partner.

8.4.1 Women participants

For Cara and her domestic partner (her third husband), starting a business and owning the business together was an ideal situation, judging by the following quote:

Neither of us could have done it without the other, do you know what I mean? – Cara

Cara's case is particularly interesting as she has a history of owning businesses, from retail outlets, to sewing curtains at home, and having home-stay students. Cara operated all of these previous businesses alone, so it is interesting to hear her suggest she would not have been able to run her current manufacturing business without her husband's involvement. Cara's voice seems to echo a lack of confidence about being in business alone, even though she had two other previous bad experiences of owning a business with previous husbands. In the case of the retail outlet, Cara and her first

husband bought the business and soon afterwards she found out her husband was not prepared to work the long hours required and he was also having an extramarital affair. Later Cara remarried, and with her second husband, purchased another business that was a live-in, 24-hour a day type of operation. She reflects on this experience and its similarities to the previous business she owned with her first husband:

Yes, came out of there [name of business] because my husband wasn't a worker. We women, we never learn – Cara

What Cara's second quote points to is the unequal balance of power in her relationship with one of her prior husbands, and she goes on to suggest this might be something that is applicable to more women than herself. Indeed, Sue also talks about a similar situation she found herself in while owning a previous business with her husband (now ex):

I have been in business with a husband partner and that was definitely it, it was always his business even though, it's a mental thing...It's my businesses and I am in this by myself even though this person is working 40 hours a week (laughs), to help me – Sue

Sue found herself working just as hard as her husband, but found he considered the business to be 'his', rather than 'theirs', even though they had both founded the business together.

These women co-preneuers offer support for the contention in this thesis that women tend to have interdependent self-construals. These women clearly looked to their domestic partners when starting a business. However, while many participants did not establish businesses with their domestic partners, they also found they were also influenced to start a business in some way by their domestic partner. The influence appears to go further than co-founding, to various other effects on the participants' motivations to start the business, such as support, encouragement and concern for the family. For other women participants who were motivated in part by their domestic partners, their domestic partners' input into starting the business was considered vital. For Sara, it was a more negative influence that motivated her to become an entrepreneur. Breaking up with her domestic partner provided her with the impetus to change her life:

My relationship broke up at the same time [as issues at work emerged]. I think that was a bit of a catalyst too you know change everything get out there and yes [start business] – Sara

Again, in Sara's case, the influence of breaking up with her partner was not in isolation, but also came at a time when she was being asked to take on a management position that she did not want (See Section 7.2.1). Sara highlights the multi-faceted nature of her motivations to become an entrepreneur, and it leads to the question of whether each of these events (work or breaking up with her partner) would have been enough on their own to motivate Sara to become an entrepreneur. Similarly, Lisa's motivations to start her business seemed to be affected by her husband, but she found much more practical support from her husband than in Sara's break-up example:

Yeah, I don't think I could have done it without the support I got from him. Because of what I get from him, he is prepared to pull his weight at home and at work, he will swap around and do both, it works well – Lisa

While Lisa and her husband now both work in the business, Lisa founded the business alone. She clearly considered her husband in the decision to start a business in relation to his role within the home and the family (the couple have three pre-school children). However, Lisa finds that attitudes towards their job-sharing by her mother and other friends are quite negative. Lisa finds that these people consider that it should be her staying home with the children and taking the primary responsibility for child rearing. In perhaps less direct ways than those of Lisa and Dee, other women participants were encouraged to start their businesses by their domestic partner, and this may have aided in their decision to become entrepreneurs:

I took advice from both of them [husband and brother] because my husband was a successful businessman and my brother was my accountant, so I couldn't have had two stronger supporters – Kate

My partner was behind it all the way – Rae

The support Kate and Rae had from their domestic partners was significant, particularly as both women had been in previous business partnerships that had soured, and both wanted to start new businesses of their own. In Kate's case, she thought to take advice from her husband, again showing that she looked to her relationships with others when

making her decision to dissolve the partnership and set up her own company. Other women also had the same support but added a further dimension to the nature of their domestic relationships:

I am lucky, I do have that support. I am lucky, I do have that and if we didn't have that I think we would have to question why we are doing it in the first place...I suppose my partner encouraged me because he allowed it to happen – Kay

Kay had support from her domestic partner in terms of starting a business. However, Kay considers herself to be very fortunate and lucky to have the support of her domestic partner, and she didn't expect to have this support automatically. In Kay's case, she considered her husband in her decision to become an entrepreneur but she offers a hint that he also had the final say on whether her business went ahead, and that her husband had the ability to put a hold on the business start-up.

8.4.2 Men participants

However, the influence of a domestic partner in the decision to become an entrepreneur appears to be somewhat different for the men participants than for the women. While the women participants considered their domestic partners in their decision to start a business, and thought of their decision in terms of their domestic partner, the men participants did not seem to do so as often.

In Ralph's case, his wife played a significant part in his decision to set up a business with a business partner. Ralph was another man who was unhappy with his work environment and had tried to get himself made redundant (Section 7.5.2). Ralph and his wife had emigrated to New Zealand from England and his wife was very keen to stay in New Zealand:

They [his and business partners' wives] kind of pushed us to do it... without her I would not have been able to do any of what I have done because she has been a good support. Been a good leveller and yeah, she is fantastic – Ralph

Ralph's wife pushed him into his own business because she knew he was unhappy at work. Once established in business, Ralph is now well aware of his wife's input into

the business in terms of support and looking after their young son, while he works in excess of 100 hours per week. In another case, Todd was motivated by a number of factors (eg. in addition to his brother dying, being dissatisfied with his job and wanting more time for leisure activities), but one of these factors was that he wanted to spend more time with his young children and his wife:

I didn't have enough time with my family [wife and children] –
Todd

In this example, as in many of the other examples in this chapter, Todd points to multiple motivating factors in his decision to start a business. In his case, it is especially difficult to untangle these motivating factors, and it would be impossible to suggest which were 'more' important. However, while Todd considered his family in relation to his decision to start a business, the reality of having his wife involved in the business was interesting. Todd's wife works with him as a director, but Todd makes it clear that he is ultimately in charge of the business:

But I run the business, I make the final decisions now, the big decisions I consult with her because she is very wise but the buck stops, got to stop on one desk my desk. And so, you have got [to] have a Managing Director – Todd

Todd appears to have considered his wife (and children) when starting his business, and did think of others (his brother who had died) when deciding whether to become an entrepreneur, but, once in his own business, the reality seems different. Todd clearly wants control of his business, and while he speaks earlier of managing his company like a team, he is ultimately the 'captain' of the team. It appears that his approach to his domestic partner runs on similar principles. Although she draws a salary from the business and is co-owner of it, Todd believes he should make all the final decisions. Interestingly, another man also has a similar view of his domestic partner. Simon admitted his wife played a significant part in his decision to start a business:

My wife was complaining...was on shift work and we never saw each other, and she wanted to start having a family –
Simon

In this quote, Simon was swayed into starting his own business by pressure from his wife, because she wanted more time with her husband and wanted to start having

children. Ironically, Simon now works longer hours than he ever did before. This apparent dominance that Simon and Todd exert over their wives is of interest, as both of their wives are working partners in at least one of their businesses. Todd and Simon indicate that their wives played some part in their decision to become entrepreneurs, and they tended to think about their decision to start a business in terms of their relationships and their families. However, the outcomes seem entirely different from this. In these two cases, Todd and Simon do not see their wives as being equal owners in the business, even though both women work in their businesses and are partners in some of the businesses. This suggests that the desire for control over their businesses extends to controlling their wives as well, and these men consider their wives to be in the business to play a certain role, but that role does not include leadership.

For several of the other men participants, their wives supported their decision to go into business, but the link between support and motivation is somewhat blurrier:

Yes, she thought it was a good thing to do. Yes, she thought it was a great thing to do – Ross

My wife was pretty positive. She was. She said 'if that is what you want to do that is fine'. She didn't have a problem with that
– Don

In Don's case, his wife seemed ambivalent about him starting his business, and Ross doubly emphasises that his wife was keen for him to start a business. For two other men participants, their domestic partners were perhaps less influential in the decision to become an entrepreneur because of their perceived dominance in their domestic relationships. These men appear not to have considered their domestic partner in their decision. John illustrates this first:

No [wife didn't influence him]. My wife knows this about me - that I don't want to work for other people – John

John suggests his wife didn't have any influence in his decision to become an entrepreneur. John's views appear to indicate that he was prepared to go ahead with his business regardless of her opinion, and without much thought towards her wishes. He seems to be clear that he had previously conveyed this to his wife and that she would go along with his ideas to start a business. Brent takes this theme somewhat further,

suggesting his domestic partner was not particularly supportive of his business start-up, yet he relied on support from her:

It is only with their [wife and children's] support that you can do a thing like this and you can't do it forever...I won't say that they [wife and children] have been supportive but they have expected it because I have been the dominant figure - Brent

What the last sentence of Brent's statement points to seems to be similar to what John is alluding to. That is, some of the men participants' examples show differential power relations in their relationship, and an apparent domination over their wives. Brent's decision to start his current business significantly influenced the family's income, where his wife is now unhappy because her friends are able to afford new cars, while she is not. It would seem that Brent's decision to start a business had a clear impact on his family, yet he appeared prepared to go ahead regardless of his wife's view, because of his acknowledged dominance in the family.

In only a few cases did the men participants seek out their domestic partner's support and advice in starting a business. For example, Trevor started a business with his wife and discussed their ownership relationship in an equal manner:

Barbara [wife] and I feed off each other. We each have experiences, and we are combining that to the betterment of what we are doing – Trevor

Trevor offers the strongest suggestion of any of the men participants that he considered his wife in relation to his decision to start the business. Trevor and his wife founded their current business together, and work in the same office on a daily basis. He saw their decision to start another business together as a joint one, for the benefit of them both. Trevor's case seems to be an exception though, and the other men participants whose motivations were influenced by their domestic partner were less relationship focused.

8.4.3 Outcomes for domestic partner's

As an aside, in addition to the influence domestic partners have on motivations to become an entrepreneur, it is also interesting to see the 'outcomes' for the domestic partner once a business is established. If a woman participant has her husband help with her business, he is often considered to be an equal owner in the business. If a women participant's domestic partner is not a company director, he tends to have high profile management position is a paid position:

Jim and I are equal partners, although essentially 99% of the work is done by me. He is the reins – Kay.

This quote from Kay illustrates how she views her husband as being an equal owner in the business, but she then goes on to say that she does the vast majority of the day to day work on the business. Kay shows that she was motivated in part by concern for her husband, but highlights the apparently unequal nature of her business arrangement, where she considers her domestic partner to be an equal partner in the business, yet also recognises that he has a non-working role to play, as being her "reins". Kay goes on to elaborate about these reins, and suggests that she is tempered by her husband, and without him, she may consider growing her business further and borrowing more money. Again, she looks to others when making decisions, and shows an interdependent self-construal.

On the contrary, many of the men participants' partners are either not paid, paid poorly, or are last in line to be paid. The men participants prefer to have their partner help out in the business but do not recognise them in a position of authority, nor do they feature strongly in the ownership arrangements of the businesses or in management decisions. This difference may not be important overall because the law would consider the business to be both partners in the event of a separation, but this raises some interesting issues that seem to be related to power within domestic relationships. Meanwhile, the women participants seek and rely more on the support of their domestic partner. The consequences of men having more help from their domestic partner may be a significant factor when starting a business.

In another case, while Simon's wife was a key reason he decided to start his own business, he appears to oppose his wife's ownership of their four other businesses. Simon appears reluctant to consider his wife an equal partner:

[wife] Is a director of this [name of business], but by the virtue of marriage, she has half of the others I suppose – Simon

When contemplating starting a business, men appear able to 'assume' that their wives will help out in some capacity, and this help may aid in the success of the business if they are not paid as an employee. Thus, men's motivations to start a business may be indirectly influenced by their domestic partner, but not out of concern for the impact on them. Rather, it seems to be the case that they are able to rely on their domestic partner for ongoing assistance in the business that may have influenced their decision to become an entrepreneur. The influence of a domestic partner on the motivations to become an entrepreneur highlights some interesting differences between the women and men participants.

8.4.4 Summary

Among the participants who were motivated to become entrepreneurs in part by their domestic partners show they can have a wide-ranging influence on many of the entrepreneurs' later experiences in business. Many of the participants' domestic partners have been role models, given support and encouragement, or helped their partner start a business together. In a similar way to motivations that stem from the influence of parents, some of the women participants actively sought the support of their domestic partner prior to starting a business. Many of these women seemed conscious of the impact the business would have on their domestic partner when considering starting a business, and some were motivated to start a business with reference to their domestic partner. This again shows some sense of women thinking interdependently when making decisions about whether to become an entrepreneur.

Alternatively, in all but one or two cases, the men did not actively seek such approval or support from their domestic partner, but almost assumed that support would be

forthcoming. In a few instances, this seems linked to the dominant position they feel they have in their relationship with their domestic partner. This can be linked back to their apparently independent self-construal, but these gender differences appear less evident than in other sections of this chapter. The next section focuses on the potential influence of children, an area where traditional roles are highly gendered.

8.5 Children

This section undertakes to understand the impact the participants' children potentially had on their motivations to start a business. In this study, 13 of the 25 women participants did not have children at the time of starting their business (three went on to have children after start-up). In the case of the men participants, 21 had children at the time of start-up, and three became fathers after start-up. Table 8.4 shows the participants whose motivations to start a business seem to have been influenced in some way by their children.

Table 8. 4 Participants who were motivated by their children

Women	Men
Elly	Brent
Jean	Craig
Kay	Don
Kim	Gerry
Lana	Monty
Sarah	Pete
Sue	Ross
Ruth	Steve
Viv	Todd

While Table 8.4 illustrates that an equal number of women and men were motivated to become entrepreneurs in relation to their children, this is perhaps misleading. It must be noted that only 12 women had children at the time of their business start-up, while 21 men did so. Therefore, almost all of the women who had children at the time of business start-up were motivated to become an entrepreneur by their children, while nine out of the 21 men who had children seemed motivated in some way by their children. There appears to be quite a range of effects that children have on these participants' motivations to start their own businesses, and they are described here in

depth. In addition, I also discuss the participants who did not have children to understand whether their having no children is related to their being an entrepreneur.

