WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN EMERGING MARKETS:  
ARE OPPORTUNITY AND NECESSITY BASED WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS ANY DIFFERENT?

MUJERES EMPRENDEDORAS EN MERCADOS EMERGENTES: ¿SON DIFERENTES LAS MUJERES EMPRENDEDORAS DE OPORTUNIDAD Y NECESIDAD?

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Abstract

The objective of this paper is to explain how necessity-based women entrepreneurs in emerging markets tend to incline more towards survivability, ignoring aspects of growth. While, opportunity-based women entrepreneurs emphasize more on growth, often overlooking survivability. The existing literature has failed to perceive both together, merging opportunity and necessity-based women entrepreneurs in the context of business growth. We aim to address this gap, through the paper and touch upon concepts of enterprise survivability and scalability wherein we discuss a third bracket of entrepreneurship that emerges out of viewing both necessity and opportunity constructs together. The findings suggest that while the motivation behind women pursuing necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship may be different in developing regions of the world like Latin America, Sub-Saharan Africa and East and South Asia, their end points happen to be the same. Both opportunity and necessity-based women entrepreneurs, irrespective of their motivations to start their businesses, struggle with aspects of business growth. Hence, to exploit the potential of women-led ventures, it is significant that we focus on achieving business growth and simultaneously sustain enterprises. While the paper highlights a descriptive research analysis, it also supplements the existing literature on growth drivers for necessity-based entrepreneurs and explores variations in the entrepreneurial process within opportunity and necessity entrepreneurship. This paper provides an insight into how women entrepreneurs can cater to enhancing human development indicators which will have an indirect impact on pushing sustainable development goals in a forward direction.

Keywords: Women’s entrepreneurship, emerging markets, opportunity entrepreneurship, necessity entrepreneurship, survivability, scalability, rural entrepreneurs, self-help groups

Resumen

El objetivo de este artículo es explicar cómo las mujeres emprendedoras basadas en la necesidad en los mercados emergentes tienden a inclinarse más hacia la supervivencia, ignorando aspectos del crecimiento. Mientras que, las mujeres emprendedoras basadas en oportunidades enfatizan más en el crecimiento, a menudo pasando por alto la capacidad de supervivencia. La literatura existente no ha logrado percibir a ambos juntos, fusionando la oportunidad y la necesidad de las mujeres emprendedoras en el contexto del crecimiento empresarial. Nos esforzamos por abordar esta brecha y enfocarnos en los conceptos de capacidad de supervivencia y escalabilidad de la empresa, en los que discutimos un tercer grupo de emprendimiento que surge de la visión conjunta de los constructos de necesidad y...
oportunidad. Los hallazgos sugieren que si bien la motivación detrás de las mujeres que persiguen la necesidad y el emprendimiento de oportunidades puede ser diferente en las regiones en desarrollo del mundo como América Latina, África subsahariana y Asia oriental y meridional, sus puntos finales son los mismos. Tanto las mujeres emprendedoras basadas en la oportunidad como en la necesidad, independientemente de sus motivaciones para iniciar sus negocios, luchan con aspectos del crecimiento empresarial. Por tanto, para explotar el potencial de las empresas lideradas por mujeres, es importante que nos enfoquemos en lograr el crecimiento empresarial y, al mismo tiempo, sostener las empresas. Si bien este artículo se enfoca en un análisis de investigación descriptivo, también complementa la literatura existente sobre los impulsores del crecimiento para los emprendedores basados en la necesidad y explora las variaciones en el proceso empresarial dentro del emprendimiento de oportunidades y necesidades. Esta investigación ofrece una idea de cómo las mujeres empresarias pueden abordar la mejora de los indicadores de desarrollo humano, lo que tendrá un efecto indirecto en el avance de los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible.

**Palabras clave:** emprendimiento de mujeres, mercados emergentes, emprendimiento de oportunidad, emprendimiento de necesidad, capacidad de supervivencia, escalabilidad, emprendedores rurales, grupos de autoayuda

**Introduction**

The term ‘entrepreneurship’ has always found its base in Schumpeter’s historical views, embedded in the concepts of innovation and economic development. His theory has highlighted the notion of ‘Creative Destruction’ as a means to imply that innovation is the primary catalyst for turning an individual into an entrepreneur. Several awe-inspiring pieces of innovation and technology, in the past, have completely transformed the face of the business world and the way people engage in entrepreneurial processes.

