

SOUTH AFRICAN FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS' MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN YOUNG AND ESTABLISHED BUSINESSES OWNERS

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ABSTRACT

Entrepreneurship has been pointed out as a contributing factor leading to increased job creation, sustained economic development and, ultimately, economic growth. However, many young businesses struggle to survive the first three years, subsequently jeopardising the full potential they may have in terms of contributing to the economy. The literature suggests that motivational factors may play a contributing role in business sustainability and that the reason people decide to start or remain in business might play a part in the survival of a business. The purpose of this study was to determine which motivational factors female entrepreneurs deem most important and whether these factors differ between young and more established entrepreneurs in the South African context. The study made use of primary data obtained through self-administered questionnaires. A convenience sampling technique was used, resulting in a final sample of 515 female owners of small to medium-sized business in South Africa. Various statistical techniques were employed to analyse the data including internal-consistency reliability, descriptive statistics, factor analysis and an independent sample t-test. Results indicated that one's contribution to others and independence as motivational factors yielded the highest means, followed by self-fulfilment and having high status in the community. Furthermore, a statistically significant difference between entrepreneurs with less than three years of experience and those with more than three years of experience was only observed for motivation derived from self-fulfilment. In more established businesses, the entrepreneurs had greater motivation to focus on self-fulfilment aspects. The study showed that South African female entrepreneurs could be considered more socially motivated and less profit-driven, which is also supported by the literature to an extent.

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Introduction

Entrepreneurship is the vehicle through which the economic system is entered. Entrepreneurial agents are essential in supporting and accelerating international and

domestic economic growth, economic development, and financial independence (Reissová et al., 2020; Khambule, 2020; Ambrish, 2014; Phillips et al., 2014). This

observation is supported by several policy-makers and researchers (Khambule, 2020; Meyer and Meyer, 2020; Bhatti et al., 2020); however, despite the capacity of entrepreneurship to uplift and empower people, its potential has not been fully realised in many developing countries, including South Africa. South Africa's economy has historically been the best in Africa; however, this has changed with Egypt's and Nigeria's economic revitalisation (Khambule, 2020; IT News Africa, 2015). Herrington and Kew (2013) surmised that the revitalisation of the Nigerian and Egyptian economies was primarily attributable to improvements in the government-driven, macro-economic and micro-economic environment, creating a healthier environment for entrepreneurial start-up small businesses. Compared with the averages of the other nations of Sub-Saharan Africa, South Africa is lagging in terms of its entrepreneurial intention and action; consequently, advances in this regard are necessary (Herrington et al., 2015; Sooreea-bheemul et al., 2020). Despite the inconsistencies that appear amongst entrepreneurs across nations, what remains constant is that there are fewer female entrepreneurs than their male counterparts; this issue must be explored to ensure an equitable endowment of economic opportunity. In addition, the literature suggests that motivational factors may play a contributing role in business sustainability and that the reason people decide to start or remain in business might play a part in business survival. Considering this, the purpose and rationale of this study is to determine which motivational factors act as drivers specifically for female entrepreneurs to stay in business, and whether these factors differ between young and more established entrepreneurs in the South African context.

1. Literature review

Entrepreneurship can be viewed from and defined by economic, psychological, social, managerial, and sociological perspectives (Bula, 2012). However, entrepreneurship is a term that has been contentious amongst researchers in terms of its definition. One of the first definitions of the term 'entrepreneurship' was that of Cantillon (1755), who defined an entrepreneur as a risk-taking agent who creates balance in supply and demand by matching prices and production with market demand. Another well-known economist, Schumpeter (1934), described an entrepreneur as someone who creates new products and services and brings them to the market through new distribution system combinations. More recently, Kirzner (1973) defined an entrepreneur as an alert person who timeously identifies opportunities and acts on them by creating new businesses. However, despite variations in the exact definition, some commonalities present themselves amongst the researchers' descriptions. The concepts of innovation, capitalisation on opportunities, and the willingness to take risks to begin new enterprises are consistent (Herron and Robinson, 1993; Bird and Brush, 2002; Bosma et al., 2020; Mehmet et al., 2020). Entrepreneurship is a vehicle through which economies grow and develop. It is through entrepreneurship that new markets are developed and pioneered, and as they grow, so does their ability to employ and contribute to their communities. Entrepreneurial ventures also contribute to economic development through a localised distribution of economic resources and developmental opportunities as well as solving social issues. The latter relates to social entrepreneurship (Sroka and Meyer, 2021).