8.5.1 Women participants

Elly and Jean both decided to start their businesses while they had children aged under five years old. Both of these participants also started their businesses from home. This enabled them to have a business at the same time as raising young children:

Because I wanted the flexibility. I was very happy being employed up to the point of having children but I wanted to be around for them at the right times...It's meant the business has grown a lot slower than it might have and I found that once you know children were totally out of the way and my focus was totally on the business, it really started to grow more – Elly

[starting a business] I felt it would be good for my children. It means that I was home with the kids, it meant that I could add to the coffers – Jean

Jean and Elly's decisions to start a business were clearly motivated by their desire to stay home with their young children. In Elly's case, the outcomes for the business were also a direct result of the ages of her children, as she notes that once the children were older she was able to grow her business. For Jean, it also meant she was able to contribute financially to the household while caring for her children. Jean goes on to further explain why she did not start a business outside of the home when her children were young:

I would not have [started a business out of the home] when the kids were home. I wouldn't have had the money to take that risk
– Jean

Jean links two issues here. She speaks of wanting to be home with her children but also of having limited financial ability to be able to start a business outside the home. Thus, by having children and being taken out of the workforce, she was constrained financially, and in order to look after her children, starting a business from home was the best solution. Therefore, Jean's children influenced her decision to become an entrepreneur, but also influenced the type and nature of the business she started, as it

needed to fit with her domestic requirements. Sarah also started a business from home while her children were young:

I toyed with working for a corporate because working for yourself can be quite tough at times, I would have been out the door at five to seven, and not back to seven, I would never have seen my kids, so I have the best of the both worlds – Sarah

Sarah speaks of the benefits she has as an entrepreneur. Sarah currently works from home with her husband, who is also an entrepreneur. Although being an entrepreneur offers her flexibility in terms of working hours, it does not stretch to allowing her to finish work at the same time as school finishes. Sarah's motivations for becoming an entrepreneur were directly tied to her wanting to be home for her children at a reasonable time of the day. Her example shows she looked at the impact her job was having on her children, and becoming an entrepreneur was a means of balancing her work and family lives. For Sarah, there seems to be a clear link between her children and her motivations for starting a business. Like Sarah, Kay is another woman who also started her business when her children were young, but she set up the business from an office in the city instead, as she needed to work outside of the home. When asked if her children were a consideration when starting the business, she links children to her motivations for becoming an entrepreneur:

In a round about way, yes...Part of its purpose is to provide them [kids] with a solid future – Kay

Kay was indirectly aiming to provide a future for her children, and her decision to start a business was a means of her doing so. Kay managed to start the business with young children with the help of her parents, and with help from her domestic partner, who stayed at home for a time to look after the children. However, Kay continued to take on the 'traditional' roles of mother, as well as doing the majority of the domestic work in the household.

Other women waited until their children were grown before starting their own business. This meant some women were in their late forties or early fifties before they started the business. In Ruth's case, she waited until her children were grown:

Everything I did revolved around the kids and it still does, and it is only since I have moved here [to Auckland] that it started to go into me [the business]- Ruth

Ruth devoted her life to her children (her ex-husband was an alcoholic) and only when they were grown and living away from home did she feel able to start her own business and do what she wanted to do with her own business. The women participants who were motivated to become entrepreneurs in some way because of their children appear to exhibit further support for the idea that women have an interdependent construal of self. This interdependent self-construal seems to flow through into their decision making processes and their motivations for becoming entrepreneurs. I refer to Kay again, as she perhaps provides one of the best examples of explaining how her children impacted on her decision to start a business:

I managed six weeks [of maternity leave] with both of them. Back at the gym and did freelance work. I couldn't do it, it drove me nuts, it drove me absolutely nuts. I couldn't do it now, I absolutely couldn't do it now...I never did coffee mornings and I never did children, baby things, and I never did anything like that. I couldn't face it. As much as I enjoy it now, they are little people now. Older. There is no mental stimulation at all. I can look after them for an afternoon and then I have to go work
– Kay

Kay's decision to start a business while her children were young appears to be a direct result of her views on being a mother to young children. Whether it was returning to paid employment or becoming an entrepreneur, the decision for Kay appeared to be a relatively simple one as she wanted to work outside of the home. Viv, unlike Kay, started her business once her children were grown, but she illustrates just how difficult it was for her to be in a previous business while having a teenage son:

To be in business and have children would be an impossible call. When I had my last business I had my son at boarding school and there is no way I could have worked in the business if that hadn't have happened. I don't think you can have that combination, people say you can have the whole lot but you actually can't – Viv

In Viv's case, her child being at boarding school enabled her to have her own business. She realised that having children at home (even teenagers) was a difficult scenario while

also trying to run a business. However, Viv also describes the feelings of guilt involved in being an entrepreneur and a mother:

We get more involved than men and feel guilty when you are not there as a mum – Viv

I couldn't stay home [and look after children, I would climb the walls...The guilt from when he [son] was 6 months to 18 months was huge – Kim

Viv and Kim, like Kay, describe the traditional role of mothers, whereby they have more involvement in their children's lives than their domestic partner has. Even when her children were at the teenager stage, Viv and Kim talk about the guilt they feel when business commitments means they are unavailable to their children.

8.5.2 Men participants

In comparison to the women participants, the men participants in this study seem to focus on a different range of issues, and children appear to have influenced their motivations to become entrepreneurs in different ways. For three men participants, when asked whether they considered their children when setting up the business, Gordon replied that it was “not connected”, and Rob suggested it did not influence him either - “not at all”. John elaborates on these views:

No. But only because [wife] has got a full time job, if she didn't, then absolutely - John

John speaks about the financial security his wife having a good job brings, and suggests his decision to start a business would have been impacted and influenced by his children if she didn't have a good job. His wife's job gave the couple the financial leeway that allowed them to provide and care for their child, while undertaking starting a new business. In this case, John and his wife have a full time nanny looking after their child. John's example illustrates what appears to be the difference between women and men participants. This is, men take their children into account when starting a business in a more financial sense, as in feeling responsible for providing for their children. On the other hand, women participants consider them in terms of their well-being. However, returning to the nine men who were influenced by their children, for Pete and Gerry,

their children (both had young children at the time of start-up) played a part in their motivations, but both appear somewhat unsure of the exact nature of this involvement:

The reason I am doing this I suppose, ultimately it is for the family, so no- everything I do here pretty much fits around the family– Gerry

[Child was] just born, I needed to change where I was, I just needed to change where I was, I suppose my commitment to family was higher than my commitment to the employer– Pete

Pete speaks of his view of the world changing once he had children, and relates this view back to his decision to leave his employment and start a business of his own. As discussed in Chapter Seven, Pete was also dissatisfied with his job and left without any idea of his future employment. Meanwhile, other men spoke of more practical matters, such as providing for their children, both now and in the future, as Steve and Brent suggest:

One of the compelling reasons was that I had kids that in three or four years time were going to be teenagers, and they were going to be very expensive and demanding as teenagers are, and I wanted to be able to provide them with the right lifestyle...And that was a major driving force in starting my own company – Steve

I am doing [it] for my kids...I am there to provide them the best opportunities – Brent

Steve and Brent both felt pressure to provide for their children financially. In terms of their motivations for starting a business, their children certainly impacted on this decision, but this was primarily in terms of a business being able to increase their income in order to give the children better ‘opportunities’, such as private schooling.

Monty also speaks of pressures involving providing for his children:

Yes, I was very conscious of the need that the children had a stable platform. Very conscious of the fact, I haven’t taken as many risks as I should have, either changing positions or starting businesses, because of the perceived requirements to keep it for the kids – Monty

This quote from Monty describes many issues that he had while considering business start-up. He was aware of the potential impact on his children of his decision to leave paid employment to start a business. He was motivated by concern for providing for his

children financially, but finds his subsequent business practices are also influenced by his children and the stability he wants to provide for his children. He speaks about his limiting of risk, and indeed, other career decisions he has not taken because of their potential impact on his children. The men participants primarily had children at the time they became entrepreneurs, but the extent to which they were motivated by their children relates to issues of being the breadwinner, or concern towards providing for their children financially.

8.5.3 No children

As discussed earlier, the number of women participants who do not have children of their own is large (though three women have some involvement with their domestic partner's children). The presence of children was not a factor I considered in the sample selection, but a good proportion of the women without children provides the ability to contrast the findings with those who do have children. This category offers some interesting insights into entrepreneurs' motivations (women entrepreneurs in particular, as they make up the vast majority of those who have no children). The decision not to have children may play a part in the entrepreneurial decision and vice versa, and these suggestions are explored here. Only one of these 10 women⁵⁸ has immediate plans to have children (but another woman has not ruled out having children in the future). Both of these women are in their late thirties, and realise they are in a good position to have children in the future if they so desire. Shirley and her husband have recently decided to plan for a baby:

It's on the agenda [having children], I can't believe I am saying this. In the next 12 months, I can't get my head around it...probably [having children] never been on the agenda...I want to be in a position to have a full time nanny and be able to do what we both want to do but still be able to have a life that was purposeful and relevant for family – Shirley

Shirley suggests that she had not really considered having children in the past, but spoke of the position her business was in currently and the flexibility it offers her in terms of working in blocks of time, and being able to have the resources to hire help (such as a

⁵⁸ Three women had children after business start-up.

nanny, cleaner and gardener). On the other hand, Cath has not ruled out having children, as she describes here:

I still haven't decided not to have children, I would just have the one, and I can't think, being very naive that one is going to be such a problem. I am at the stage where I can afford a nanny -
Cath

In the case of both Shirley and Cath, they have to some extent 'set themselves up' for having children, by operating a business that offers flexibility to reduce their working hours in the business in order to care for children, or alternatively, in Cath's case, employ a nanny - "yeah, I could work that out. That would be very easy to work out". The remaining eight women participants have no desire to have children. In three of these cases, women have some involvement in their partner's children from a previous relationship, but not in the sense of a situation where day-to-day care is being provided. For Beth, the situation she faces now is ironic:

Well in fact the irony is that because of the way the business is set up at the moment I could easily, could have children because I could manage it - Beth

While Beth is happy being a stepmother to her partner's children, her quote highlights the timing issues with respect to her business and decisions about children. At the time when she would have been interested in having children, she did not have a partner, and now that she has a partner, she finds herself in her forties, with a stepchild. She owns a successful, flexible business where she works around thirty hours per week. The theme that emerged in Section 8.5.1 regarding some women 'not being the type' to stay home to look after children, is again illustrated in this category. Those who had chosen not to have children show similar attitudes to Kay, Jane, and Rachelle who do not want children:

I was never ever of a maternal, and I am still not. The thought of kids - no (laugh) - Jane.

In Jane's case, her partner has children (which they look after in some school holidays), and for Rachelle and her husband, the decision not to have a child relates strongly to her own previous employment as a nanny. Grant also suggests that his motivations may have been different if he had children at the time of starting his business:

If I had already had the kids, no I don't think so [taken the risk].
I would have done it differently or lessened my exposure to it
[risk] - Grant

The participants who do not have children, or did not have children at the time of starting their business, seem to be aware of how their decision not to have children may have impacted on their motivations for starting a business. In some cases, women participants feel they are now in positions where they can have children quite successfully, while maintaining their business life. While it is hard to suggest that being an entrepreneur has affected these women's desire for children, the possibility of this being the case must be suggested.

8.5.4 Summary

For many of the participants in this study, children played an important role in their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Many of the women participants who were motivated by their children were concerned for their children's well-being, their care and emotional needs. For the women participants, their interdependent construal of self played a part in their decision to become an entrepreneur. Where further gender differences lie is in the different outcomes for some of the women participants with respect to children. Those women participants with young children have to consider various practical issues relating to 'looking after' their children. The feelings of guilt some of these women experience when leaving their children with others (particularly caregivers or nannies) is considerable, but the desire to own a business means that these women somehow make their childcare situation work for them, but many have little assistance from their domestic partner. In contrast, the men who have children seem unconcerned about such issues, and it is clear that they have a domestic partner who undertakes the majority of the childcare arrangements.

Another perhaps surprising finding is the large number of women participants who do not have children. While women are waiting longer to have children, and are having fewer children, the proportion of women who didn't have children in this sample seems high. However, this observation leaves us with more questions than it does answers, as it is beyond the scope of this thesis to establish how having children and being an

entrepreneur may be incompatible. A possible explanation is that some women's upbringing has made them more independent, and less likely to perceive their role in life in terms of having children. These women appear happy to be involved with other people's children, and some suggest the choice not to have children is for lifestyle reasons. As in the previous sections in this chapter, I suggest that many women participants are motivated to become an entrepreneur with reference to their children, again showing their ever present interdependent self-construals.

Alternatively, relatively fewer men who had children were motivated in relation to their children. Nine men (of the 21 who had children at start-up) spoke of being motivated by thoughts of their children and considered the requirements of having to provide for their children financially, rather than emotionally or being concerned about the children's well being. This difference appears to be linked to the women participants taking traditional childcare roles in their relationships, while the men participants have domestic partners who are prepared to take primary responsibility for the children. The outcomes of these traditional roles for men seem to be that men are not 'expected' to be involved in the day-to-day care for their children, but are instead expected to 'provide' financially for their children and domestic partner. The outcomes of these expectations are evident for many of the men participants here. They are motivated to become entrepreneurs with little reference to their children in an emotional sense, but are perhaps motivated by their need to be the breadwinner in the family.

8.6 Discussion

The prior literature suggests that women are more motivated to become a business owner or entrepreneur than men in factors relating to the family. Such factors include combining waged and domestic labour (Marlow, 1997), family-related reasons (Sundin & Holmquist, 1991), family policies and family obligations (DeMartino & Barbato, 2003), the fit with domestic commitments (Greenfield & Nayak, 1992) and child rearing (Cromie, 1987a). While these studies point to the incidence of gender differences, they do not attempt to understand the nature of any gender differences, nor the reasons behind any differences. This chapter aimed to overcome these weaknesses

by undertaking an in-depth overview of the role and influence the family has on participants in this study with respect to their motivations for starting a business.

The family clearly has potential to be a 'breeding ground' for entrepreneurs. An entrepreneur's upbringing was a motivating factor for about half of the participants in deciding to become an entrepreneur, but this tends to be primarily for those participants whose parents owned businesses. Therefore, growing up in an entrepreneurial family can influence entrepreneurs in a number of ways, but the exposure to business at an early age seems important. Where the gender differences emerge is that the women participants looked to their parents (particularly, fathers) for inspiration, to be taught, and to be supported. Meanwhile, fewer men consider their parents to have influenced their motivations to become an entrepreneur. What also emerges is that these men wanted to be independent from their fathers, or to compete with them (to outdo their fathers), or have a business that was different to their father's. That some of these men participants made judgements about the operations of their parents' businesses gives the strong impression that they wanted to be different, and achieve independence from their fathers.

A similar pattern of men desiring to be independent is found in relation to their siblings. The men who were motivated in part by their siblings (usually brothers) also wanted to distinguish themselves from their siblings, in terms of being different, or more entrepreneurial than their siblings. One's upbringing has an influence in terms of motivations to become an entrepreneur for about half of the participants, yet the experiences of these participants are different when we look at the women and men separately.

The influence of the family on motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, as discussed in this chapter shows a number of differences between women and men. The participants' own families once they are adults (and have a domestic partner and children) also appears important in relation to the participants' motivations to start a business, and these are worth revisiting. Just under half of the participants say they were in some way motivated by their domestic partner when becoming an entrepreneur. Again, when comparing the participants on the basis of gender, 16 women but only six

men were motivated in some way by their partner to start a business. The experiences here point to women participants being more concerned than men about the impact the business might have on their domestic relationship. Some went further to actually start a business with their domestic partner, or have them work in the business once it was established. The women participants tend to maintain the 'traditional' roles of housekeeping duties, regardless of their partner's work commitments. For example, one participant's husband 'tinkers' in his garden shed, while their children's dinner is not made and the housework is not done. This woman would come home after working a 60-hour week and tend to housework, help with her children's homework, and do the majority of the cooking duties.

Alternatively, the six men who were motivated by their domestic partner seemed less concerned for the well-being of their domestic partner or the effect that starting a business might have on their relationship. They seemed to assume that support from their domestic partners would be forthcoming, and some of these men gave the impression they would have started the business without their partner's support. These men appear to be asserting their dominance in the relationship, by wanting to be in charge of their domestic partner. This can be illustrated by the few men who started a business with a domestic partner, and if their partners' do work in the business, it is in a low paid position, or is an unpaid role.