The startup revolution was one such transformation around the globe that gathered significant momentum in entrepreneurship, owing its growth to a massive technological expansion in the last three decades. This phenomenon has changed the course of entrepreneurship, altered the way it has been defined, and set new paradigms of development in economic, social and environmental spheres. The entrepreneurial boom is gaining more prominence in emerging markets where women are leading the brigade in small businesses. Research has captured how women led enterprises in the larger part of the developing world like Latin America, South East Asia and South Africa have been significantly less than their male counterparts (Bardasi et al., 2011), creating small businesses that are vital factors for economic growth (Amoros et al., 2016).

Aligning with the aspect of economic development, entrepreneurship as a concept has always been linked to varied markets at different levels of economic development. We refer to ‘emerging markets’ broadly as an economy that is not too rich, not too poor and not too closed to foreign capital. (The Economist, 2017). The idea is to base its understanding on the MSCI Market Classification Framework which gives an overarching perspective of investor sentiment and ease of accessing markets in order to gauge the market conditions and the overall entrepreneurial ecosystems. Women entrepreneurs shape significant characteristics of emerging markets, reveal aspects of the larger entrepreneurial ecosystem, and therefore, form pinnacle subjects of study.

Literature on entrepreneurship in emerging markets, has limited its contribution to mainstream entrepreneurship theories (Pathak & Laplume, 2014). Existing research has examined the micro and macro-level (Stenholm et al., 2013) elements that explain why different countries have different levels of entrepreneurship and demonstrate the causes of variations in entrepreneurship levels. (Chowdhury et al., 2019). However, these studies do not capture the determinates of growth that drive women’s enterprises in the milieu of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurship.

In this paper, we intend to address the above gaps, theorize women entrepreneurship within the framework of emerging economies/markets and base its understanding around the interplay of necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs. These have been explained in the subsequent sections of the paper. Our primary objective is to recommend a two-way proposal of survivability and business growth for women led enterprises, examining it from the perspective of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs.

We start by reviewing the conceptual framework of women entrepreneurs in emerging markets and follow it up by reviewing how recent literature views necessity entrepreneurs. The dichotomy around necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs is brought to the forefront in order to discuss new implications on entrepreneurial motivations in the subsequent sections. Further sections also examine the growth drivers for necessity entrepreneurs and successively throw light on the relevance of support programs for women in emerging economies for both opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs. Lastly, our
findings present concepts of scalability and survivability from the lens of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurship. We conclude the paper with policy recommendations for women entrepreneurs (both opportunity and necessity based) and further research implications.

**Conceptual Review**

Empirical research on women’s entrepreneurship has gained a lot of significance from the GEM (Kelly et al., 2016) that was the first of its kind to address gender enabled preference driven gaps and motivations behind pursuing entrepreneurship for females. It cited ‘pull factors’ as opportunity driven where women take up entrepreneurship as a means to exploit a market opportunity and ‘push factors’ where women are forced into it out of compulsion and need for survival. Even though the GEM methodology does not go beyond the push-pull motivations for pursuing entrepreneurial activities, it has been responsible for the emergence of new forms of research on entrepreneurship in literature.

These newer forms of research have focused on investigating the gendered component of opportunity and necessity-based entrepreneurship in the emerging economies of East and South Asia-Pacific, Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa. Terejesen and Amoros (2010) in their paper discuss the female rate in opportunity and necessity based entrepreneurial activities in Latin America. They argue that Latin American necessity-based female entrepreneurs have a larger share of female entrepreneurial activity as compared to opportunity-based female entrepreneurs. The paper points out how women’s businesses are self-employment initiatives where only 13 percent of female entrepreneurs expect their business to grow. Such literature is conducive to highlight the limited growth potential of these businesses and how they concentrate on necessity-based entrepreneurs in emerging economies.