Economic growth, entrepreneurship and economic development have other notable links. Studies have repeatedly shown

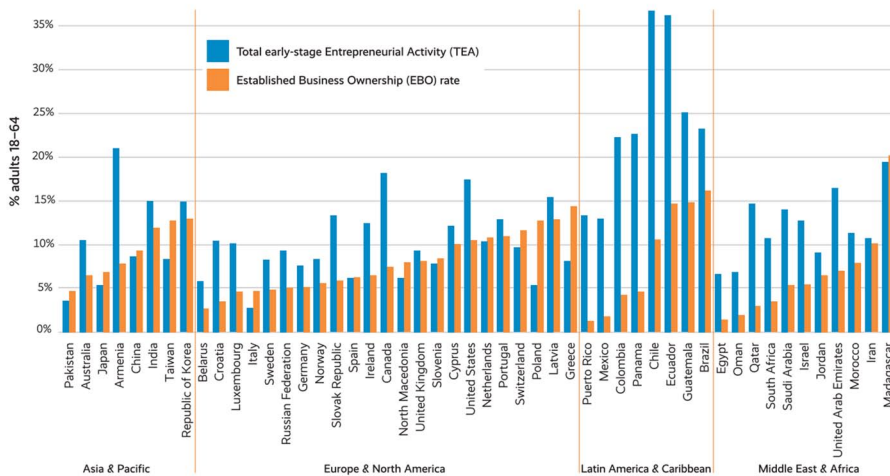
that per capita Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) rates are consistently correlated (Herrington and Kew, 2013; Dele-ijagbulu, Islam et al., 2020; Moos and Eresia-eke, 2020; Vekic et al., 2020). Moreover, the correlative link is maintained between the level of entrepreneurship within an economy and the economic development of the nation within which it resides (Naudé, 2013). This would indicate that as entrepreneurship increases, it also accelerates economic development. Additionally, researchers have found that economic growth is no longer primarily attributable to large companies, but that small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) are making an ever-larger contribution to GDP (Brock and Evans, 1989; EIM, 1997; Toma et al., 2014; Breiling, 2021; Mehmet and Magda, 2020). Although research dating back as far as the 1970s explicitly stipulates the significant role and contributions SMEs make to an economy (Toma et al., 2014, 439), these efforts have neglected to elucidate and have under-represented the significant role of economic agents (including entrepreneurs) and their ability to link micro-level institutions to practical economic outcomes at the macro-level (Wennekers and Thurik, 1999). Entrepreneurial activity differs considerably between countries, as can be seen in Figure 1. This variation is due to the diverse motivations for engaging in entrepreneurship and the variation in resources that potential entrepreneurs have at their disposal.

Figure 1 shows the Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) rate against established business ownership (EBO). The ratio between TEA and EBO is indicative of the state of business in a country; however, it is not always conclusive. TEA tends to convert into more EBO as the entrepreneur gains knowledge and experience. In more general terms, a low TEA ratio is indicative

of an economy that might not be able to replenish businesses in the future. Conversely, a high TEA rate could be indicative of the difficulty in establishing long-term businesses. Because of the complexity of analysis, TEA and EBO requires contextual knowledge when analysing any country. When looking at Figure 1, South Africa ranks 43rd of 50 countries regarding EBO, and 26th regarding TEA. Egypt's GDP is 22% larger than South Africa's and its population is approximately double, yet South Africa's TEA and EBO rates are approximately double those of Egypt. This makes for a complex analysis, and research has shown that entrepreneurship may act as an overall economic accelerator.