The role of children was also an area where women and men were influenced differently in their motivations to become an entrepreneur. The women participants spoke of concern for their children's wellbeing, in terms of wanting to be there for the children or putting off having a family until they could be provided for. Most of the women who have children feel they were motivated to start a business in some way by their children. This appears to be directly linked to the role of women in society as primary child carer. The women participants spoke of their decision to become an entrepreneur in relation to their children more so than the men. This again shows the women thinking relationally when making decisions to start a business. The women spoke of concern, caring, and guilt as being important in their decision to start a business. However, fewer than half of the men who had children were motivated to start a business because of issues relating to their children. Those men who were motivated by their children spoke of

their perceived breadwinner role in the family, and how they felt pressured to provide for their children in material ways. Thus, having children may have actually strengthened their motivations to become an entrepreneur, because of their role as financial provider in the family. This perhaps indicates changing views on the role of parenting, where the younger women participants choose to start their businesses either before they have children, decide not to have children at all, or start a business while their children are relatively young.

My observations here suggest that women entrepreneurs may do one of four things in relation to children when starting a business. Firstly, some have children but are not the 'maternal' type, and hire carers and nannies for their children (and other domestic help such as cleaners and gardeners). This limited degree of taking on the 'traditional' stay at home and care for children role is a common thread that seems to run through some of the women participants' accounts of their motivations in relation to children. The second observation is that some women may delay having children until after start-up, when finances are available to pay for a nanny. The third observation is that women wait until after their children are grown before starting a business. This is perhaps the more traditional route into entrepreneurship for women who are mothers. The final option for these women entrepreneurs is not to have children at all. No similar observations can be made for the men participants with respect to children, as they mainly have children but were not involved in the actual day-to-day care of the children.

8.7 Conclusion

Table 8.5 summarises the findings of this chapter in relation to the integrated perspective, which focuses on the interdependent and independent self-consturals.

Table 8. 5 The role of family on motivations

	Family life growing up	Family life as an adult	
Women	Look to parents for advice, support and encouragement.	Consult with, and consider effect on domestic partner. Assess emotional impact on children. Consider business start-up in relation to domestic roles. Decide not to have children.	Interdependent self construal
Men	Be independent from parents (especially father). Outdo father. Be independent from siblings.	Exert domination over domestic relationship. Assume support is forthcoming from domestic partner. Consider children in relation to providing for them.	Independent self construal

Given the apparent gender differences with respect to motivations surrounding family issues, this chapter concludes that women and men's different construals of self appear to be continually present. Many women participants show that an interdependent construal of self was present in their motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Alternatively, the men participants show a more independent construal of self, where they were motivated not by external factors and relationships, but by their own desires to be independent and to be in control. Drawing together the findings from all four results chapters, the following chapter concludes the thesis and presents two models as this thesis's contribution to theory development.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction

This thesis offers several important contributions to the entrepreneurship literature, and more specifically to the literature concerned with gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. I contribute to the field by moving beyond being concerned only with the existence of gender differences, to exploring the nature of gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. I have approached this research problem in an innovative way, and add a different perspective and research methodology to a research problem that has existed for some years. Given this new approach to the research problem, the conclusions of the study presented here offer a number of contributions to theory development. Conclusions about the research problem and research questions are addressed first. The key component of this chapter is, however, the contribution this study presents to theory. As one of the weaknesses in the current literature is a limited focus on theory, I present two new models showing gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. These two models are followed by implications for policy and practice, and the chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the research and offers a range of implications for further research in the field.

9.2 Conclusions about the research problem

One objective of this thesis was to overcome the observed weaknesses of the prior literature regarding gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. The goal was to extend theory development in the field by looking at a familiar research problem in a different way. The research problem identified in Chapter One comprised four main components: definitions, perspective, focus and research methodology and theory development, and each of these are discussed here.

9.2.1 Definitions

The first component of the research problem was concerned with definitions of entrepreneurs (and the selection of samples). This thesis placed importance on being methodical about definitions and sample compositions, a failing of many prior studies. In this thesis, I focused on organising and analysing the literature into appropriate categories so that they could be compared and contrasted. This tight categorisation allowed the findings of this study to be compared with studies that use similar definitions and sample compositions. While the most comparable study to this thesis finds no gender differences for New Zealand on any of the motivating factors it tests, other studies which use a wider definition of an entrepreneur (ie. business owners or other) find some gender differences.

A further contribution of this thesis is that it canvassed the views of the participants of their own understanding of the term entrepreneur, and whether or not they were able to apply the term to themselves. This was considered to be important, given the constructivist paradigm that is used for Research Questions Two to Four and the focus of the integrated perspective on issues around identity and self-construals. The continued focus on definitions and terms throughout this thesis provides a common thread throughout the study that is significant and important in its own right. However, several other conclusions that can be made from the research problem follow.

9.2.2 Focus on motivations

This thesis contributes to the field of gender comparison research on the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. However, unlike some prior studies (Borooah et al., 1997; Greenfield & Nayak, 1992; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; Pinfold, 2001; Scott, 1986), I concentrate primarily on motivations, rather than including an overview of entrepreneurs' motivations as part of a wider study on the characteristics of entrepreneurs.

Thus, one part of the research problem is that some prior studies take a wide and largely descriptive approach to studying motivations (often within broader studies of business

owners or entrepreneurs). This thesis offers a more focused view, which presents greater potential for insights into gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. I also made a decision to focus on work and family-related motivators in particular. This decision was justified, given that gender differences are apparent in these two areas in society. Differences are found in the traditional roles of women and men in the family, and in their experiences at work (the horizontal and vertical division of labour) (Gecas, 1976; Moss-Kanter, 1977; Saltzman-Chafetz, 1978; Scanzoni, 1978; Scanzoni & Scanzoni, 1976).

9.2.3 An integrated perspective

The theoretical approach of this research focuses around the integrated perspective (Brush, 1992). None of the prior gender comparative empirical studies of entrepreneurs' motivations uses this theoretical perspective, so this thesis contributes to the field by offering a new way to view the research problem. Given the solely psychological perspective that most researchers have taken in studies of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, the integrated perspective (with roots in both sociology and psychology) was an appropriate theoretical perspective from which to explore gender differences. I further detail the contributions this study makes to the integrated perspective in Section 9.4.

9.2.4 Research methodology & theory development

The final, but perhaps the key contribution this thesis makes to the research problem is the multiple paradigm research methodology and its resulting contribution to theory. This thesis contributes methodologically to the field by offering multiple paradigms (and methods) with which to view the problem of gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Chapter Three showed that most researchers in this field have tended to focus on testing hypotheses using quantitative methods to explore what are presumed to be consistent psychological traits across large samples (Borooah et al., 1997; Hakim, 1989; Honig-Haftel & Marin, 1986; McGregor & Tweed, 2000; Scott, 1986; Shane et al., 1991; Still & Soutar, 2001). The positivist paradigm allowed

meaningful comparisons to be made between the results of this study and those of the prior literature, which primarily uses a similar positivist paradigm.

Recognising that motivation is multi-faceted (Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Shane et al., 1991; Simpson, 1991) and complex (Simpson, 1991; Stevenson, 1990), the main focus of this thesis is to understand how and why motivations for becoming an entrepreneur differ between women and men, and for these purposes, a constructivist paradigm was appropriate. As a result of this constructivist paradigm, it was also sensible to utilise qualitative methods. Chapter Three noted there has been limited attention to qualitative research in this field (Cromie, 1987a; Marlow, 1997), so this study therefore contributes by offering a more comprehensive and multi-faceted view of motivations than has been presented in the prior literature. Section 9.3 offers conclusions about this thesis's research questions, and each of the four research questions are discussed in turn.

9.3 Conclusions about the research questions

- 1) Using a positivist paradigm, do statistically significant gender differences exist amongst the sample in the primary motivations for becoming an entrepreneur?

Research Question One offered further results to compare to the gender comparative body of literature analysed in Chapter Three. I used a similar paradigmatic stance as much of the prior literature to address this research question. This research question sought to establish whether gender differences exist among the sample of entrepreneurs with respect to their primary motivations for starting a business. This research question was important because it provided the ability to compare the results with the prior research, and in addition, it provided a database from which to identify participants who would be interviewed. The results from this research question showed no statistically significant gender differences on any of the motivating factors tested. These results were not unexpected, and are similar to other studies that use similar definitions and sample compositions.

As Section 9.2 suggested, using different paradigms to address the research questions requires a further mention. The conclusions from Research Questions One, Three and Four show that researching entrepreneurs' motivations using different paradigms uncovers different 'answers'. While no statistically significant gender differences are found for Research Question One, using a constructivist paradigm uncovers many gender differences in the construction and application of the term entrepreneur, and in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur in relation to work and family-related motivators (Research Questions Two to Four). These findings suggest that a continued focus on positivist paradigms and quantitative methods may not uncover gender differences. Given these weaknesses of a positivist approach, their results provide a useful 'starting point' from which to investigate the research problem in more depth, and from which to contribute to theory development.

2) How do women and men construct and apply the term 'entrepreneur'?

Research Question Two departed from the positivist approach of testing whether gender differences exist, to focusing on exploring the research problem via the integrated perspective and a constructivist paradigm. Research Question Two's primary task was to consider how the participants constructed the term entrepreneur and to see how they applied the term to themselves. This research question was important because it provides a way of understanding how participants see themselves in relation to an 'entrepreneur', as well as continuing the theme of focusing on definitions. The conclusions from this research question show that women and men participants constructed the term quite similarly in most instances, except where an entrepreneur was described by some as a man. However, where gender differences were found was that few women could apply the term entrepreneur to themselves. When Bourdieu's (2001) theorisations were applied to the construction of the term 'entrepreneur', it can be suggested that women cannot apply being an entrepreneur to themselves. Thus, it appears perfectly 'natural' to assume an entrepreneur is a man, and the term entrepreneur appears to be more relevant to the men participants than to the women participants.

3) Explore potential gender differences in work-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

Research Question Three examined work-related motivating factors for becoming an entrepreneur. In Chapter Three, I outlined strong support from the literature for the contention that the workplace is an area where gender differences exist in terms of the types of work women do and the levels of seniority they achieve in the workplace (vertical and horizontal division of labour). Given that many women and men tend to do different types of work and work at different levels in the workplace, this research question investigated how experiences at work affected the participants' motivations to become an entrepreneur. The findings suggest that women do not tend to suffer from the same degree of dissatisfaction with their work as men, while men (typically in management positions) were more dissatisfied with their job and/or their boss, and showed signs of their desire for control and independence from a boss and their employer. Women participants can be classed as having relatively limited degrees of job dissatisfaction at work, while men used work more as a means of getting the necessary experience to start a business, or were able to get their employer to assist financially in achieving their venture into entrepreneurship. Like the workplace, the family also has the potential to influence participants' motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

4) Explore potential gender differences in family-related motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

Understanding whether, and if so, how their family motivated participants was the focus of Research Question Four. The extent to which the family (parents/siblings/domestic partner/children) affects motivations to become an entrepreneur uncovered several apparent gender differences amongst the participants. The conclusions here suggest that women and men were motivated to become entrepreneurs to different extents with respect to their family. Women participants tend to learn and take advice from their parents, and while both women and men are more influenced by their fathers with respect to business experience, many of the men participants compete with their fathers, wanted to outdo them, or be different from them. Some men participants seemingly wanted to exert their independence from their parents. A similar conclusion can be

made with respect to the influence of siblings on motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. Some men wanted to compete with their siblings, to be superior to them, or to be independent from them. Women participants tend to be more concerned for their relationships with others when considering starting a business. They looked to their domestic partner for support and encouragement, and considered the potential impact of their decision on their children. In contrast, the men considered others less in their decision to become an entrepreneur, and many appeared to consider themselves independent from their domestic partner or their children, and believed that their motivations to start a business were not connected to their families.

The conclusions from Research Questions Three and Four add weight to the suggestion that the women participants are more inclined to think of others when they were making a decision to start a business – whether it be a work colleague, a domestic partner, their parents, or their children. Thus, their interdependent construal of self seems to have been a key factor in their motivations to become an entrepreneur. Alternatively, the men participants can be seen as being more independent in their self-construal, where they generally did not consider others in their decision to become an entrepreneur. Where they did consider others, it was more likely to be in relation to competing, or being different from others, and therefore further exerting their desire for independence.

9.4 Implications for theory

Both the constructivist portion of this research and the integrated perspective provide a good basis for theory development. Theory development has been noted as limited in much of the entrepreneurship field (Brush, 1992; Hisrich, 1989). Similarly, theory development has not been the aim of any of the gender comparative studies of motivations to become a business owner or entrepreneur, as only one of the gender comparative motivation studies contribute to theory development (Cromie, 1987a), while others focus on providing descriptions and reporting statistical results.

Drawing from the conclusions to the research questions (especially Research Questions Two to Four), it is possible to map two different processes of the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur for women and men. These two models are offered as a

contribution to theory development. As discussed in Chapter Three, theory development has not been the goal of much of the prior research in this field, so these two models offer valuable contributions to resolving the issues outlined in the research problem.

The model in Figure 9.1 draws on the experiences of the women participants in this study. While it is impossible to suggest that these are the experiences of every woman participant, the model comprises the key themes that emerged during the analysis of the women's responses. Therefore, I avoid making any claims that these models apply to every woman or man participant in this study. However, given the supporting results in Chapters Six, Seven and Eight, it is suggested that there are differences between women and men in this sample in terms of their constructions of an entrepreneur and motivations for becoming an entrepreneur.