Emerging economies is a term that, for the purpose of this paper, has been defined under the MSCI Market Classification Framework, categorizing markets as frontier, emerging and developed. Countries with Gross National Income (GNI) per capita 25% above the World Bank high income threshold (USD 12,376) for 3 consecutive years are classified as ‘developed’ which distinguish them from ‘frontier’ and ‘emerging markets’. Emerging markets differ from frontier markets based on several sub-criteria such as openness to foreign ownership and efficiency of operational framework, including market regulations and market entry. Some economies that come under the umbrella of emerging markets encompass China, India, Indonesia, South Africa, Peru, Mexico, Brazil, Russia, UAE, Pakistan, Thailand, Korea, Colombia, Philippines etc. (MSCI, 2020).

The high parity economies where women participate in entrepreneurship at equal or higher levels than men come from two regions: Asia (Indonesia, Philippines and Vietnam) and Latin America (Mexico and Brazil). However, none of these economies are at the innovation-driven stage of development, where on average, women start at 60% of the rate of men (Kelly et al., 2016). Yet they are considered high parity economies where women invest in starting their own businesses.

To further reiterate the argument around the prevalence of necessity entrepreneurs in emerging economies Kelly et al. (2016) in their paper argue that higher gender parity exists in starting businesses at lower development levels. Furthermore, lower gender parity exits at higher development levels. The paper points out that the highest Total Entrepreneurial Activity rates for women are found in Sub-Saharan Africa (21.8%) and Latin America (17.3%). The lowest rates are found in Europe, the Middle East and North Africa regions (9%). Incidentally, the difference between opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs is also lowest for Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America, followed by the Middle East and North Africa, implying higher rates of necessity driven women entrepreneurs as compared to other regions.

This data can be explained in the figure 1.

The figure 1 above describes Total Entrepreneurial Activity Rates which is measured by the total early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rate of the GEM Report (De Clercq et al., 2013). It measures absolute figures of men and women’s total entrepreneurial activity in approximately 49 economies. The graph also cites levels of women’s opportunity and necessity motives that are estimated as a proportion to TEA rates.

From the data above, one can imply that most women led enterprises in developing regions like Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America aim at sustaining their basic existential needs through entrepreneurial activities. This also suggests that globally, most women would prefer to take up entrepreneurship as a livelihood option rather than a profession, pointing to implications for low human development indicators. Women’s perceived access to opportunities like education, employment and capital also tend to be low which drive women into entrepreneurship as a singular source of income.

On the other hand, low incidents of opportunity-based entrepreneurs in the Middle East, North Africa and European regions point to a very small percentage of women who would prefer to take up entrepreneurship as a profession. Any educational disadvantage for females translates to lower rates of opportunity-based entrepreneurship.
(Hernandez et al., 2012). A sense of self-efficacy and perception of economic opportunity are needed in order to engage in entrepreneurial opportunity (Minniti et al., 2006). Gender stereotypical outcomes adversely affect female agency which, in turn, affects their entrepreneurial choices (Hernandez et al., 2012). Globally, this would explain the overall limited proportion of females engaged in entrepreneurship as compared to men.

According to the World Bank Enterprise Survey (2010), Vietnam and Indonesia have one of the highest percentage of firms competing against unregistered or informal firms, suggesting a high prevalence of informal sector enterprises. Many informal sector enterprises in emerging markets are necessity entrepreneurs. Formalizing these enterprises in an organized economy continues to be a growing challenge. Consequently, it becomes imperative to recognize growth spots for necessity entrepreneurs, and to place emphasis on the gradually increasing evidence in literature that points towards necessity entrepreneurship in a novel direction.

Studies, more recently published, view necessity entrepreneurs in a new light by attempting to capture the re-conceptualization of necessity entrepreneurship, theorizing it from the purview of Maslow’s motivation theory of needs. A motivational theory of necessity has been explained in a study to predict how variations in a founder’s basic needs influences the entrepreneurial process, conditional on the level of human capital endowments and the presence of supportive institutional levers (Dencker et al., 2019). They argue that environmental factors and presence of institutional levers influence entrepreneurial processes under the condition of basic needs, helping individuals involved in new venture creations. The study is a step forward in drawing attention to knowledge deficits concerning necessity entrepreneurs and is an advancement in research centred around opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs.