Toma et al. (2014) present empirical evidence that entrepreneurship boosts global economic growth, showing that improved competition stimulates a conducive environment for growth, resulting in knowledge and knowledge spillovers among individuals, businesses, and national economies. Diversity and innovation were also created among economic agents, which stimulated uniqueness that influences economic growth and development. The progression of economic development is linked to entrepreneurship through the complex set of activities and discoveries which constitute entrepreneurial actions (Harper, 2003; Shirokova, 2020). Notably, entrepreneurs improve economic efficiency by reallocating and distributing unproductive resources to more productive destinations (Toma et al., 2014). Moreover, entrepreneurs develop the economy through their contribution to employment, innovation and well-being (Acs and Szerb, 2010; Harlin and Berglund, 2020). Entrepreneurs have also been a source of innovation and develop new products and services that contribute positively to a growing economy (Kressel and Lento, 2012; Setini et al., 2020).

Figure 1. Total early-stage Entrepreneurial Activity (TEA) rate and Established Business Ownership (EBO) rate (% of adults aged 18-64) in 50 countries



Source: Bosma et al., 2020, 36.

Although the TEA rate for South Africa is only 11%, between 45% (Kelley et al., 2016) and 57% (Appiah et al., 2018) of the South African GDP is attributable to SMEs. The importance of entrepreneurship in South Africa can be argued from its contribution to GDP; however, its value for transformation and reducing inequality should not be forgotten.

Despite the potential of entrepreneurship to uplift and transform the South African economy, economic forces can make this a significant challenge. Real GDP per capita has been declining since 2011 (Tsatsenko et al., 2020), and with growth forecasts below population growth rates, this indicates increasing poverty and inequality, low job creation, and increased unemployment. Unemployment results in a reduced capacity for entrepreneurship since it amplifies capital shortages to fund them, but it can also motivate entrepreneurship, although this could take on a deadly form out of necessity or limited opportunity (Appiah et al., 2018). Unemployment currently stands at 29.1% when applying the narrow definition and 38.5% when using

the expanded definition of unemployment (Bosma et al., 2020). However, perhaps the most volatile type of unemployment is youth unemployment at 58.32%. Additional impediments to South African entrepreneurship include a poor, outdated, and an unequal educational system that remains ineffective despite one of the highest education budgets by population among developing countries.

Additionally, over-regulation of small businesses via unnecessary bureaucratic burdens and various labour market rigidities further limits the efficacy of entrepreneurship (Herrington and Kew, 2017; Bosma et al., 2020). In the context of the need to access the digital global economy, data costs remain high compared to other countries. The South African government has designated entrepreneurship as an essential aspect of its policy interventions to overcome the limitations mentioned above (SBP, 2013). Through the promotion of entrepreneurship, the South African government hopes that job creation, higher equality levels, and economic growth can be driven forward. Bosma et al. (2020) indicate that the gov-

ernment aims to improve funding availability, standardise funding applications, and improve application turnaround.

Amongst the various plans and initiatives South Africa has undertaken, the National Development Plan (NDP) is the most comprehensive and integrated. Published in 2012 with the expressed aim of increasing economic growth and reducing pov-

erty and inequality by 2030, the NDP lists job creation and reduced unemployment as its number one priority (The Presidency, 2012). Through these initiatives and the agents and departments established to support them, which are indicated in Table 1, it becomes apparent that a strong focus has been placed on entrepreneurship by the South African government.