Figure 9.1 Model of motivations for women entrepreneurs

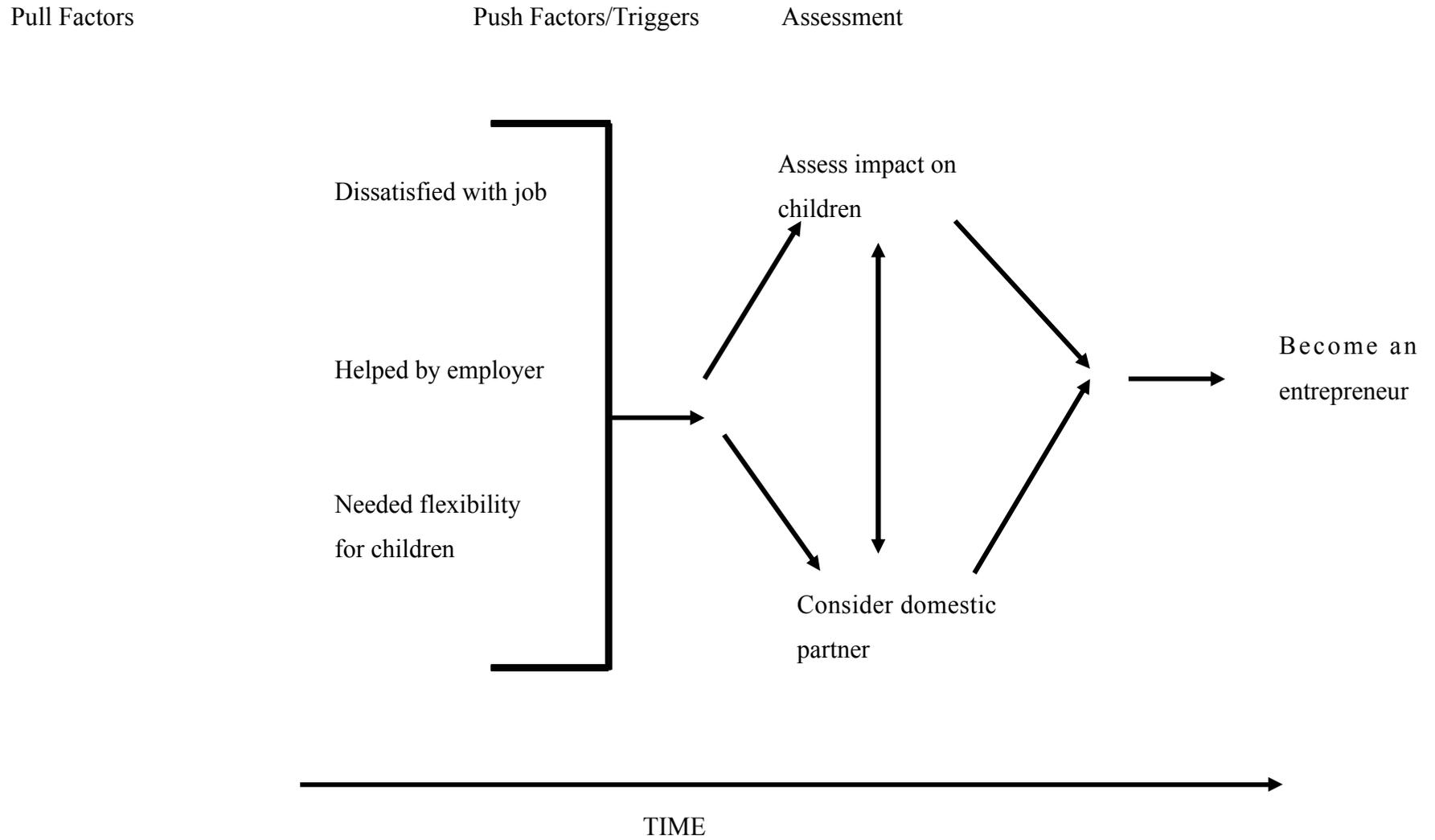


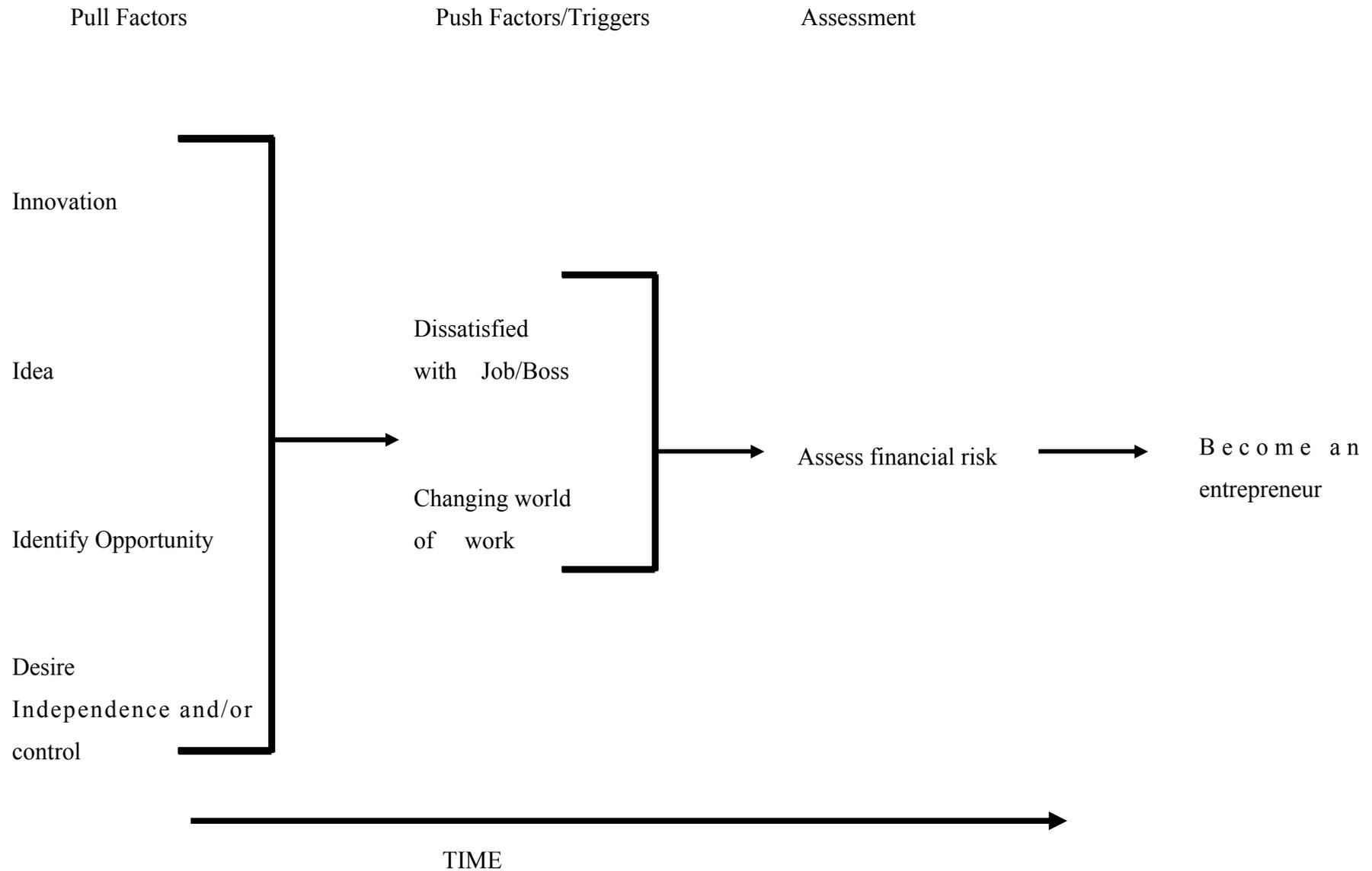
Figure 9.1 illustrates a blank column named 'pull factors'. That this column is empty is the first key point regarding this women's model and how it differs from the men's model. The women participants tended not to be motivated by internal factors, such as a desire to be independent or because they always wanted to start their own business and be their own boss (contrary to the findings of the mail survey). This model suggests there were no pull factors evident for women participants. This may not be surprising given the findings of Chapter Six, which suggested that women cannot apply the term entrepreneur to themselves.

What this first model shows is that women are more motivated to become entrepreneurs by certain events in their lives or their experiences. These are labelled 'push factors/triggers'. In some cases, these factors are similar to the push motivators described in previous entrepreneurship theory (Hakim, 1989; Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991) and in other areas such as inter-firm relationships (Giller & Matear, 2001). This model, however, suggests that these push factors are actually more likely to be triggers that are confined to a certain time or event, and that women were not inherently motivated (pulled) to start a business until such time as a triggering event took place. Figure 9.1 indicates three such triggers. With respect to work experiences, being dissatisfied with a job (eg. being unappreciated or suggestions being ignored) is sometimes a trigger for women to leave employment to start a business. Other triggers involve more stereotypically gendered events such as desiring more flexibility to fit with caring for children. Thus, this model suggests that many women participants are pushed into entrepreneurship by a triggering event, rather than pulled into it by internal motivations. This concurs with Brush's (1990) evolutionary approach, where some women do not enter entrepreneurship in a 'deliberate' fashion, but rather evolve into being an entrepreneur.

The next stage of this new model of the motivation process for women participants can be classed as the 'assessment' phase. Here, the model suggests that after a push/triggering event or time, women then assess the likely impact their decision to become an entrepreneur will have on their families. Specifically, women focus on assessing the impact that becoming an entrepreneur would have on their children and their domestic partner. They seek support, advice and encouragement from their

domestic partner and it is only once their assessment of others has been completed and is deemed satisfactory, that she becomes an entrepreneur. This model suggests that women are relational in their decisions to become an entrepreneur. They consider their relationships with others in their decision, and should those relationships be in jeopardy, do not continue with the decision to become an entrepreneur. Therefore, this model suggests that women's motivations to become an entrepreneur are strongly affected by their interdependent self-construal. In contrast, Figure 9.2 is offered as an explanation of the motivation process for men entrepreneurs.

Figure 9. 2 Model of motivations for men entrepreneurs



This second model differs from Figure 9.1 in several important ways. To begin, the first column indicates four ‘pull factor’ motivators that pull a person into entrepreneurship. Such factors include the desire for control and independence, and seeing an opportunity. These were shown in many of the cases of men participants in relation to the workplace. In addition, Chapter Six indicated that men considered an entrepreneur to be someone who executes an idea or is innovative. It was suggested in Chapter Six that the men participants appeared to be describing their own process of starting a business. Therefore, this model indicates that men are motivated by their independent construal of self. Many men had an idea, saw an opportunity, or already had a strong desire to start a business, and they were waiting for the ‘right’ timing. These types of motivators are similar to what previous studies have termed ‘pull’ factors. However, while previous studies suggest that a mix of push and pull motivating factors combine to make a person decide to start a business, this model suggests it is only after the triggering event/s (ie. push factors), that many men actually go on to start a business. Thus, I suggest that this process of becoming an entrepreneur occurs over a passage of time.

The right timing to start a business (which has already been planned out in some cases) appears to be primarily related to experiences at work. Dissatisfaction with a job or a boss is a key theme that emerged for the men participants, and for others they were no longer able to get the jobs they wanted in paid employment. These ‘push/triggers’, therefore, are largely related to negative experiences at work and to the changing world of work, rather than experiences or events within their family (as in the case of women participants).

Referring to Figure 9.2 again, it suggests that the next ‘step’ in the process of deciding to start a business is the ‘assessment’ phase. Here, men assess the financial risk that starting a business might bring. This phase of the business start-up decision is relatively simple. The men, who already exhibit an independent self-construal, are motivated by the desire for independence and control, often spurred by negative experiences at work. These factors, combined with the ‘right’ timing, seem to be triggers to start a business and become an entrepreneur. For them, a business is started after financial risk is assessed. This process differs completely from the more

interdependent nature of the model for women participants where women assess other 'types' of risk. A number of contributions can be made to both the integrated perspective and push-pull theory and these are discussed next.

9.4.1 Contributions to the integrated perspective

Brush's (1992) integrated perspective was used as a way of understanding the motivations of women and men to become entrepreneurs. The two models presented here not only draw from the integrated perspective but show support for this perspective's usefulness in understanding entrepreneurs motivations. The models suggest that people's self-construals are indeed important when considering the motivations to become an entrepreneur.

Firstly, the model for women entrepreneurs suggests they are not motivated to start a business until certain push/triggers points appear relevant to them. They then assess the impact on their children and domestic partners, and only with this consideration, continue with the decision to start a business. Thus, women entrepreneurs seem to think in terms of their relationships with others when starting a business. While the integrated perspective suggested this to be the case, the interesting aspect of using this perspective is seeing the stark contrast between women and men participants in this study. The men participants showed a much more independent self-construal, and do not allow their motivations to start a business to be influenced by the impact on their domestic partner or their children. The motivations to start a business for men are process-oriented, and focus primarily on business decisions.

Thus, I not only lend support to Brush's (1992) earlier call for researchers to use an integrated perspective, but offer several new insights into this perspective. Firstly, Brush's (1992) call for an integrated perspective was focused on researching women entrepreneurs, and in this study I focus on making gender comparisons. The inclusion of men to the integrated perspective has allowed greater ability to contribute to the literature, and it has pointed to very strong differences between women and men. In particular, the process oriented way in which many of the men participants started a

business is an interesting comparison. This finding of men being more process oriented highlights their different construals of self.

While the integrated perspective has foundations in both sociology and psychology, there is certainly room to extend it to employ feminist perspectives. While I use the basic principles of feminist research methodologies, this study cannot be classed as using a feminist perspective. However, as noted earlier, there are gaps in the entrepreneurship literature with regards to feminist perspectives, and applying these perspectives to the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur seems sensible.

While I have used the integrated perspective to focus primarily on motivations to become an entrepreneur, it could be usefully extended to include 'outcomes' for entrepreneurs. These have been referred to in passing during Chapters Six to Eight, and suggest that women's interdependent self-construal follows them into entrepreneurship. Women continue to consider their relationships when making decisions about their businesses. In addition to considering their family, some also now consider the impact of their decisions on their staff. In addition, some women develop a family-type culture in their business. Alternatively, this research suggests that men continue with their quest for independence once they have started their business, and this independent self-construal affects their decisions in a more process-oriented way, with a focus on what is good for the business.

9.4.2 Contributions to "push/pull" theory

What theory development there has been in relation to the motivations of business owners and entrepreneurs is largely concerned with categorising motivating factors into either 'push' or 'pull' factors (Buttner & Moore, 1997; Hakim, 1989; Saxon, 1994; Stevenson, 1986; Sundin & Holmquist, 1991). Others have used similarly opposing views of motivations such as 'economic necessity' and 'autonomy' (Bogenhold & Staber, 1991), 'necessity' or 'business' (Frederick et al., 2002), a 'change triggered by dissatisfaction and disillusionment with organisation' and 'entrepreneurs-in-waiting', (Mallon & Cohen, 2001). Yet others suggest that motivations can be 'deliberate' or may be more of an 'evolutionary' approach (Brush, 1990), or 'traditional' and 'non-

traditional' (Buttner, 1993; Hisrich & O'Brien, 1982; Moore, 1987). These theories are largely based on studies of women entrepreneurs, and as Chapter Three noted, theory development based on results of gender comparative studies of entrepreneurs' motivations has been limited.

In this thesis, the two models that are presented go beyond many of the simplistic offerings of the push/pull theory. This model proposes the complexity of motivations to become an entrepreneur are unable to be categorised so neatly into two opposing sets of motivations (Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Nagarajan et al., 1995), because motivations are complex and intertwined (Mallon & Cohen, 2001; Marlow & Strange, 1994; Shane et al., 1991; Simpson, 1991; Stevenson, 1990). Nevertheless, they provide a good starting point to build upon, as their basic categorisations are sound.

From the two models presented, I contribute two additional aspects to push-pull theory. Firstly, I propose that rather than a simple categorisation into push or pull factors, there is much more complexity to the decision making process in terms of becoming motivated to become an entrepreneur. I suggest that women do not have underlying desires to start a business and therefore are not motivated as much as men are by pull factors. The data presented here shows there is often a trigger component and this also differs for women and men. For women, the trigger (push factors) are sometimes the only factor that influences their decision to become an entrepreneur, while for men there is often a desire to become an entrepreneur (pull) as well as a trigger (push) such as negative experiences at work which combine together to make someone motivated to become an entrepreneur.

The second addition I make to push-pull theory of motivations is that it could include a further decision factor called 'assessment'. As discussed earlier in this section, women consider their relationships much more extensively than men do. Men, on the other hand, are more process-oriented in their assessment of the start-up decision. This assessment phase follows the push (trigger) phase and is another stage of the models which differ for women and men. Thus, this contribution to push-pull theory has similarities to the integrated perspective. Women think to their relationships before deciding to become an entrepreneur and this is based on their different construal of self

to men. As a suggestion, it is useful to combine the integrated perspective with push-pull theory as I have attempted in Figures 9.1 and 9.2, as both have different strengths and when combined, offer fresh insights to the field.