Further highlighting Dencker’s argument on re-conceptualizing necessity entrepreneurs, O’Donnell et al. (2020) suggest that necessity entrepreneurs move beyond their singular focus of physiological and safety needs that Dencker proposes in his study. There is, in fact, more room for higher level needs such as a sense of belonging and self-esteem etc. since entrepreneurs that are residing in developing countries have their physiological and safety needs fulfilled to at least a moderate degree.

These factors explicitly point to an emerging literature on how necessity entrepreneurs may make use of relevant opportunities in business considering their other kinds of needs and material desires that become salient and exert an influence on their economic behaviour (Banerjee & Duflo, 2012).

‘Basic needs’ are also likely to change with other factors like education and gender that affect business practices and entrepreneurial processes. Lower developed regions (LDC) like Africa are characterized by small business growth where scholars have often questioned whether necessity motivated people are less able to reach their potential for innovation, job-growth and building competitive advantage because they are constrained in capital and resources. Eijdenberg et al. (2015), in their paper, suggest how gender and education affect small business growth in lower developed regions; i.e., male small business owners are more likely to have a
higher business growth in LDC than female small business owners. Incidentally, education has the same impact on business growth with more educated individuals expanding their businesses. These studies point towards components that support policy recommendations in women’s entrepreneurial research and the larger entrepreneurial ecosystem.

While these studies pave the way for new forms of research on necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs, several scholars so far have been unable to recognize the importance of grassroot entrepreneurs in exploiting opportunities for business growth through external support programs in developing economies. We address such gaps in our paper and argue that there are separate growth drivers for necessity entrepreneurs that can be looked at from the view of enterprise survivability. We further draw attention to growth drivers for opportunity-based women entrepreneurs and explain whether women should opt for the scalability or survivability of their business. The focus of this paper is to examine dual perspectives of how necessity and opportunity-based women entrepreneurs ensure enterprise survivability and scalability.

Our potential contribution can be seen from placing both concepts of women’s opportunity and necessity motivations together, arguing that their ultimate end points happen to arrive at the same level. Lastly, we propose recommendations for policy makers, governments and practitioners in the form of cultivating ecosystems for both opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs.

Women Entrepreneurs in Opportunity and Necessity-Based Entrepreneurship
Emerging markets are generally characterized by smaller enterprises and dominated by low productivity sectors with little concentration in sales, retail and services (Bardasi et al., 2011). Necessity driven entrepreneurs are predominantly depicted as female entrepreneurs who are surprisingly apparent in low income economies such as India, China, Mexico, Peru and Africa (Elam et al., 2018). The reasons can be attributed to evidence in literature which at first, suggest that individuals from groups facing labour market discrimination have a greater incentive to become self-employed, as they expect lower wages or unfavourable employment in the labour market (Deshpande & Sharma, 2013). Second, in lower developed countries, entrepreneurial motivation is commonly related to the need or pressure to start a business as a result of unfavourable external circumstances such as poverty (Eijndenber et al., 2015).

Third, reasons to engage in necessity entrepreneurship also move beyond their ‘push motivations’ and take aspects of ‘individual needs’ into account which differ in developed and emerging markets depending on the institutional support. Dencker et al. (2019) in their study aim to re-conceptualize the necessity entrepreneurship construct by relying on Maslow’s Motivational theory and the concept of “basic needs”, where they establish an elemental boundary condition, as individuals who start a venture to fulfil basic needs (e.g., purchase food) will likely engage in a different entrepreneurial process than those seeking to fulfil higher level needs. The authors also advance the view that entrepreneurial processes centered on opportunity identification and exploitation occur along all levels of needs.

Motivations for pursuing different types of entrepreneurship, therefore exceed push-pull factors and encompass sources of entrepreneurial processes which depend on the level of need an individual is urged to fulfill with a given skillset in a given context.