Table 1. Government support that is focused on entrepreneurs

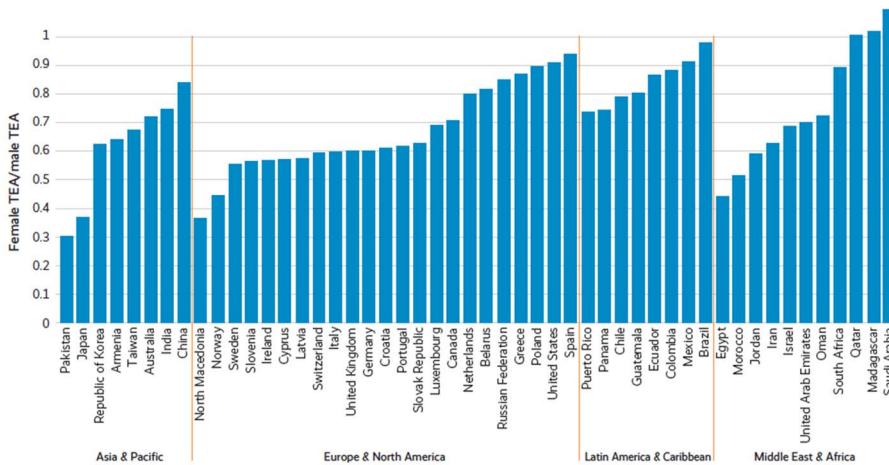
Agents:	Departments:
The National Informal Business Upliftment Strategy (NIBUS)	The Department of Trade and Industry
The National Empowerment Fund	The Department of Economic Development
The Small Enterprise Development Agency	
The Technology and Innovation Agency	The Department of Small Business Development
The National Youth Development Agency	
The Small Enterprise Finance Agency	The Department of Women's Affairs
The Department of Small Business Development	

Source: Own elaboration.

The NDP supports small business entrepreneurs and aims to decrease entry barriers and reduce regulation that impedes growth (The Presidency, 2012). Despite resource allocation and a focus on entrepreneurship, the overall efficacy and success of those mentioned in Table 1 can be viewed as questionable. The primary critiques are functional overlap, poor interdepartmental and agency coordination, and inadequate and outdated information transference. Equality for women has been a pervasive theme in policy and certainly in the NDP (Wessels, 2014). Historically, women have been amongst the most vulnerable groups in South Africa. Systematised poverty and lack of opportunity in addition to traditional gender roles have resulted in limitations that force them to re-prioritise their attention to what is immediately pertinent instead of their own development and can consequently put them into repeating cycles of oppression. To address this societal vulnerability, South Africa has prioritised their employment and promotion and has increased their earnings ratio compared to males (The Presidency,

2012). Despite the difficulties inherent in entrepreneurship, women are about nine-tenths as active in starting businesses in South Africa as men, as shown in Figure 2 (Ismail et al., 2018). The gap between male and female entrepreneurs has historically been in favour of males. In 2017 there were 12.5% male to 8.2% female entrepreneurs in South Africa (Bowmaker-Falconer and Herrington, 2020). When compared to Egypt's 2017 rate of 18.8% men to 7.5% women, it can be seen that South Africa was doing comparatively well (Ismail et al., 2018). Today there are 10.9% male to 9.6% female entrepreneurs in South Africa, indicating the significant improvement the country has seen as a result of the initiation of inclusive policies (Bowmaker-Falconer and Herrington, 2020). This is indicative of progression with regards to policy effectiveness, but more significantly, it shows a motivation that overcomes limitations attributable to females in the South African context and requires an answer as to what these motivations are, and which policy can seek to counteract.

Figure 2. The relative gender gap: female TEA (% women) divided by male TEA



Source: Bosma et al., 2020.