9.5 Implications for policy

While the primary contributions of this thesis are to the academic body of knowledge, this study also has some potentially important implications for policy and practice. The following are some suggestions as to how policy makers might use the findings of this thesis in their decision making. The findings of this research will benefit New Zealand government policy makers, as a clear understanding of entrepreneurs' motivations can be translated into decisions related to the distribution of funding and grants (such as Technology for Business Growth (TBG) and Smart Start provided by the Foundation for Research, Science and Technology), and enterprise assistance programmes such as training programmes for nascent entrepreneurs (such as BIZ, offered by New Zealand Trade and Enterprise). Brockhaus (1988) notes that research that is linked to government policy issues has been limited in the past, and that this link between research and policy is important. As a further suggestion, policy makers could try to ensure more women entrepreneurs are 'visible' as role models and feature in advertising campaigns and the like, so other women can view them as role models. This is important, as the majority of the entrepreneurs in the media are men, and also important given the seeming inability of women participants in this study to consider themselves to be entrepreneurs.

With the increasing numbers of women entrepreneurs in New Zealand (discussed in Chapter Two), government agencies must be aware of women's and men's different motivations for becoming entrepreneurs, and in particular, the differing assessment decisions that women and men entrepreneurs make. As such, the implications of gender differences in entrepreneurs' motivations may extend to tailoring assistance programmes to reflect these differences. For example, training programmes such as how to increase their confidence or how to manage a business with childcare arrangements may assist women who are considering becoming entrepreneurs (or have already become one). In addition, because women entrepreneurs seek to assess the

impact of their decision to become an entrepreneur on their families, government policies such as childcare tax allowances may be revisited. Increasing such allowances may alleviate in some way the 'guilt' women have regarding their children when deciding to become an entrepreneur.

9.6 Implications for practice

In addition, practitioners may also benefit from the findings of this study. In particular, organisations that assist entrepreneurs to start up a business, or provide advice to nascent entrepreneurs may find that a new understanding of their motivations is helpful. This may result in organisations providing better assistance to their clients. Likewise, banks, investors and venture capitalists can all benefit from the conclusions of this study. These results may encourage them to rethink their existing policies and practices that have largely been based on studies of the motivations of men entrepreneurs. Similarly, those offering mentoring services (such as Business in the Community) may want to revisit their strategies, as they may be too focused on the 'hard' side of business such as finance and growth, whereas women entrepreneurs (or nascent women entrepreneurs) may require different types of help, such as boosting their confidence and getting advice and help with managing their families and their businesses.

Other entrepreneurs and small business owners may find this study interesting. By recognising that women and men entrepreneurs experience entrepreneurship differently, women entrepreneurs may find more of the types of support and encouragement they desire from other women entrepreneurs. This thesis, by providing a women's perspective to entrepreneurship, shows that women may be constrained to accept the entrepreneurial role because of their exposure to primarily masculine images of entrepreneurs. Thus, the conclusions of this thesis suggest that women entrepreneurs may be able to now see the nature of the symbolic violence to which they are currently subjected to, and free themselves from this. As highlighted in this study, men influence women entrepreneurs at all stages (growing up, employers and workmates, and later, a domestic partners) of their home, career and business lives, and may find it beneficial to join networks and groups targeted specifically towards women in business. Thus,

organisations such as Her Business Network, which provides a supportive networking group of other women entrepreneurs and women professionals, may be worth exploring.

9.7 Limitations of the research

While this study offers several contributions to the literature, it nevertheless has some potential limitations that must be recognised. The quantitative sample comprised limited numbers of entrepreneurs who operated in the retail sector of the economy. This potentially poses difficulties, especially when a large proportion of women entrepreneurs operate businesses in the retail sector. However, such a limitation may not be due entirely to the sample selection method, but could also be due to the fact that many retailers either purchase their businesses from others, or are franchise owners, and therefore fall outside of the definition of an entrepreneur used in this thesis. The sample size and composition of the qualitative sample may be considered by researchers in the positivist tradition to be a potential limitation of this research. Given that only 50 participants were interviewed, claims may be made that a larger sample would have been more appropriate. However, the theoretical sampling techniques used, and the conclusion that theoretical saturation had been reached should overcome concerns about the sample size (as discussed in Chapter Four).

This study focuses on the main centres of New Zealand, and excludes some smaller towns. Smaller towns were included in the mail survey, but because of cost and time constraints, interviews were conducted only in Auckland, Wellington, Christchurch, Invercargill and Dunedin. This seems not to have had any effect on the findings of this study. For example, Dunedin and Invercargill may be deemed to be more conservative than cities such as Auckland and Wellington. In this study, one hint that the views of entrepreneurs in each city may have been different would have been if the participants who considered themselves to be entrepreneurs were unevenly located across these cities. In fact, the 'entrepreneurs' were spread amongst the different locations, and I discount any suggestion that the locations impacted on the findings of this study.

Entrepreneurs are individuals. The difficulty with developing models to represent the themes from the participants in this study poses some issues that need to be addressed.

Every entrepreneur has her or his own motivations for starting a business and all of these are important and relevant to that entrepreneur. However, as in most research, this thesis attempts to learn lessons from the participants. In doing so, close attention has been paid to maintaining individuals' voices, but the nature of this research means that much of what was said during the interviews does not appear as text in this thesis. Data reduction is a necessary yet difficult task in qualitative research, and while every effort has been made to voice the participants' views, it is still my own interpretation of what is important to the interviewees that ultimately appears in this thesis. While this may not be a technical limitation, but rather a reality of qualitative research, it nevertheless should be considered here. The models that have been developed in this chapter are tentative and should be treated as such. I make no claims to these models being applicable to entrepreneurs other than those in this study. However, the conclusion that theoretical saturation had probably been reached in this study may give some degree of assurance that the results of this study may be extended further (I discuss this further in Section 9.9).

Finally, a point must be made regarding the definition of an entrepreneur used in this thesis. While I spent much time justifying the decision to use the founder definition, that is not to say that other definitions of entrepreneurs are less useful for other theoretical purposes. Thus, this thesis focuses on one category of entrepreneur, and notes that there are many other useful ways to define an entrepreneur.

9.8 Implications for further research

The approach to the research problem that this thesis employed results in a number of implications for further research. While this study focuses on the area of gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, it potentially has implications relevant to the wider entrepreneurship research field. Given the difficulties identified throughout this thesis in comparing dissimilar studies, it is preferable that a clear definition of what an entrepreneur is can be agreed upon. This issue has been debated for many years, and is a significant concern for the field of entrepreneurship in general. More specifically, in the field of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, it is essential that all studies of entrepreneurs be explicit about their definition of an

entrepreneur. I cannot stress strongly enough the importance of comparing similar studies in order to make conclusions about motivations, and indeed in the entrepreneurship field in general. The conventional wisdom has been that women and men do not differ substantially in their motivations for becoming entrepreneurs. By comparing women and men directly in the same sample, this study shows that this conventional wisdom may be misleading.

The second implication relates to gender issues. Many researchers choose not to include gender as a variable in their studies and prefer to concur with previous research that shows few or no gender differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. The results of this research suggest it is essential to consider the gender of entrepreneurs as a means of making useful comparisons, and indeed for further investigation in a field that remains inconclusive about the existence and nature of gender differences of the motivations to become an entrepreneur. This is especially important given the continuing increase in numbers of women entrepreneurs worldwide.

A further note here must point again to the simplistic and descriptive nature of much of this prior research. I suggest that more research findings require explanation and that the field would only benefit from more sophisticated conceptualisations and theory development. These tasks should be a priority when investigating gender differences amongst motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. In addition, there is also the likelihood that other entrepreneurship research could benefit from taking a more explanatory approach to research, and focusing less on the testing of hypotheses. This is especially the case in areas which are particularly underdeveloped theoretically, as is this field.

The two models presented in this chapter are a good basis for further research. As this thesis shows, there are a number of different paradigmatic approaches available to researchers. Firstly, a positivist approach to further research would benefit from the conclusions in this study by placing more emphasis on the family as a motivator for becoming an entrepreneur. However, it may be inappropriate to suggest that the models could be further tested using a positivist paradigms. Perhaps more importantly, I suggest that one of the key contributions this thesis makes is that it uncovers gender

differences in motivations for becoming an entrepreneur only when investigating the problem using a constructivist paradigm and using an integrated perspective. Thus, greater uses of interpretive research methodologies such as constructivism are appropriate to study gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur. In addition, because entrepreneurs are individuals and their motivations are diverse, it seems more useful for researchers to consider interpretive approaches when researching entrepreneurs. While a constructivist approach is not geared towards producing findings that are generalisable, there is some suggestion that these findings may apply to other entrepreneurs. The measures taken to allow this suggestion is the use of theoretical sampling and the conclusion that theoretical saturation had been reached. In addition, because entrepreneurs from several locations were interviewed, these findings are not geographically limited.

The conclusions I draw from this study may reach beyond entrepreneurship research and into other bodies of literature. In particular, the link to management decision making seems sensible. It is possible to suggest that the integrated perspective is useful to management research. Women's and men's differing construals of self may also influence the decisions they make as managers. Thus, this study has implications for the women in management literature (Marshall, 1984; McGregor & Tweed, 2000; Sheppard, 1992; Still, 1990). In addition, Chapter Seven illustrated how the men participants, in particular, sought to be independent from their boss, and often felt constrained by their employer. This discussion has possible links to the careers literature (Blizzard, 1996; Bowen & Hisrich, 1986; Mallon, 1999; Mallon & Cohen, 2001). Given that the foundations from which the differing construals of self emerge, it can be seen that this has previously been applied to such areas as culture, moral development and communication. Therefore, it is not unexpected that further application of it as a theoretical framework is possible, and indeed, desirable.

Multiple paradigm research methodologies could be used to a greater extent in entrepreneurship research (and indeed in other fields). As this study illustrates, applying different paradigms to view the same problem provides new insights into a research area, and I encourage others to use similar approaches. One implication that emerges from this research is that a continued focus on quantitative methods of

gathering data may not always be desirable. Many researchers aim to discover whether there are gender differences in the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, and a wider focus is suggested, with different paradigms or paradigms to study the problem. The results of this study show that a positivist survey failed to find any gender differences in terms of motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, yet many varied gender differences are uncovered when using a constructivist paradigm. The use of a second paradigm (and relevant research methods) in this study adds depth to the findings and invites the development of theory. Positivist research on its own does not enable researchers to delve deeply into the motivations for becoming an entrepreneur, and in using such approaches, they risk applying a single perspective to what is a very complex and multi-faceted issue. A further issue here is that the focus on motivation should be thorough. Therefore, offering broad overviews of entrepreneurs' characteristics (including motivations) gives merely a glimpse into motivations, but does not seek to understand the nature of gender differences.

A further implication is more of a suggestion. However, it is worth noting that other 'types' of entrepreneurs may experience different motivations for becoming entrepreneurs, and these could be considered for further research. Such groups could include rural entrepreneurs, ethnic entrepreneurs, Maori entrepreneurs, innovative entrepreneurs, or young entrepreneurs. In this thesis, I prefer not to categorise the participants on any other factor other than gender, but there is certainly potential to take this research approach further. A word of caution though must be noted. The continued focus on developing typologies of entrepreneurs may be of limited usefulness, and it is not my suggestion to categorise entrepreneurs according to some 'type'. A further suggestion is that there are many other motivating factors that could have been studied in this thesis, and these should not be forgotten. Thus, applying different perspectives and research methodologies to other motivating factors may potentially uncover more gender differences.

Many more chapters could have been written from the rich data I collected from my 50 participants. In particular, other areas of importance to entrepreneurs were the role of government agencies in their start-up process and ongoing business, the tall poppy syndrome and how it affects them, and the 'perceived' flexibility that entrepreneurs are

deemed to have (to name a few). What I am alluding to here is that there is much more that needs to be known about our entrepreneurs, and further research is important. At times during the results chapters I spoke about ‘outcomes’ for entrepreneurs. Thus, an entrepreneur goes into business for certain reasons and with certain expectations and goals. The outcomes they face are often ‘another story’, which bears little resemblance to their dreams and aspirations. There is much more that I could have said about such outcomes, in relation to the advantages and disadvantages of entrepreneurship, and these will guide my future research, and hopefully, will guide others too.

To conclude this thesis, I come back to where it began. I revisit Kets De Vries’s (1977) quote that started Chapter One. He suggested motivations for becoming an entrepreneur were complex and unclear. This thesis sheds light on the nature of these motivations and how they differ for women and men. I now suggest that while the entrepreneur remains an enigma, his (and her) motivations have been explored more thoroughly in this thesis, and now our understanding of entrepreneurs’ motivations is more fully developed than it was previously.

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Appendices

Appendix A Questionnaire

PLEASE ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS IN RELATION TO YOUR CURRENT BUSINESS. IF YOU OWN MORE THAN ONE BUSINESS, CHOOSE ONE OF YOUR BUSINESSES AND ANSWER IN RELATION TO IT.

THE BUSINESS (please tick one box)

Are you the founder of this business? Yes No
 What industry is the business in?: Manufacturing Retail/Wholesale Service
 Other (please specify) _____

How many paid employees do you have at present? _____ Full time and _____ Part time

In the next 2 years, do you expect employee numbers to: (tick): Increase Decrease Stay the same

What were the gross annual sales for the last financial year: _____ Under \$50,000 _____ \$50,000 – \$100,000
 _____ \$100,000 – \$500,000 _____ \$500,000 – \$1 million _____ Over \$1 million

In the next 2 years, do you expect your sales to: Increase Decrease Stay the same
 For the last financial year, did your business: Make a profit Make a loss Break even

Pre-startup

What were you doing immediately prior to owning this business?
 Unemployed Retired Primary caregiver at home Owned another business
 _____ Working (specify position)
 _____ Other (specify) _____

For the last financial year, was your personal income from the business (i.e. pay, profit etc) more or less than you were earning, in your previous situation (as above)? More Less About the same

If you were working in paid employment prior to owning this business, why did you leave this employment?

If you were not working in paid employment prior to owning this business, why did you choose business ownership over paid employment?

START-UP/Purchase

1. What year was this business started? _____

Is this your first experience with owning a business? Yes No

If no, how many other businesses have you owned? _____

How did you obtain financing to start/buy this business? Own savings Bank Loan Loan from parents/friends Venture Capital Other _____

What were your primary reasons for starting/buying this business? Tick more than one if required.

Independence (eg. financial independence, freedom) To make money (eg. Increase income)

Saw an opportunity (eg. Saw gap in market) Job Satisfaction

Challenge Being own boss (eg. Freedom, flexibility)

_____ Other (specify) _____

2. What were your goals for the business at start-up/purchase?

3. What were the main problems you encountered in starting or buying the business?

Do you have a supportive family situation? (tick) Yes No
How do you your situation affects you in running your business?

What are your future goals for the business?

DEMOGRAPHICS

Age: less than 25 years 25 to 29 years 30 to 34 years 35 to 39 years
 40 to 44 years 45 to 49 years 50 to 54 years 55 and over

Gender: Male Female

Marital status: Married/Living with partner Divorced
 Single Other (specify) _____

Ethnic origin: European/Pakeha Maori Pacific Island
(specify) _____
 Asian (specify) _____
(specify) _____
O t h e r

How many children do you have? _____ Ages of children: _____

How many of these children live at home? _____

How many Siblings do you have: _____ Brothers: _____ Sisters: _____
What place in the family are you? (e.g. youngest, oldest, middle)

What is your highest education level? Primary Secondary Tertiary (undergraduate)
 Tertiary (postgraduate qualification) O t h e r

Has anyone else in your family, either now or in the past, owned a business? (Tick those that apply)
 Parents Grandparents Children Siblings

Is your business in an industry in which you have previously worked in or had experience with? Yes
 No

If you are willing to participate further in this study (by being either interviewed or receiving a further questionnaire), please provide details below (Or attach a business card).