Simultaneously, several women enter entrepreneurial activity either inheriting their family business as a joint owner, starting their own business, or joining an existing business. Swierczek and Ha (2003) in their study report suggest that challenge and achievement are more significant motivators than job security for Vietnamese entrepreneurs. In Latin American countries, it is commonly thought that a firm managed by a woman is a supplementary activity i.e. an extension of the family (Terjesen & Amoros, 2010). While many women entrepreneurs inherit their family businesses to exploit relevant business opportunities, the success and survivability of their enterprises depends on two factors: first, women’s access to institutional opportunities like education, employment, funding, markets (Mastercard Index for Women Entrepreneurs, 2018) etc. and second, women’s ability to capitalize on their existing resources.

Women who are opportunity entrepreneurs have access to an enabling ecosystem of entrepreneurial activity that provide better reach of the market, capital and technology. More developed regions like North America, Europe and Central Asia possess the highest rates of women entrepreneurs who cite opportunity reasons for pursuing entrepreneurship (Kelly et al., 2018). These regions also have better access to institutional opportunities for women, suggesting their motivations to grow and sell their business in larger markets. However, most nascent opportunity driven women entrepreneurs tend to focus more on selling their business in order to get more access to funding rather than nurturing their business.

The global rate in total entrepreneurial activity for women tends to be lower than that of men, which also, to an extent, points to the fast entry and exit of women from entrepreneurial activity. One of the reasons could be
connected to social and psychological factors, varying from women’s social roles and management of domestic responsibilities to their personal attitudes and perceptions (Kelly et al., 2018).

Other reasons for fast entry and exit of women from entrepreneurial activity perhaps occur due to survival, where women route via informal sectors such as subsistence farming, industrial outworkers, street vendors etc. To ensure progress under such constrained circumstances, recognition in areas of business growth requires a clear understanding of how existing necessity entrepreneurs have transpired success with no formal schooling or work experience. Women have emerged as flagbearers of small and micro-enterprises in developing economies, accounting for approximately 30-37% (8-10 million) of all SMEs in emerging markets and contribute to nearly half of the labour force (International Financial Corporation, World Bank, 2017). The success factors can surely be credited to external support systems which essentially cover three sub-systems that include a) institutional arrangements/levers b) community, social and mentor networks c) development-based interventions and other support programs that act as nudge factors in entrepreneurship.

Growth Drivers for Necessity-Based Women Entrepreneurs

Institutional arrangements/levers imply factors that affect entrepreneurial ecosystems such as access to capital, labour force participation, education outcomes and governance. These may be inadequate in developing regions, yet entrepreneurs are capable enough to utilize their existing resources optimally to run a small business. Developing nations may have a lack of institutional arrangements that support markets, yet they still have the resourcefulness to drive their local economies through affordable products or services. Interestingly, this resource potential also drives innovation given the limited availability of assets with women entrepreneurs. The absence or presence of supportive institutional levers thus leads to starkly different entrepreneurial processes for otherwise similar necessity entrepreneurs (Dencker et al., 2019).

Solar Sisters in rural Uganda is a classic example of a social enterprise which was started as a way to harness clean energy and provide electricity through solar energy in one village. Started by an investment banker from America and an artist from India, this enterprise was built on the shoulders of three African women leaders who provided essential services and training that enabled women entrepreneurs to build sustainable businesses in their own communities. Today, they support several off-grid communities by selling energy efficient cooking stoves and solar lanterns which help drive away the harmful effects of climate change.

Community engagement and strong networks are essential for women entrepreneurs who drive economic growth at the bottom of the pyramid and trigger their local economies in the sale and purchase of products and services. Networks are significant in establishing a strong entrepreneurial base as a means to cope with not only survival, but also out-migration scenarios from rural areas (Naude & Minniti, 2010). Rural India, in the recent decade, has witnessed severe agrarian distress which has left farmers feeling anguished, in turn, leading to either suicides, unemployment or horizontal mobility of rural migration for livelihood. As a consequence, feminization of agriculture has lead women in such spaces to enter into entrepreneurship and locally operate their small-scale businesses of organic fruits/vegetables as sole earning members of their families (Move over “Sons of the soil”: Why you need to know the female farmers that are revolutionizing agriculture in India, n.d.).

Necessity-based entrepreneurs thus require community networks in order to survive since they are often excluded from relevant social and business networks that connect buyers and sellers. Exclusion from these networks minimizes their potential to expand and take more risk (Hernandez et al., 2012).