Within the discipline of entrepreneurship, motivation has been researched in multiple contexts. In more recent years, the discussion of entrepreneurship has become more focused on greater equality, with the emphasis being placed on female entrepreneurs. In the last ten years, research has shown both similarities and differences in what motivates men and women to enter self-employment. Veena and Nagaraja (2013), Dawson and Henley (2012), and Carranza et al. (2018) found that a primary reason for men and women pursuing entrepreneurship is to gain more flexibility, control, autonomy, and financial independence over their working conditions. However, female entrepreneurs showed markedly higher motivation to escape confined labour markets with low wages, strong supervisory and hierarchy structures, and discard social stereotypes (Veena and Nagaraja, 2013). This variation shows that the primary motivator is not always profit maximisation and that there are greater subjectivity and variability in those motivations. Staniewski and Awruk (2019) suggest that self-fulfilment, defined as a multi-dimensional positive outcome regarding

professional autonomy, desired financial outcomes, and work-life balance, should be considered complementary to what is considered entrepreneurial success.

Those mentioned above are categorically pull factors, motivations that lure an individual into entrepreneurship (Amit and Eitan, 1995). Isaga et al. (2015) stipulate that entrepreneurs drawn by pull factors are primarily passionate individuals with a dream, motivated to address an opportunity or problem they have identified. Isaga et al. (2015) further state that the most critical pull factors are wealth creation, independence, social status, and more control over one's circumstances. Status is another relevant motivator that offers an alternative and nuanced definition of entrepreneurial success. Wach et al. (2016) state that entrepreneurial success can be realised when the entrepreneur fulfils their motivation to achieve a certain status through the business, despite its economic success. In this example, the traditional goal of business activity – profit – becomes a means by which to fulfil one's desire for status. Mago-Kabudi (2017) stated that, among female entrepreneurs, there is a focus on making

a positive contribution to their community and their fellow person. This focus on making a positive contribution prioritises empathic interactions between people and is novel as it also argues that profit in entrepreneurship, whether in the form of money or skills, is not the end in itself but a means to satisfy this novel motivator (Meyer, 2018, 2019). The novelty of these observations necessitates further exploration of the pull factors of self-fulfilment, status, contribution to others, and independence.

The previous work experience of owners, especially at a younger age, has been viewed as a positive determinant of business success and performance, through amplified self-discovery, surety in their career, accelerated learning, and more leniency offered for failure (Lerner et al., 1997; Fairlie and Robb, 2008; Holzherr, 2013). Work experience not only equips an individual with soft skills but also with context for their work and an understanding of the significance of their work (Holzherr, 2013). This implies a somewhat axiomatic elucidation that as mastery is approached in an industry, productivity and success in that industry increases. However, this would be a simplification of the role of the entrepreneur to that of a mechanical asset within the business, which would be an incomplete analysis. Experience also has profound effects on the individual. Experience permits critical thinking and leadership development as it creates a contextualised framework for decision making (Dragoni et al., 2014). Moreover, experience amplifies the resilience of the entrepreneur by conditioning them to remain functional in high stress environments through immersion and the development of coping strategies (Verhofstadt et al., 2017). An additional benefit of experience is that it permits time to network (Aldrich et al., 1989).

When analysing experience amongst entrepreneurs as a gendered concept, it should be noted that men have traditionally worked more years than most women and have thus acquired more business experience (The U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1984). Moreover, women took more frequent and longer periods off from business than their male counterparts. Men also showed a tendency to remain employed with their current employer for longer periods of time than women. With the benefits of experience being so pronounced, and the attribution thereof residing amongst men, it should thus not come as a surprise that women have historically earned less than men. In recent times the perceived wage gap has decreased; however, until the number of hours at work and the experience gained therefrom is equalised in the labour market, inequality is likely to persist. The U.S. Bureau of the Census (1995) showed that companies with more male staff paid substantially higher wages, in lieu of their greater perceived value in the workplace, validated by their experience and dedication. Although men were more inclined to change their jobs and the companies they worked for at younger ages, when compared to women, males tended to maintain longer tenures once they determined their desired career path (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 2014). Considering the aforementioned discussion, the following hypothesis was formulated.

Hypothesis 1. There is no statistically significant difference in the various motivation factors (self-fulfilment, status, contribution to others, and independence) between South African female entrepreneurs with less than three years of business experience and those with more than three years of experience.