Name: _____
Address: _____
Phone: _____
Email: _____

THANK YOU

Appendix B Preliminary results

4 September 2001

Dear Business Owner

Thank you for taking the time to complete our questionnaire. To date we have received 369 replies. The sample of 920 was selected from the Business Who's Who 2001 Edition. Surveys were sent to business owners in nine cities and towns in New Zealand.

The 369 respondents were located as follows: 46.9% from Auckland, 14% from Wellington, 7.3% each from Dunedin and Hamilton, 6.5% each from Invercargill and Christchurch, 5.4% from Napier, and 5.7% from Timaru. Hastings consists of 0.2% of the responses.

Enclosed is a copy of the survey you sent to us, so you can compare it with the preliminary results from the study. As you can see, these are the major categories of responses, and in some cases will not add up to 100%. In other cases, more than one box was ticked, so these will also add to more than 100%.

Many thanks to the 200 people who are willing to participate further in the study. This is most appreciated. As this study is the first stage in a programme of additional studies, we are pleased that you are prepared to remain on our mailing list.

Thank you very much for your help with our research and I hope you find the results interesting.

Please do not hesitate to contact Jo Kirkwood if you have any further questions. Ph 03 479 8523 or jkirkwood@business.otago.ac.nz

Yours sincerely

Jo Kirkwood & Dr Kate Brown
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Fax 03 479 8173
Jkirkwood@business.otago.ac.nz

QUESTIONNAIRE – ENTREPRENEURS (Results n=369)

The business

Are you the founder of this business? 79.9% - Yes 20.1% - No
 What industry is the business in?: 11.4% - Manufacturing 14.4% - Retail/Wholesale 39.8% - Service 15.8% - Other (more than one box ticked 18.5%)

How many paid employees do you have at present? Average 9 - Full time and 5.9 - Part time

In the next 2 years, do you expect employee numbers to: 64.7% - Increase 3.0% - Decrease 32.3% - Stay the same

What were the gross annual sales for the last financial year: 6.3% - Under \$50,000 7.7% - \$50,000 – \$100,000 32.0% - \$100,000 – \$500,000 19.1% - \$500,000 – \$1 million 35.0% - Over \$1 million

In the next 2 years, do you expect your sales to: 84.3% - Increase 3% - Decrease 12.2% - Stay the same

For the last financial year, did your business: 70.8% - Make a profit 14.7% - Make a loss 14.4% - Break even

Pre-startup

What were you doing immediately prior to owning this business?
 3.5% - Unemployed 1.6% - Retired 1.6% - Primary caregiver at home
 29.6% - Owned another business
 60.3% - Working 3.3% - Other

For the last financial year, was your personal income from the business (i.e. pay, profit etc) more or less than you were earning, in your previous situation (as above)?
 48.9% - More 34.1% - Less 17.0% - About the same

If you were working in paid employment prior to owning this business, why did you leave this employment?

Made redundant 11.9%
 To buy the business 17.9%
 Dissatisfied with employment/boss 13.3%
 Other 26.6%

If you were not working in paid employment prior to owning this business, why did you choose business ownership over paid employment?

No clear indication, since most of sample were working

START-UP/Purchase

What year was this business started? 77.7% from 1994 onwards

Is this your first experience with owning a business? 47.7% - Yes 52.3% - No

If no, how many other businesses have you owned? 23.7% owned 1, 16.6% owned 2, 6.5% owned 3 businesses

How did you obtain financing to start/buy this business? 42.9% - Own savings
13.7% - Bank Loan 3.0% - Loan from parents/friends 3.0% - Venture Capital
37.4% - Other

What were your primary reasons for starting/buying this business? Tick more than one if required.

64.0% - Independence (eg. financial independence, freedom) 53.9% - To make money (eg. Increase income)
53.9% - Saw an opportunity (eg. Saw gap in market) 52.8% - Job Satisfaction
54.2% - Challenge 58.3% - Being own boss (eg. Freedom, flexibility)
0.3% - Other

What were your goals for the business at start-up/purchase?

Income/profit 39.0%
Growth 25.5%
Be successful 9.2%
Other 57.7%

What were the main problems you encountered in starting or buying the business?

Finance 31.4%
Building name, finding customers 17.9
Legal, compliance costs 12.2%
Staffing 10.6%
Lack Skills 8.7%
None 9.5%
Other 23.3%

Do you have a supportive family situation? 91.2% - Yes 8.7% - No

What are your future goals for the business?

Grow 61.8%
Sell 12.5%
Survive 10.0%
Spend less time in business 6%
Retire 3.8%
Other 15.4%

DEMOGRAPHICS

Age: 0.5% - less than 25 years 3.3% - 25 to 29 years 7.9% - 30 to 34 years
 15.5% - 35 to 39 years
 16.0% - 40 to 44 years 18.2% - 45 to 49 years 22.3% - 50 to 54 years
 16.3% - 55 and over

Gender: 84.4% - Male 15.6% - Female

Marital status: 82.4% - Married/Living with partner 6.0% - Divorced 8.7% - Single
 3.0% - Other

Ethnic origin: 91.0% - European/Pakeha 1.6% - Maori 0.5% - Pacific
 Islander
 1.4% - Asian 5.4% - Other (mainly those who wrote New Zealander)

How many children do you have?

0 – 17.3%
 1 – 11.1%
 2 – 37.1%
 3 – 22.5%
 4 – 8.4%

How many of these children live at home?

0 – 46.7%
 1 – 17.7%
 2 – 23.1%
 3 – 9.5%

How many Siblings do you have:

0 – 8.1%
 1 – 20.1%
 2 – 30.6%
 3 – 18.4%
 4 – 10.8%

What place in the family are you? (e.g. youngest, oldest, middle)

37.6% are the oldest child

What is your highest education level? 3.0% - Primary 37.8% - Secondary
 34.9% - Tertiary (undergraduate) 20.7% - Tertiary (postgraduate
 qualification) 7.3% - Other

Has anyone else in your family, either now or in the past, owned a business? (Tick those that apply)

50.9% - Parents 25.2% - Grandparents 6.8% - Children 37.1% -
 Siblings

Is your business in an industry in which you have previously worked in or had experience with? 73.4% - Yes 26.6% - No

Appendix C Business start year

Year	Frequency	Percent
Pre 1986	22	7.6
1986-1992	25	8.7
1993	5	1.7
1994	4	1.4
1995	38	13.1
1996	39	13.5
1997	45	15.6
1998	48	16.6
1999	37	12.8
2000	22	7.6
2001	3	1.0
Total	288	99.7
*/Missing	1	.3
	289	100.0

Appendix D Information given to participants

(Date)

INFORMATION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

Entrepreneurs: the role of family on entrepreneurs' motivations to start a business

Thank you for your interest in my programme of study on entrepreneurs. I now invite you to participate in an interview to investigate more thoroughly what motivated you to start your business and furthermore investigate the role of your family on such motivation.

This study is timely because of the increasing role of entrepreneurs and Small-Medium Enterprises in the New Zealand economy. In addition, this study has not been conducted before in New Zealand and therefore will allow further in-depth understanding of the entrepreneur in this country.

The key objectives of the research are to answer the following questions:

- Why did the participants leave organisational employment or another situation (retired, unemployed, caregiver etc) to become entrepreneurs?
- What motivates people to become entrepreneurs? Are the motivating factors "pull", "push", or a combination of both?
- What are entrepreneurs goals once in sustained entrepreneurship? (short term, long term, personal, business)
- What is the influence of family on these motivations – children and parents, grandparents and other family members.
- Are there wider societal or cultural issues that are influencing people becoming entrepreneurs?

Should you agree to take part in this project, you will be asked to participate in an interview, which will typically last around 60 minutes (but could be longer or shorter at your discretion). The interview will be tape-recorded with your permission. It will take place in a location of your choosing at a time convenient to yourself.

You will receive a copy of the interview questions prior to the interview taking place (attached). This will provide broad questions which will address your motivation for leaving employment or another situation, your motivation for starting your own business, and the nature of your family situation. You have already provided me with information such as the number of brother and sisters you have, along with the number of children you have, but I would like you to explain this in more detail, in a partial life-history approach.

While the interview questions have been developed in advance, because of the nature of semi-structured interviews, additional questions will be asked according to the progress and nature of the individual interview. The ethics committee has therefore not been able to assess these additional questions. You may decline to answer any particular

question(s) and/or may withdraw from the project without any disadvantage of any kind.

The data may be published but any personal data included will in no way be linked to any specific participant. All steps will be taken to assure confidentiality. I will be the only person who will know the exact identity of the participants. Once the interview is complete you will be assigned a fictitious name, by which you will be referred to in all subsequent material and publications.

You are welcome to see a copy of the results of the project should you wish. You are also free to request a copy of the transcript of the interview and to correct any personal information in it. The data collected will be securely stored in such a way that only those mentioned above will be able to gain access to it. At the end of the project any personal information will be destroyed immediately except, as required by the University's research policy, any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Otago.

If you have any questions about the project please feel free to contact me at my office (03) 479 8523 or on email: jkirkwood@business.otago.ac.nz

Thank you

Jodyanne Kirkwood

Entrepreneurs: the role of family on entrepreneurs' motivations to start a business

CONSENT FORM

I have read the Information Sheet concerning this project and understand what it is about. All my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I am free to request further information at any stage.

I know that:-

1. my participation in the project is entirely voluntary;
2. I am free to withdraw from the project at any time without any disadvantage;
3. the data [audio-tapes] will be destroyed at the conclusion of the project but any raw data on which the results of the project depend will be retained in secure storage for five years, after which it will be destroyed;
4. the results of the project may be published but my anonymity will be preserved.

I agree to take part in this project.

(Signature of participant)
(Date)

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Otago

Appendix E Interview questions

Demographics/General

Type of business

Accurate sales turnover

Describe what you consider an entrepreneur to be? Do you consider yourself an entrepreneur?

Motivation for starting the business

Why did you start the business?

Were there any major problems in starting your business?

Did anyone encourage (or discourage) you to start your own business?

What were the main expectations you had for your business at startup?

Personal motivation – what did you hope to achieve personally?

Family motivation, now and in the past:

Does any family members work in business (paid or unpaid).

Does/did anyone in family own a business.

Did your children (if any) play a role in starting the business?

How do/did family members react to owning business

Prior to start-up

Approximately how long before starting the business did you consider starting it and start planning for it? Did you consider any other options?

What were you doing immediately prior to setting up the business? (eg. Working, retired etc)

If not working, why did you choose entrepreneurship over paid employment?

If working, Why did you leave this employment? Was there anything the employer could have done to prevent you from leaving? Would you consider going back to paid employment?

Goals –future

In the future, what are your goals for the business, personal and family goals (in relation to the business)

Other

What are the advantages of being an entrepreneur?

What are the disadvantages of being an entrepreneur?

Appendix F Nvivo node names

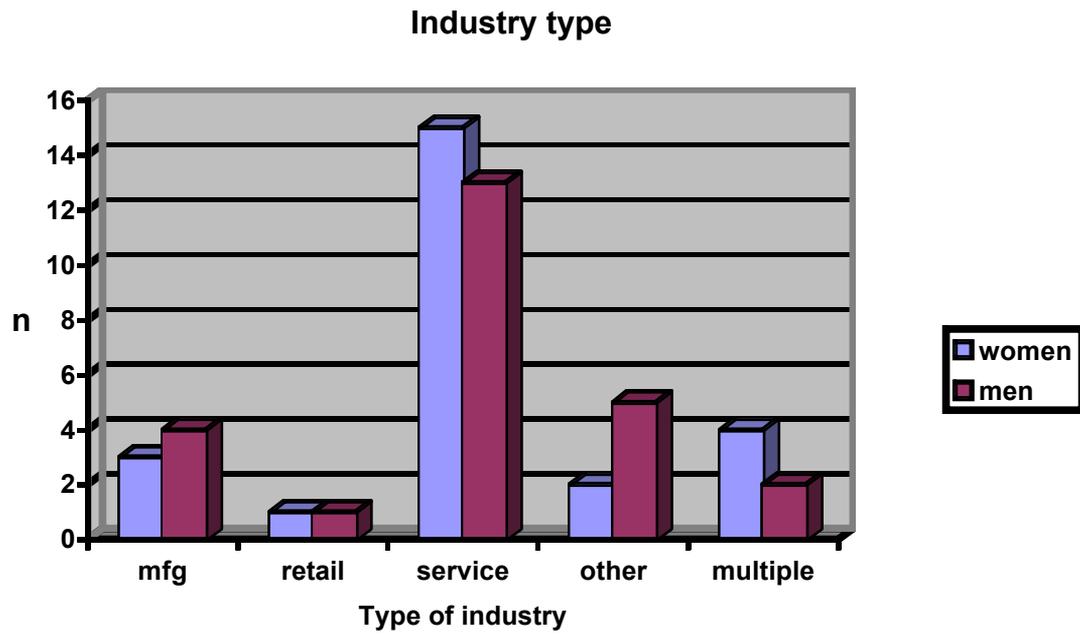
- 1 advantages
- 2 big business
- 3 business partner
- 4 changing world of work
- 5 children
- 6 confidence issues
- 7 control
- 8 delegate
- 9 disadvantages
- 10 discrimination
- 11 education
- 12 encourage
- 13 enjoy
- 14 excessive hours
- 15 experiences at work
- 16 family culture
- 17 flexibility
- 18 freedom
- 19 goals
- 20 grandparents
- 21 growth
- 22 holidays, leisure
- 23 isolation
- 24 money
- 25 NZ culture
- 26 other businesses
- 27 paid employment
- 28 parents
- 29 partner family
- 30 perception of an entrepreneur
- 31 problems
- 32 responsibility
- 33 rewards, satisfaction
- 34 risk
- 35 siblings
- 36 start-up process
- 37 tall poppy
- 38 work ethic