This brings us to identify other growth spots for necessity-based entrepreneurs through external support from extended family, community and mentor networks. Yadav and Goyal (2015) in their study point out that the commercialization of a product is more likely to occur with the help of enabling factors, such as individuals like friends and family and external institutions such as the government and nongovernment organizations, educational institutions, and private sector organizations.

Many support programs for women entrepreneurs around the globe, particularly economies in transition, have invested in increasing economic participation of women through entrepreneurship and used it as a means to fulfil sustainable development goals like alleviating poverty, ensuring food security, and environment conservation. Institutions and individuals promoting rural development now see entrepreneurship as a strategic development intervention (Lather et al., 2009) that could accelerate the rural development process.

This has been achieved through development agencies and grassroots women’s groups that have tried to foster entrepreneurship development through Women’s Self-Help Groups (SHG). Led by India, countries in South Asia have a longer history of SHG activity than other parts of the world. SHGs in Asia focus on group lending.
and credit. In Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America, the South Asian model has been adapted to match the cultural and social context (Hoop et al., 2019).

The main reason for the success of SHGs is connected to developing and sustaining self-reliant communities as the building blocks of a sustainable economy and humane civilization (Aggrawal, 2018). SHGs have focused on offering women collective finance, enterprise and livelihood opportunities. This process has enabled women to transform their choices into desired actions and changing patterns of spending and saving, which has resulted in the emergence of economic, political, social and psychological empowerment (Hoop et al., 2019). Through such self-help initiatives, micro-credit has promoted small scale business enterprises and has aimed to alleviate poverty by generating income among women and the poor in order to achieve self-sufficiency (Hoop et al., 2019).

Other ways in which entrepreneurship among women is being promoted is through support programs that focus on business education and training, mostly for opportunity driven women entrepreneurs. There are several women’s business market initiatives that focus on providing assistance by linking women to support networks, and offering technical training and growth counselling (Weeks & Seiler, 2001). These programs are initiated for the purpose of imparting management skills, networking skills, and other kinds of business skills that ensure enterprise scalability; however, they often side-line enterprise survivability.

Therefore, a system of community support and network is essential for both opportunity and necessity driven women entrepreneurs in order to connect them to large ambi’s of stakeholders who can drive their enterprise growth in the right direction. However, enterprise survivability and scalability are two independent constructs that occur distinctively when viewed from perspectives of necessity and opportunity driven entrepreneurs. These have been explained in the section below.

Scalability and Survivability from the Lens of Opportunity and Necessity

Entrepreneurship development, when promoted as a vehicle to enhance rural development, particularly for women, is often viewed from the perspective of self-reliance and empowerment which leads to survivability. We refer to survivability as sustainability which is often described as a measure of one’s ability to fulfill its mission and serve its stakeholders over a long period of time and to have a recognizable impact (Gundry et al., 2014). It relies on an approach to innovation that effectively applies new processes in ways that benefit the stakehol-
Women entrepreneurs dominating formal sector spaces possess assets to invest as capital for their businesses and some collaboratively own a business with their spouses/partners as a ‘copreneur’, running their family enterprises. Their base is significantly more established to pursue entrepreneurship out of opportunity than necessity. They have the ambition and resources to consider it as a profession as opposed to necessity-based entrepreneurs who focus on creating enterprises to meet their immediate and bare minimum needs.

Through Maslow’s Foundational Framework of Motivation theory, scholars have re-directed necessity entrepreneurs as those who start a venture in order to access food or water and to fulfill basic physiological needs, while other types of entrepreneurs are those who fulfill higher level needs like psychological and self-fulfillment needs. Furthermore, the type of need the individual seeks to fulfill will depend on access to resources, thereby highlighting the intuitional environment which will most often be more conducive for an opportunity driven entrepreneur (Dencker et al., 2019).

Drawing on the aforementioned arguments from entrepreneurial research, we aim to highlight that as necessity entrepreneurs face depreciating human and social capital and a growing need to generate an income, they may increasingly be tempted to leave their industry experience behind and consider setting up their businesses in other industry domains (Shane, 2004), implying resourcefulness and flexibility. We therefore, present our inferences that emerge from literature, in understanding how intent and need vary for opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs.