2. Methodology

2.1. Research paradigm, design and approach

As the study sought to determine which motivational factors act as drivers specifically for female entrepreneurs to stay in business and whether these factors differ between young and more established businesses within the South African context, it used a descriptive single sample, cross-sectional design approach. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data from the selected sample at a single point in time. As the study made use of empirical data, the positivist paradigm provided the underlying philosophical foundation. Research making use of primary data obtained objectively and interpreted through statistical analysis usually fits best in such a paradigm. Using this paradigm scientifically quantifies findings through the use of statistical methods to determine relationships and test hypotheses (Mouton, 2011).

2.2. Sample

The study was conducted in South Africa, a developing, upper-middle-income country (World Bank, 2021). Entrepreneurs from all nine provinces were included in the study using three sample criteria. First, they had to be female; second, they had to own a majority share in the business, i.e. 51% or more female-owned; and lastly, the participant had to be actively engaged in the management of the business. Participants adhering to these criteria were asked to participate using a self-administered questionnaire. All relevant ethical clearance and informed consent was obtained before the study commenced. A combination of purposive and convenience non-probability sampling techniques were utilised. Of the approximately 600 questionnaires that were distributed, a final sample of 515 usable responses made up the final sample (summary of responses:

Limpopo - 60; Gauteng - 87; North-West - 50; Free State - 53; Eastern Cape - 61; Western Cape - 43; Northern Cape - 50; Mpumalanga - 50; KwaZulu Natal - 55; Missing - 6).

2.3. Research instrument and data analysis

The contents of this paper form part of a larger study (Meyer, 2018). The original questionnaires included several scales such as motivation, intention, attitude, and various barriers (i.e. finance, culture, education, risk, and government support). In addition, a variety of demographic and business information was also obtained from the participants. For the purpose of this study, the participants were divided into two groups based on the length of time they had been self-employed. Group 1 was comprised of female entrepreneurs with less than three years of experience, and Group 2 of those who had more than three years of experience. The questionnaire was developed using existing scales; more specifically, the scale developed by Mitchell (2003), which was slightly adapted to fit the scope and purpose of this study, was used to measure motivation. The questionnaire went through a series of tests to ensure its quality and reliability. First, it was pre-tested by industry experts, and subsequently a pilot test was done using a sample from Namibian female entrepreneurs who did not form part of the final study. All the required amendments were made before the final study was conducted. The motivation scale included 21 items measured on a six-point Likert scale (from 1 - strongly disagree to 6 - strongly agree). The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 25.0) and Principal Component Analysis (PCA), descriptive and reliability analysis, followed by an independent sample t-test.

3. Results and discussion

The sample consisted of South African female entrepreneurs. The largest portion of the sample (37%) were females between 21 and 30 years of age, and the second largest group consisted of those aged between 41 and 50 years (34%). Most of the female entrepreneurs were in possession of a tertiary qualification (diploma or higher), and a mere 22% had only a secondary-level qualification. A total of 62.2% of the respondents had been self-employed for less than three years, and 35.1% had more than three years of experience (2.7% did not indicate how long they had been self-employed for).

In order to determine how many factors were present within the motivation scale, exploratory principal component analysis was conducted using Oblimin rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test produced a result of 0.792 and a Bartlett's chi-square test of 1966.556 with $df=210$ and significance at $p=0.000<0.05$. These results are in line with those recommended by Pallant (2010), thus confirming the factorability of the data. Next, the communalities originating from the exploratory principal component analysis were assessed. Results from the extraction analysis indicated the presence of four factors which explained 42% of the total variance in the data set as depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. Exploratory principal component analysis