Appendix G Demographic information for participants

Demographic	Women %	Men %
Marital status (married or living with partner)	68	88
Ethnic origin:		
Pakeha/European	92	92
Maori	4	4
Other	4	4
Age:		
Under 35	12	0
35-39	24	20
40-44	12	24
45-49	20	20
50+	32	36
Birth order:		
Oldest	28	36
2 nd	28	8
3 rd	20	32
	Women mean	Men mean
Number of children	1.44	2.28
Number of children living at home	0.80	1.64
Siblings	3.16	2.20
Brothers	1.88	1.08
Sisters	1.28	1.08

n=50

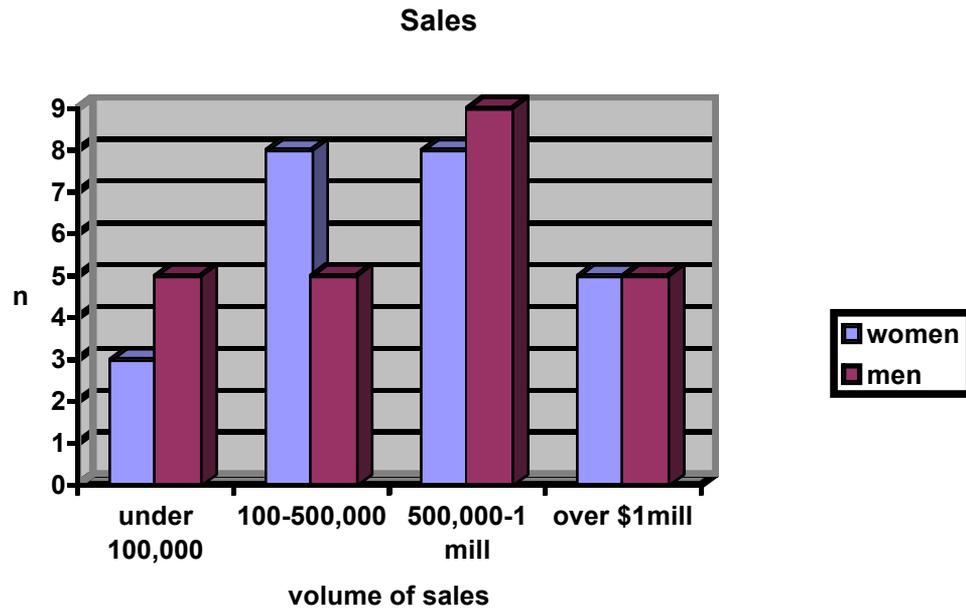
Type of Industry (n=50)



Average employee numbers (n=50)



Volume of sales for 2001 (n=50)



Appendix H Participant profiles

Figures as at 2001, and are taken from the mail survey in most cases (in some cases, especially in the sales category, the 'over one million' category proved to not be an adequate upper limit, and these figures are updated where possible to closer to the actual sales volume)

Women

Ann

Ann (aged early fifties) worked for an international company in Wellington and was a senior manager in the firm because they could not find anyone else at short notice. She agreed to do so for one year with the view to buying the Wellington office of the company out. However, when the time came, a bitter dispute arose and Ann and several other senior managers found the situation untenable and left the company. Ann and her fellow colleagues who had resigned set up their own business in 1995, in direct competition with their old company. The dispute continued once they had left and legal action was undertaken against Ann and her partners. Eventually this was resolved out of court and Ann was able to get started on her business. The business now has sales of about one-two million dollars and this is expected to remain stable. Ann's husband works with her in the business on occasion, when the receptionist is on leave and she has two grown children.

Beth

Beth has gained experience in many industries before starting her own consulting company in 1997. While working in one of the largest companies in New Zealand, Beth realised that although she had reached a pinnacle in her career, she felt constrained in her ability to make decisions and she became stifled and left. Beth thought about starting her own business only a short time before actually striking out on her own. Immediately she rented premises and opened for business. Beth now works around half the amount of hours per week that she used to (now around 25-35) and is able to earn about the same amount of income as she did when working in a stressful environment that she didn't like. She employs one other person. The business has a turnover of less than \$100,000. Beth lives with a partner and has no children. She is in her early forties.

Cara

Cara is in her fifties and employs 10 staff in her manufacturing business that was started in 1993. Cara has always worked extremely hard and has owned four other businesses in the past, many of which required very long hours and hard manual work. Her current business is based on her experience in the past and has sales of approximately one-two million dollars. The company's products are exported all over the world. Her children are now grown and Cara's partner also works in the business. After many difficult years financially, Cara is now able to enjoy the rewards of her efforts by living on a farm and is involved in horse breeding.

Cath

Cath (aged late thirties) started a business with a business partner in 1996 after relations at her previous job became very strained and impossible to work under. She was slowly being pushed out of the company by them reducing her hours and making conditions difficult for her. Cath started her business in direct competition to this company because she felt she could do it much better than them. She saw there was a large gap in the market and had no hesitation in starting a business to fill the gap. The business now employs 13 people and turns over between \$100-500,000 annually. Cath believes her business offers superior service than her previous employer and provides her with a good income that allows her lifestyle much greater than when working. Cath is single and has no children.

Dee

Dee began in business at the tender age of nine when she began selling produce from her house. This soon escalated into other businesses, and now Dee owns several businesses in related industries. The business now has a turnover of \$500,000-one million dollars. She is now 31, is married with two children and is pregnant with her third child. While growing up, Dee's family taught her about business and money and investing and this stayed with her all her life. She now has six staff running one of her businesses while she acts in a mentor role and this allows her to work flexible hours in order to take care of her children and childcare arrangements.

Diane

Diane returned to New Zealand after many years travelling the world. On her return to Auckland, she found work in a business and was able to specialise in her area of expertise. The company she worked for had just won a large contract and a week later, her boss decided to close the company. Diane was the only employee qualified to complete the work and was thrust into self-employment in order to complete the contract. At age 36 and single with no children, Diane was not keen on starting her own business but eventually decided to give it a go. Years of hard work followed and Diane was still resisting the business. Now working on many other contracts, Diane employed an assistant and is now enjoying being her own boss. The business now has a turnover of \$100,000- \$500,000.

Elly

Elly is over 55 and started her business from home while her children were growing up as there was a demand for the specialist services she provided. The business began so she was able to care for her children, but as they grew up, the business expanded to its own premises and now employs two other staff. Elly has never had to advertise her business as word of mouth and long term clients have kept the business growing at the rate Elly wants, although she sees it is slightly too large for her to manage without a business partner. The business turns over around \$100-500,000 per annum and was started in 1975. The main reasons Elly started the business was so that she could be flexible and look after her children. Her husband works from the same premises as Elly but does not have any involvement in the business as such.

Emma

Emma began her business seven years ago when she was around 50 years old. Her children were grown and she worked for a company that was in the furnishing business. Emma was a manager in the business and was asked if she would like to run a new business that had an Australian partner. Both companies run independently but she was able to ask for advice from the Australian company regarding start-up issues. Her husband is the production manager in her business and it now employs 16 staff. Emma has found herself working very long hours in the business and it is her wish to get out of the business in the next year or so and slow down a bit. Emma has three children, one of whom is entrepreneurial in nature and has her own business. Sales for this business are between \$500,00- one million dollars.

Jane

Jane worked for a government department when she met her partner (no children). Both were unhappy with their current pay and future prospects in the department and decided to look for a business they could buy and run together. They researched several business that were for sale but none appeared suitable. Then they decided to start a business from scratch in an industry that neither had any experience with. They had no idea of the amount of time the business would consume, as it is in the retail area and requires long opening hours to be successful. Jane finds there is little time to herself and holidays are a rare luxury. The business has now been running for over five years and has a turnover in the millions of dollars. Jane has experienced some problems with her business, and when they tried to diversify into other areas, there were legal issues with other retail shops in the same building as her. Sales are between two to three million dollars. Jane is aged in her early fifties.

Jean

Jean is a very shy woman in her late forties, who once had her sister go with her to a job interview so she wouldn't have to speak. Always a very hard worker, Jean raised two children but always worked part time or from home or ran businesses. Jean loves working and when her children were grown she reassessed her options. She was commuting some distance to work and saw a growth in the area North of Auckland where she lives. She asked whether her company wanted her to set up a branch of the service company in this area and they said no. So Jean decided that it was a good opportunity and decided to do so herself. She expanded quickly and now employs 50 people and turns over between two to three million dollars, after opening the business in 1996. Jean found expansion difficult as lending institutions insisted on her husband signing papers when he had nothing to do with her business.

Jess

Jess began her business life when she was 16. She had always dreamed of owning a piece of land which she could have animals on. Her father suggested she first invest in a house that she could rent out to gain some capital. This investment proved to be very successful and within two years the house had doubled in value. With the proceeds from the house, Jess purchased a lifestyle block north of Auckland and began a cattery on it, expanding to several other related businesses over time. This business was sold and she started another business which is hosting conferences. Jess has sales of \$100-500,000 and employs six people. Now aged in her late forties and living with a partner (she has no children), Jess is contemplating her future options for the business.

Kate

Kate's business is a high profile company in the employment area. The business is continually growing and now employs four full time people as well as managing over a thousand "temps". The business is turning over around one million dollars per annum. Kate's previous experience was in similar companies, but she noticed the standards in the industry were not as high as her personal standards and she felt she could do it better than the others. The nature of the business means working hours are very long, around 70 a week, but Kate is always on call. Before this business started, Kate and a business partner went into a partnership, but this ended acrimoniously as work standards between the two partners were vastly different and in the end Kate saw the business relationship was beyond repair. Kate's husband has also owned his own business. Kate is in her late forties and has no children of her own, but her husband has three grown children.

Kay

Kay (aged late thirties) fell into working in the industry her business is in when she moved to New Zealand from overseas. She had a range of experience from her previous employment and got a job in the consulting area. When she and her husband and two young children arrived in New Zealand, they wanted to switch roles, and Kay was to be the breadwinner for the family. Kay decided she was not the stay at home type of person and is a real workaholic, who often works 70 hours a week in her business. After being in the consulting industry for several years, Kay decided to start her own business after she became bored with her job. The business now employs seven full time consultants and has sales in the \$500,000-one million dollars region. Kay rarely takes time off and her last holiday was over two years ago.

Kim

Kim is in her late thirties and grew up on a farm with seven brothers and sisters, learning from an early age that when money was tight that her and her siblings would bake cookies and sell them around the community. Kim married young and bought several businesses with her husband and had two children. Once this marriage broke up, Kim met her second husband and again ventured into buying businesses with him as a partner. After purchasing and selling several run down businesses, they began investing in the real estate market and also started a business of their own in consulting. Now with three children, Kim has recently bought a farm of her own and maintains a full time job as well as her interests in several other areas. At the time of the survey, the consulting business was just beginning (2001) and was turning over less than \$50,000 and employing four people part time

Lana

While Lana's children were growing up, she did much volunteer work in her local community. She got other people involved and was influential in getting new facilities for the community. Once her children were grown up and Lana had been through a divorce, she decided to start her own business in sales. She had no previous experience in the industry but it started well and soon grew into a company with 24 sales people with sales of between \$500,000-one million dollars. The business fulfils Lana's dream of helping others as she now employs people and her business helps others too. Lana is now re-married and is in her late forties.

Lisa

Lisa is 32 and married with three children (including twins). In 1995 she started her computing business after coming back from overseas where she had worked as a consultant. Lisa realised she did not want to work for someone else and become committed to a career as she and her husband were planning to have a family. The business grew and her husband joined the business to help with increasing demand for services. Additional staff were also added and the business moved from being home based to having premises nearby. The business is growing steadily and is now turning over around \$400,000 per annum. Lisa and her husband job-share and now works two or three days a week each in order to look after their young children.

Mary

Mary is in her early thirties and worked in a service industry for many years before starting her business in 1995 in the same industry. When Mary came back from overseas she began working for a company, being paid largely by commission. Her boss owed her a large amount of commission so suggested that instead of paying her that, he would give her half share in the business. Several months later she purchases the other half. Some years later, Mary and two business partners started a business from scratch. Mary now has a young child and is married. The business turns over one to two million dollars and employs nine people.

Rachelle

Rachelle is now in her mid thirties and started her first business when she was 19. Coming from a family of business owners, she finished school and started a business. After experiencing cash flow problems, Rachelle closed down this business and went back to paid employment. Her second experience with starting a business proved more successful, and she now runs a business from home, which employs four people. The business has a turnover of \$100,000-\$500,000. Rachelle and her husband have no children. Another business was started with her husband, but this business has since been closed. Rachelle's business operates in a highly competitive industry, but she manages to offer a point of difference to her business by staying close to her customers and being constantly aware of their issues. Because the business is in a service area, this allows Rachelle to personalise her service

Rae

Rae started her service business in 2000 when relations with her boss soured. This is continuing to cause Rae grief, as now he has began legal action against her setting up the business in direct competition to him. Rae has no children but her partner has two grown children, one of which lives with them. Rae is in her early fifties and employs four people in her business and is aiming for steady growth of the business. The company has outgrown its present premises and will look at moving once the court case is concluded. The business now has sales of \$500,000 - one million dollars per annum.

Ruth

Ruth is over 55, divorced and has two grown children. Ruth gained experience in the PR field but found she was working for a man who owned his own business and left all of the work to Ruth to do while he was out doing fun things. She realised that she could be earning the money for herself and not having to take a small salary from the company so she left to set up her own company. The business started well, because Ruth had many contacts from her previous work and had a good reputation. Her son now has his own business and works out of Ruth's premises in Auckland. Ruth has one other employee and her sales are between \$100,000-\$500,000.

Sara

Sara offers her clients an administrative service which was previously done in house or not done at all. She saw the potential for a business in the area after she was working for a government department. She left her job and set up an office in Wellington, sharing a floor with several other small businesses. Sara spent around three months advertising and building her business before she no longer needed to do so. Her name became well respected and her business grew. Initially Sara managed all the work on her own but this became too much and she employed another person to help. This step was difficult for her as she had to give up some of her control and relax her particularly high standards to let someone else help with the workload (which is now around 60 hours/week). Sara earns "more money than she could ever spend" and is happy with her business remaining very small. Sara is in her early forties, single and has no children and her business turns over around \$375,000 annually.

Sarah

Sarah works as a consultant in a converted bedroom under her home. She has five children, four of whom still live at home. The business started in 2000 when Sarah was faced with being made redundant at eight months pregnant. The company she worked for helped her set up on her own rather than making her redundant and provided her guaranteed work for the first year. The business now employs two other people and is growing. The benefits of having a home office are that Sarah can be close to her family and share duties with her husband who also works from home. The demands of having young children and running a business meant Sarah had little time for herself and has recently begun to correct this by having "my time" for an afternoon every week. She finds that her productivity at work is not lessened because she has less stress and tends to stay healthier and fitter. At present, sales are under \$100,000 but Sarah points out that the last financial year was very poor. Sarah is in her late forties.

Shirley

Shirley grew up on a farm with an entrepreneurial father who taught her, from a very early age, how to run a business. After completing a university degree, Shirley worked in various sales roles before becoming a manager in an agricultural business. She worked her way to the general manager position and began thinking about her future dreams of working for herself. Shirley left her management position to become a consultant but soon founded a company and began employing others. In her late thirties, Shirley is married, and has no children. The business turns over approximately \$100,000-\$500,000 and this is expected to rise quickly in the future.

Sue

Sue's business is in the computer industry and has sales of around \$500,000-one million dollars annually. This has grown quickly since the business was started in 1998 with two other partners (including Sue's ex-husband). Sue has had experience in other businesses, which she typically started with her ex-husband and ran them without staff until the business got started, and then grew the businesses quite quickly. Both previous businesses were successful enough that when they were sold for considerable amounts of money. Sue can now offset some slow periods in the current business with her remaining capital. Sue has recently had to make several of her 10 staff redundant due to slowing sales and increasing competition in the market. She believes the business may need to refocus its direction in the near future. Sue has two young children and finds juggling time at work and home quite difficult. Sue is in her early forties.

Viv

Viv operates a manufacturing business that was started in 1998. Prior to this, Viv had founded another business in the service sector, which she later sold. Viv saw an opportunity in the manufacturing area but had no experience in the industry. She believed she could do a better job than the competitors in the industry. Viv's insight proved correct, and she now employs ten people. Viv has a partner and has two children that are grown up. In the future, Viv would like to step back from the business, now that she is in her fifties, and spend more time with her grandchildren. In order to accomplish this, Viv would like to introduce one of her staff members to the business, with a part share of the business as an incentive. The business is about to move to larger premises to accommodate the growing business. Sales are \$500,000-one million dollars.