The intent for necessity driven women entrepreneurs tends to incline towards clarity in fulfilling their basic physiological needs, and their power to optimally utilize existing resources tends to be high, the same seems to be lacking on the front of opportunity driven women entrepreneurs. The intent with which opportunity-based entrepreneurs start their businesses emerges from higher growth aspirations, lacking clarity of strategic vision in business ideas.

While the primary aim of opportunity-based entrepreneurs is to incorporate a business model that reflects profitability, growth and personal aspirations (Cullen et al., 2014), necessity-based entrepreneurs follow a model that engages them to fully utilize all their local resources, and keep themselves self-reliant and survivable. In contrast to regular entrepreneurs, the aim of social, environmental, and sustainable entrepreneurs is not limited to and not primarily focused on the pursuit of value creation for private gains; rather, it includes the pursuit to increase quality of life for the benefit of others (Groot & Pinkse, 2015).

Hence, this proposal can be summarized as follows:

- Necessity based entrepreneurs essentially operate in informal spaces or low productivity sectors with inadequate formal education. Hence, they have limited scope for scaling up their businesses and gaining access to larger markets, technology and capital with inadequate reach of institutional opportunities (like education and prior employment) even though their enterprises may exist for survival purposes.

- On the other hand, opportunity-based entrepreneurs operate in formal spaces with the aim to expand and grow their operations, lacking the quotient of survivability and resourcefulness. Women in particular operate in family enterprises with very few employees, exploiting their own innovative business ideas, even though, comparatively, they have adequate access to markets, technology and institutional opportunities.

In developing economies, many enterprises struggle to keep themselves sustainable and shut down as fast as the burgeoning boom of businesses. As large firms increase, the number of new businesses reduce, since a growing number of people prefer to work in large industrial plants due to stability factors in employment (Amoros et al., 2016). This aspect, however, is not prevalent in necessity-based entrepreneurship; i.e., they tend to last longer even though they may only grow up to a certain point. Coyle and Habiby (2010) suggest that entrepreneurs in emerging markets start 25% more companies than their US counterparts do, and their firms have a higher survival rate.

We theorize that while the orientation and objectives of opportunity and necessity entrepreneurs maybe different, their end points are the same. Opportunity driven women entrepreneurs, after scaling beyond a certain level, diversify their enterprises and move at a slower pace, resulting in slower growth. Opportunity-driven entrepreneurs tend to create larger enterprises, but only a small percentage of them build high-growth companies (Coyle & Habiby, 2010).

Necessity driven women entrepreneurs tend to possess community inclination to survive and maintain their status quo of being unable to access institutional opportunities, with no growth potential. It is therefore, conclusive to state that women owned enterprises struggle in aspects of business growth, irrespective of their motivations to own their own businesses.

Survivability or Growth? Which Way to Go?

Women entrepreneurs are heavily concentrated in the service sector in terms of their labour market concentration and this affects their entrepreneurial choices (Bardasi et
Entrepreneurial ecosystems around the world consist of various interconnecting components, none of which operate in isolation; they all interact to create a supportive environment for new venture creation and business growth. Therefore, a cross-section of sub-policies on improving education outcomes for girls, improved health conditions like maternity leave, and increasing labour participation for women must sync in with larger public policies on women’s entrepreneurship in order to address women’s perceived deficits. (Mazzarol, 2014)

Successful entrepreneurs must therefore have the resourcefulness and survivability aspects of necessity entrepreneurs padded with the drive and growth orientation of opportunity driven entrepreneurs.

Policy Implications for Opportunity and Necessity-Based Women Entrepreneurs

While necessity and opportunity-based women entrepreneurs are essentially different, they struggle in similar challenges of achieving business growth. We must see them as serving separate purposes for ensuring survivability and growth, and measure them from a new rubric, considering they operate in completely distinctive market segments and ecosystems.

- We must ask ourselves if there is a way for policy makers to look for social issues like health, gender equality or environment conservation in a way that acts as nudge factors in entrepreneurship. Several NGOs work in similar spaces in order to break down social, legal and economic barriers to women’s entrepreneurship around the world (Mathew, 2019). Policy makers must tap into them as significant stakeholders that encourage entrepreneurship development through rural initiatives and push such solutions as part of larger state polices.