Items	Factor loadings				Communalities
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	
I prefer having flexibility in my life (A3)	0.328				0.364
I like being creative and using my talents (A6)	0.550				0.365
I like applying my knowledge and skills, and continuously learning (A7)	0.608				0.373
I like being innovative and keeping abreast of developments in my field (A8)	0.626				0.408
I enjoy the self-accomplishment and self-fulfillment associated with my business (A9)	0.630				0.429
I like pursuing a challenge (A10)	0.686				0.442
My negative experiences of / frustrations with being employed motivates me to continue running my own business (A19)	0.345				0.246
I desire more wealth and economic stability (A5)		-0.356			0.399
I want to improve the status of my family within the community (A12)		-0.469			0.390
I enjoy the indirect benefits of having a higher status in the community (A13)		-0.766			0.595
I want to achieve a higher position / recognition in society (A14)		-0.827			0.660
I want to prove that I own a successful business (A15)		-0.705			0.578
I enjoy having an influence in my community (A16)		-0.632			0.535
I like filling a gap in the market (A11)			0.322		0.170
I want to contribute to society (A18)			0.548		0.412
I want to give myself and my family more security by bettering my financial position (A20)			0.483		0.324
I like making a direct contribution to the success of the business (A21)			0.784		0.588
I prefer being independent and having control of my own life (A1)				-0.561	0.403

I like having a work life balance (A2)	-0.599	0.444
I prefer being my own boss (A4)	-0.404	0.321
I like the freedom of being able to adapt my own approach to work (A17)	-0.629	0.418
Percent variance	19.721	10.602
	6.075	5.819

Source: Own elaboration.

As is evident from the analysis in Table 2, four factors were extracted. Based on the question-item content, these factors were subsequently labelled as follows: self-fulfil-

ment (factor 1), status (factor 2), contribution to others (factor 3) and independence (factor 4).

Table 3. Descriptive and reliability statistics

Factor	Nr of items	Cronbach Alpha	Mean inter-item correlation	Mean	Standard deviation
Self-fulfilment	7	0.669	0.233	4.949	0.653
Status	6	0.758	0.339	4.833	0.810
Contribution to others	4	0.498	0.202	5.208	0.583
Independence	4	0.522	0.215	5.138	0.650

Source: Own elaboration.

Table 3 presents the descriptive and reliability statistics. The four factors were tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha. Nunally (1978) and Malhotra (2010) state that coefficient values may be below 0.7 but preferably not lower than 0.6. Self-fulfilment (seven items) and status (six items) returned acceptable alpha values. In the case of one's contribution to others (four items) and independence (four items) factors, both returned a Cronbach alpha of less than the prescribed 0.6. As both these factors only had four items, Pallant (2010) states that in cases where scales/factors have only a few items, it is normal for the Cronbach alpha to be lower than recommended; in these cases, one can consider reporting in the mean inter-item correlation. Clark and Watson (1995) point out that an average inter-item correlation is recommended to fall somewhere between 0.15 and 0.50, which suggests validity. Both these factors reported average inter-item correlations falling within this range and were deemed acceptable for further analysis.

The literature strongly suggests that females are more socially orientated and focused on making a positive contribution to their community and their fellow person (Mago-Kabudi, 2017). This is also evident from this sample, as although all four motivational factors had high means, contribution to others still resulted in the highest mean ($\bar{x} = 5.208$). Independence ranked second ($\bar{x} = 5.138$), a finding supported by Veena and Nagaraja (2013), who found that female entrepreneurs showed markedly higher motivation to escape confined labour markets with low wages, strong supervisory and hierarchy structures, and discard social stereotypes. The two lower-ranked factors of self-fulfilment ($\bar{x} = 4.949$) and status ($\bar{x} = 4.833$), which focus more on one's own advancement and needs, indicate that although female entrepreneurs were still in agreeance on these issues, the degree to which this is the case is lower when compared to the two factors focusing on the community and others. These findings concur with those of Bird and Brush (2002), who listed aspects such as

caring, appreciation, an interconnected nature, diffuse awareness, emotional aspects, being cooperative and harmonising, being empathic, personal aspects, family influence, responsibility in response to the circumstances of others, a sense of fairness, repairing harm and preserving relationships as traits which are often found in female entrepreneurs.