Men

Brent

Brent set his company up on a philosophical basis where he wanted to combine his skills, with helping others and providing himself a business. While the business began well, Brent experienced huge problems with a very large and influential multi-national company that threatened to close his business down. This dispute is ongoing and has dramatically affected the financial success of Brent's business. Brent is aged 55+, has a wife and two grown children, and all of these immediate family members have worked for a time in the business, but his wife prefers not to now days. Brent has owned four other businesses in the past, all of which were financially successful so he believed this business would also be successful. The business now employs 15 people and has sales of around \$500,000-\$1 million.

Craig

Craig owns several businesses that are related, and are primary in the agricultural industry. When working for a large well-known New Zealand company, Craig could see changes occurring and people started saying "don't bring your lunch", indicating that the business was restructuring. Craig knew enough about the industry to know that his idea for a business would work, and it did. He began the business in 1978 and it now employs five full time staff and has sales of between \$500,000-one million dollars. The business is stable in terms of growth and is at a size where it is manageable as Craig does not want to lose control. Craig is now over 55 years old and thinks he will work in the business until he dies. His two children are now grown, and he is married.

Dave

Dave (early forties) was working for the government and foresaw a major restructuring was going to change the nature of his job. In 1998, he and four others saw an opportunity to start a private company doing the same work they had done in their paid employment. Dave's children were grown and at University when he started the business. The business was turning over \$100,000-500,000 and employing three full time and one part time person. This is Dave's first experience of owning a business. His wife and parents were worried about taking the risk and were concerned about the potential risk to his income in the beginning.

Don

Don started a consulting business in 1996, after considering doing so for some time. He gained much experience in the industry before deciding to go out on his own. Don has four grown children and is married. The business is small, employing two other people but not permanently. Don earns more money now than he did when he was working for large consulting companies, but the risk he faces is much higher. Don was able to see changes in the consulting industry and thought his job would not be safe, so decided that the time was right to begin his own business when he was in his late forties. Sales are under \$500,000.

Gary

Gary had retired (aged mid fifties) from the building trade where he had his own business. However, his retirement was short-lived (3 months) as he became bored and his wife encouraged him to go back to work. Gary researched the drinks industry and found there was a gap in the market. He purchased a building and began manufacturing of his products. He used kiwi ingenuity to build the machinery, which was not commercially available in the form he wanted. The business now turns over around one million dollars and employs Gary, his wife and two others. Once the business was running smoothly, Gary reduced his hours to around seven per week and began enjoying his leisure time. However, he became bored again and decided to start a business in the transport industry because he could see cost savings could be made and he was unhappy with his present freight company. Gary has two grown children.

Gerry

Gerry (aged late thirties) started his consulting business in 1994 after finding there were limited job opportunities in Dunedin once he graduated from Polytech. He worked for a few years with another firm but always intended on starting his own business when the time arose. He says he had an innate sense of wanting to start a business as most of his family have had businesses in the past. Gerry expected the business would run smoothly and growth would be natural. However, he found that it took him much longer to establish himself in the market and income was limited in the beginning. Gerry and his wife (who does the accounts for him) have three young children. Gerry saw an opportunity to make more money than he would working for someone else and it had always been his dream to run his own company. Sales are currently between \$100,000-\$500,000. Gerry now employs about five people (this varies).

George

George was made redundant from the company he worked for and felt he didn't want to go through that again so he got his brother interested in starting a business together.

The business was not an area that either had much experience in but George had some experience in the Agricultural sector before, and felt that he knew enough to start his own manufacturing plant. Twelve staff are employed by the company and turnover is around \$7.5 million and growing. From the beginning, there was a strong market for George's products and recently the company had been targeted by a large American company as one they would like to acquire. George and his brother have now sold to the company, each coming away with much more money than they expected. George still works as general manager for the company and is looking at other business possibilities while driving his new Ferrari! George is married, with two children, and is aged in his early fifties.

Gordon

Gordon owns a new company with six other people and he is also the general manager. The company grew from an opportunity he saw from his employment as a consultant. The company now turns over one million dollars and employs 20 people and is growing and expanding into other locations. Gordon is in his late thirties and he and his wife have three young children. His focus with the business is almost entirely on making personal wealth for himself and his family. Gordon likes being his own boss as he is able to make the rules as he goes along, and is able to fit in with his family, such as attending to sick children during the day. He likes the thought of employing people and contributing to society in this way.

Grant

Grant and his brother have owned many businesses in the past, and these have been in a variety of industries. Grant appears to be a visionary and can foresee future trends in the market. Sometimes this has been of benefit to his businesses, but other times the idea may be viewed as being a little bit before its time. Grant's latest property development venture was started in 2000 and has experienced numerous problems and has cost him thousands of dollars in legal battles with a very strong competitor in the market. Grant is discouraged but not prepared to give up his plans, for he is convinced the idea is a good one. Grant is in his early forties and he and his wife have two infants. Grant sees his wife is "neutral" about the idea of him owning business, largely due to the financial uncertainties that go with business ownership. Sales at the moment are under \$100,000 and employing one other person, but Grant recognises that this is low due to the legal battles.

Harry

Harry is in his mid forties, and is single with no children. He became an entrepreneur after experiencing a difficult time with his previous employer. The skills he had learnt in his career allowed Harry to begin a business in a related area with relative confidence of its success. Since founding this first business in 1995, Harry has since added two other businesses, one of which is with a business partner. Harry's businesses turnover \$500,000-one million dollars annually, but is not solely motivated by making money. Harry donates both his time and money to a charitable trust and wishes to continue and perhaps expand his involvement in the trust. Harry would like to scale back his time commitment in the businesses in the future, by putting in place procedures and practices that staff members can follow.

John

John began work in a large international company as a young man just out of school. He soon rose to a very senior position in the company but eventually tired of the long hours and hard work. He and his wife purchased a retail store but knew nothing about business or the type of product they were selling and found that there was increasing competition from large national chains. The store was sold and John began teaching classes on computer skills. This proved to be a disastrous situation as John had entered into a partnership with some unscrupulous people who quickly ruined the business. John got out and started his own business, carrying on with some teaching but moving into other areas. The business has grown to around \$100-500,000 and this is seen to be the mere beginnings for the business, as it is expected to grow rapidly in the near future. John is aged 35-39 and has one child and employs 37 people.

Keith

Keith always wanted to start his own business, and had the age 50 in his mind as a good time. Shortly after turning 50, he started the business. He had extensive corporate experience at senior management levels and a combination of events in his working life led him to start his own consulting business based on his previous experience. Keith saw an untapped market and began business on his own. As predicted, the market grew and his services were in demand, so he expanded the business to employ five people, including his wife and his grown children in their school holidays. The business is now turning over \$500,000-\$1million and while this may grow, Keith would like to reduce his hours and spend more time perusing other hobbies, such as fishing and spending more time at his holiday house.

Marty

Marty and his wife own a manufacturing business that employs eight people and has a turnover of around \$750,000. When Marty saw that his previous employer was restructuring, he could foresee that combined with the company's changes and the changes occurring in the industry, he would either have to move to the North Island or be made redundant. He left the job and worked on a contract basis for a consulting company but hated it and left without having another job lined up. In 1995, Marty decided to set up his own business so he could stay in Dunedin, where his family was. At this time he had no idea what type of business he wanted to start but eventually decided on food manufacturing. Marty is in his late forties. His wife works with him in the business and typically they both work very long hours, often in the weekends and take few breaks.

Max

Max's business began in 1995 when he moved to Auckland from Sydney to set up a finance brokerage firm. Previously employed for over 20 years in an industry in Australia, Max took a year off to travel and found it difficult to find a job in his desired salary range. So he joined with another businessman who wanted to set up in New Zealand. At the time this type of business was not well established in New Zealand and there was some initial resistance to the concept. Fortunately, Max had a large client which provided him with office space and allowed him to develop his client base and grow steadily to the current turnover of around \$500,000 per annum. Max now employs two other staff and has his own premises. Max is single and has no children and is aged in his late forties.

Mike

Mike lives in Dunedin with his wife and two children (18 & 20). He has always been involved in the primary sector, and in 1998 he started a business making footwear with his wife in their spare time. At this time, both still had full time employment but saw the business was growing quite large and one of its largest problems was the supply of raw materials. Mike decided to purchase a supplier, which meant he was able to be more in control of the supply chain. The business now employs 19 people and has a turnover of two to three million dollars. The business keeps Mike very busy, working around 50-60 hours a week but still earns less money than he thought he would by being in business. Mike has employed his children in the past for summer jobs but expects his children won't have anything to do with the business in the future.

Monty

Monty is in his fifties and owns three businesses (one of which is temporarily on hold), all related to the engineering field. In 1999, he purchased one part of a business he worked for and has since expanded this to be around three times larger than when it was purchased. He, along with two other partners, started a business in a related field, but this has not been as successful as he hoped, and is on hold. The third business is one Monty owns himself, and is related to his passion for engineering. Monty admits the business takes up more time than it really should, but he enjoys the work so much he likes to do it all himself. The three businesses combined turn over between two to three million and employ 15 staff. Monty is married with three teenage children.

Pete

Pete's business was started by accident when someone asked him to work for them as a contractor for three weeks. Today, after eight years in business, Pete owns his own consulting company with two staff and has a turnover of between \$100,000-500,000. He had worked for a nationwide company that Pete had found to be increasingly stressful and there were expectations on staff to work long hours. Since Pete and his wife (who also has her own business) had begun a family, he found the stress and hours to be incompatible with his family life. He left the company without another job and looked after the children for a number of months. When an opportunity came up to work for himself, Pete jumped on it and the business has grown slightly, but is not expected to become much larger than it is at present. Pete is in his early forties.

Ralph

Ralph was lured to New Zealand with the promise of managing a company in Auckland. He shifted his wife and young child to New Zealand and later found that the job was not as it had been promised, and was in fact work he had been doing years earlier. Not happy with the job, he and another friend (equally unhappy with his job) decided to start out on their own in a company that directly competes with his old company. Ralph works around 100 hours a week, and rarely takes holidays. He has not been entirely happy with the money he is earning and this is far less than he would have been earning working for another company. Ralph employs seven people and has sales of between \$500,000-\$1 million and growing. He is married with one young child and aged in his late thirties.

Rob

Rob is the owner of a very successful \$10 million service business in Dunedin. Rob is divorced with two grown children. Rob found the company he worked with previously was looking like it was going to close in the medium term and Rob and a workmate

decided they could start a business that offered a similar service but did it a lot better than the previous company they worked for. Indeed they could, and now Rob's company is very successful, but the person he started the business with in 1989 has now passed away. The company now employs 27 people and is growing, with particular emphasis on expanding into the North Island, where there is a larger market for the type of service Rob provides.

Ross

Ross became involved in a high growth industry that was fast changing and exciting. He became a manager and saw the owners of the business making millions of dollars. After a few years, Ross realised the work situation was no longer inspiring to him and he became unhappy and stressed. He went out on his own in a related industry where he could see there was a growing market. Ross is in his late thirties and has four children under five so finds himself with little free time. The business now employs six people and has sales of around \$500,000-one million dollars and is growing.

Simon

Simon began his business in 1972, after serving his apprenticeship in a trade. He found that he was having to work nights as a shift worker and his wife wanted him to spend more time at home. Simon saw that working for himself was a better alternative, and gradually built the business up in size, employing six others. Simon has since started four other businesses, some of which are complementary to the first business. His wife works in the business with him, being director of some of the businesses with Simon. Simon's businesses turn over between \$500,000 and one million dollars per annum, and he is aiming to grow this. Simon is in his mid fifties and has three children, who all worked in the businesses at one stage, and his son works with him now.

Steve

Steve started his business in 1997 after becoming tired of regular travel to his out of town job every week. He found his two children were becoming increasingly difficult for his wife to deal with and were just about to become teenagers. Steve believed they needed their father around all the time and felt the time was right for him to start his own business, something he had always wanted to do. He started a specialist business in the same industry and now employs two additional people to help in the business. The sales for the business are under \$100,000 and are growing. The company is just moving to larger premises and additional staff may be employed. His wife helps with accounts and additional workload but does so from home. Steve is in his late forties.

Stew

Stew runs two businesses as well as holding down a full time job in his field of science. His first business venture was in 2000, and was in publishing, brought about by difficulties finding a suitable publisher for a book he had written. In a notoriously difficult industry, Stew has managed to turn a very modest profit from his publishing venture, but was never his intention to do anything other than break-even. At the time, he employed people to help him with the venture but now employs nobody. His other business interests are in investing in real estate. Stew is married with two teenage children. His sales from publishing are under \$50,000 annually. Stew has many ideas for the future, and plans to retire (he is in his early fifties) from paid employment within a year to pursue his other entrepreneurial ideas and hobbies.

Todd

Todd was employed in the corporate world and was sick of it. He had his last five leave applications turned down and felt like his time was not his own. While Todd was contemplating leaving his high paying corporate job, he decided to start a business. The company he worked for was desperate to keep him so they agreed that Todd was able to set up his own business while still working. This enabled him to reduce the risk of start-up as he still had the security of a weekly pay cheque. Around the time that Todd became disheartened by his job, his brother died suddenly, and Todd reassessed his life. He had a young family and they were not seeing their father. Now Todd works four-day weeks and has his wife working with him. He has eight staff and sales of \$500,000 one million dollars and growing. Todd is in his late forties.

Trevor

Trevor comes from an entrepreneurial family, and his father owned a large company in Dunedin, which Trevor then went and worked in. After his father passed away, Trevor continued the family business (later the business went into receivership). He went on to start several other businesses, in various other industries, including horticulture and sales. Trevor is now in his mid fifties has four children of his own, and his second wife has three children (all living at home). Trevor employs seven staff and works with his wife in several of the business ventures he has in operation. The business turns over \$100,000-\$500,000 per annum.

Appendix I Level of experience at work

Level	Women	Men
Management	Ann (PR)* Beth (Telecommunications)* Kim (Engineering) Mary (HR)* Shirley (Agri-business)*	Craig (Import/export)* George (Chemicals) Gordon (Business consulting)* John (Fast food)* Keith (Government)* Monty (Engineering)* Ralph (Advertising)* Rob (Sales & service)* Ross (Printing)* Steve (Agri-business)* Todd (Insurance) Trevor (Boat building)*
Professional	Cath (Market research)* Diane (Architect)* Elly (Scientist)* Jane (Government) Kate (HR)* Kay (Broadcasting)* Lisa (IT)* Rae (HR)* Ruth (PR)* Sara (Government)* Sarah (HR)* Viv (Marketing)	Brent (Engineer)* Dave (Government)* Don (Business consulting)* Gary (Builder) Gerry (Draftsperson)* Grant (Draftsperson) Harry (Insurance)* Marty (Financial planning) Max (Insurance)* Pete (Draftsperson)* Simon (Electrician)* Stew (Scientist)
Other	Cara (factory worker)* Dee (Banking) Emma (Textiles)* Jean (Mail processing)* Jess (Banking) Lana (Retail)* Rachelle (Nanny) Sue (Hospitality)	Mike (Tanner)*

* denotes the participant had previous experience in the area they started businesses in.