- Furthermore, instead of merely ‘fixing women’ with education and training, there is a need to identify resource providers and connectors as well as the institutional environment embedded within women’s entrepreneurial ecosystems (Foss et al., 2019; De Bruin et al., 2007). We need to link these three aspects together in order to bring out naturally emerging evidence in favour of support provision for women owned businesses, rather than replicating efforts in designing new programs in training women entrepreneurs.

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- Social networks impact profoundly on the early stage entrepreneurial process, from the acquisition of motivation, through opportunity perception, the identification of resources, and the subsequent birth and growth of businesses.
survival of the firm. If entrepreneurship is to be given serious credence as a policy objective, such networks can be usefully deployed to strengthen the quantity and quality of enterprising action (Drakopoulou & Keles, 2015). Community and social networks can help women entrepreneurs go digital and enable resilience in businesses during uncertain times.

- Additionally, policy makers should encourage women with better education outcomes to pursue STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics) courses through scholarships to encourage their prevalence in high productive technology related sectors. Women should be encouraged to expand the sectors in which they are mostly found sustainable (such as retail, garments etc) to other sectors (Anna et al., 2000). Their suitability can be assessed through their work experience in different sectors or through professional certifications.
- Governments should coordinate with financial institutions to provide low-cost loans or venture capital to facilitate capital access for women entrepreneurs (Zhu et al., 2019). Credit access through Micro-Financial Institutions with SHG based interventions can be also encouraged as another layer of funding.
- A growth path for women-led micro-enterprises can typically involve their movement from local markets to external markets by engendering value chains (from producer to the seller). Growing businesses needs appropriate access to large domestic and international markets through corporate and government supply chains (Foss et al., 2019).

Directions for Further Research

Several directions for further research may be considered when interpreting our proposal. First, the survivability of opportunity-based women entrepreneurs can be explored in the larger entrepreneurial ecosystem in emerging markets. Do opportunity entrepreneurs stay longer in self-employment than necessity entrepreneurs or vice-versa? (Block & Sandner, 2009). Second, financial linkages arising from other stakeholders in family enterprises will add to critical empirical evidence in research. Third, more detailed studies on how necessity-based women entrepreneurs have grown can be investigated from qualitative aspects. It would be interesting for scholars to determine if a conceptual framework can address the impact of necessity-based motivation on the success of a venture (Block & Sandner, 2009). The implications of the two-way proposal presented in our study can be corroborated if scholars address pertinent questions around entrepreneurial processes that lead to survivability and scalability of enterprise.

Conclusion

Identifying the level of need and the intent with which a business is initiated is crucial in order to carry out further research into women’s entrepreneurship. The need and intent identification are essential to understand variations in entrepreneurial processes and any transition journeys that may take place from survival to growth. A theoretical matrix can perhaps be developed to measure the intent and level of need to make the women entrepreneurs self-aware of their own bottlenecks, envision future possibilities from the current course, and demonstrate a way forward.

If the need of the necessity entrepreneur changes from basic physiological sustenance to higher economic needs, then the intent of the entrepreneur also changes from persistent income generation to higher growth aspirations. The two-way proposal is a step in a similar direction, which explains the underlying context of this transition and views the women entrepreneurs in different dimensions.

Opportunity and necessity entrepreneurship are constructs that require a relook from perspectives of intent and need and further recognize environmental factors and institutional arrangements that are embedded in developed and developing regions of the world. Varied development contexts can therefore provide an opportunity to recognize areas where governance and policy interventions are required, such as women’s advancement outcomes (education, labour market participation and health). It is imperative to connect various stakeholders in the larger ecosystem together to provide mentor networks and other financial networks as a means, to not only encourage women to start their own businesses, but to also employ more women in their organizations (Mckinsey & Company, 2017). Chartering a growth path for women entrepreneurs, whether opportunity or necessity driven, to a great extent, depends on individual faucets of the larger entrepreneurial ecosystem and recognizing the level of need of the entrepreneur and the intent of the business.

References


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