From an entrepreneurial point of view, motivation has always been an interesting

aspect, with a vast amount of research conducted on this topic (Hessels et al., 2008; Benzing et al., 2009; Gabrielsson and Politis, 2011; Meyer, 2018). To determine if any differences were present between motivational factors of female entrepreneurs with less than three years of business experience and those with longer experience, an independent samples t-test was conducted. These results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Independent Samples T-Test

Factor	Group < 3 years' experience		Group > 3 years' experience		t-value	df	p-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD				
Self-fulfilment	4.882	0.604	5.060	0.722	-2.803	319.898	0.005*	0.25**
Status	4.867	0.726	4.752	0.940	1.419	300.345	0.157	n/a
Contribution to others	5.171	0.549	5.263	0.637	-1.621	328.192	0.106	n/a
Independence	5.107	0.624	5.191	0.686	-1.391	497	0.165	n/a

* Statistically significant at $p < 0.05$ ** Small effect, practically non-significant

Source: Own elaboration.

Table 4 presents the results from the independent samples t-test. Only the self-fulfilment factor returned a significant difference between female entrepreneurs with less than three years of business experience ($\bar{x} = 4.882$, $SD = 0.604$) and those with more than three years of experience ($\bar{x} = 5.060$, $SD = 0.722$). This indicates that female entrepreneurs with more experience have a higher sense of self-fulfilment and thus focus more on being creative, having more flexibility, applying skills and pursuing a challenge. This may be as a result of them settling into their businesses more, having better and more streamlined processes in place, and moving into the more established business phase. Young businesses might be more challenging, as many start-up hurdles need to be overcome and business owners with less experience might also have less time to focus on the aspects pertaining to self-fulfilment (Rasego, 2011). After a business moves into a more established phase, many of

the processes might run more smoothly, and additional staff might also help ease the management obligation of the entrepreneur. This may result in more experienced business owners having more time to spend on improving or applying skills, being creative and more flexible (DeMartino and Barbato, 2003). All other factors did not return a significant statistical difference between the groups, indicating that they are equally important for females at all levels of experience. In light of the above findings, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis in the case of status, contribution to others and independence as motivational factors when comparing females with less than three years of business experience and those with more than three years of experience. However, concerning self-fulfilment as a factor in motivation, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative accepted.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine which motivational factors female entrepreneurs deemed most important and whether these factors differ between young and more established entrepreneurs within the South African context. It is interesting to note that once again, as shown in many previous studies, females, and in this case female entrepreneurs, are more socially focused and motivated by helping others and creating a sense of value in the community.

Entrepreneurship is not a new research area; however, research on female entrepreneurs, and specifically in the context of a developing country, has not often been done up until now. This makes the contribution of this study valuable. Furthermore, understanding what motivates female entrepreneurs and how this motivation differs between less and more experienced groups is also interesting, as it is indicated in this case that experience does not have a significant effect on motivation. In the South African context, this is very important, as the country is plagued by many social issues. Females not only contribute to the overall economy, but in this context also contribute to the direct community and filling a gap in the market. Female entrepreneurs face many challenges including gender bias and stereotyping, less education and self-belief (in many developing countries), family obligation and lack of support structures. In this case, government policy can be directed to assist female entrepreneurs to overcome some of these challenges. The growth and success of female entrepreneurs not only leads to them contributing to the economy but, in many cases, making a direct contribution to the local community.

Although this study added valuable insights to the existing literature, it is not without limitations. The main limitation is the

descriptive nature of the study, sample size and cross-sectional design. Future studies could include drawing further conclusions based on association, correlation and regression analysis, increasing the size of the sample, or including other countries as a comparison. In addition, qualitative data may provide deeper insight into the thinking of female entrepreneurs.

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