



Monarch Business School Doctoral Research Proposal

**Factors Affecting Women In Entrepreneurship In Developing
Countries: A Case Study Of Egypt**

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
ECES	Egyptian Center for Economic Studies
ILO	International Labor Association
ISC	Investors Service Center
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Global Entrepreneurship Monitor
LOA	Level of Analysis
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MSMEDA	Egyptian Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency
NCW	National Council for Women
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SME	Small and Medium Enterprise
TEA	Total Entrepreneurial Activity
UN	United Nations

ABSTRACT

Women Entrepreneurs are understood to be an under-utilized group with significant potential for global and national economic growth and development (Hechevarría, Bullough, Brush, & Edelman, 2019; Sajjad, Kaleem, Chani, & Ahmed, 2020). With the necessary drivers to foster their success, women entrepreneurs could enhance national competitiveness, reduce unemployment, lower poverty and social exclusion, and improve Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Meyer & De Jongh, 2018; Rae, 2015). The McKinsey Global Institute (2015) suggests that by 2025, the global GDP could be increased by \$12 trillion by improving women's access to entrepreneurship opportunities.

Elam, et al. (2019) indicate that the percentage of women who seek to establish their own business remains low in most countries, especially in developing economies (GEM, 2018). Notwithstanding the significant potential role of women in entrepreneurship in developing nations (Meyer & De Jongh, 2018), the efforts exerted by governments to support women entrepreneurs and achieve equality in the workplace (ECES, 2019) so far appear to be unsatisfactory (Krumov, et al., 2015). Women entrepreneurs in developing economies face social, economic, and cultural challenges rarely experienced in more developed economies (Marlow & McAdam, 2015). These women seeking self-employment reportedly have reduced access to market prospects, credit facilities, business networks, institutional support, and educational and training opportunities (Dheer, Li, & Treviño, 2019).

The Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region fosters fewer women entrepreneurs than other developing economies (Cawtar, 2007). According to Hassan & Zaharia (2021) and the United Nations Egypt (2016), Egypt has the lowest percentage of women entrepreneurs in the region and ranks amongst the lowest for women in entrepreneurship worldwide (GEM, 2018). Yunis, Hashim, & Anderson (2019) argue that limited research has been dedicated to exploring women in entrepreneurship in developing economies.

The contemplated research will attempt to identify the factors affecting women entrepreneurs in Egypt. A research triangulation method will be employed consisting of: 1. An integrated literature review of the academic domains of: Entrepreneurship, Social Justice, and Motivation; 2. A content analysis of professional and quasi-academic literature, and; 3. An interview process of individual women entrepreneurs and mid-level managerial staff of related organizations within the professional field. A phenomenological research strategy that highlights the lived experiences of the subjects will be employed.

Key words: *Women in Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneur, Empowerment, Social Justice, Equity, Motivation, Developing Countries, Egypt.*

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Women Entrepreneurs remain an untapped potential for national economic growth and development (Berger & Kuckertz, 2016; Hechevarría, Bullough, Brush, & Edelman, 2019; Kelley, et al., 2017; Sajjad, Kaleem, Chani, & Ahmed, 2020).

Women in Entrepreneurship could contribute to reducing unemployment, improving local competitiveness and innovation, increasing market spending, reducing poverty and social exclusion, and thus increasing Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Ayogu & Agu, 2015; Bahmani-Oskooee, Kutan, & Xi, 2013; Meyer & De Jongh, 2018; Rae, 2015). Despite estimates by the International Labor Association (ILO) (2018) that women represent approximately 48.5% of the global workforce, the percentage of women seeking to establish their own business worldwide remains significantly low (Elam, et al., 2019). A Silicon Valley Bank (2020) report indicates that only 28% of startups in the US are co-founded by women. Piacentini (2013) indicates that less than 1% of young women higher education graduates establish their own business. According to McKinsey Global Institute (2015), improving access to entrepreneurship opportunities for women could add \$12 trillion to the global GDP by 2025.

Sullivan & Meek (2012) associate the global lag of women in entrepreneurship to a lack of available resources required for women to create and manage businesses successfully. For instance, women statistically face challenges in obtaining external financing (Guzman & Kacperczyk, 2019), with only 2% of global capital funds allocated to women entrepreneurs (McKinsey Global Institute, 2015). Silicon Valley Bank (2020) reports that only 7% of total venture capital deals executed in the US in 2019 involved startups co-founded by women. It also appears that women have

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reduced access to educational and training opportunities, government assistance, informal network resources and societal support (Dheer, Li, & Treviño, 2019).

1.1. Women Entrepreneurs in Developing Countries

According to the United Nations (UN), developing countries have low per capita income, limited access to education, healthcare, technology, qualified human resources, infrastructure, economic and political stability, social services, gender equality and quality of life (Aycan, 2002). Governments and global organizations have been employing various means to comply with the UN's Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) was adopted in 2015 to achieve gender equality, reduce inequalities, and improve economic growth (ECES, 2019). Krumov et al. (2015) indicate that efforts to support women entrepreneurs in developing countries have been unsatisfactory. Despite the potential role of women entrepreneurs in the growth of developing economies (Meyer & De Jongh, 2018), the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) (2018) reports a significant shortage of women in entrepreneurship. According to Hassan & Zaharia (2021) and Marlow & McAdam (2015), women in developing countries do not have equal business opportunities and face social, economic, and cultural challenges uncommonly observed in more developed countries.

Gërguri-Rashiti & Rotabi (2021) promulgate differences in motivation, intent, and sustainable success amongst women entrepreneurs in developing and developed nations. While approximately 9% of women entrepreneurs in North America are reportedly needs-driven, 42% of women in entrepreneurship in sub-Saharan African

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countries are motivated by survival needs. The difference is primarily due to lack of paid work opportunities, poor job quality and safety, and family duty burdens (World Bank, 2018). Similarly, 79% North American women are opportunity-driven, while just 56% of African women actively seek business opportunities (Gërguri-Rashiti & Rotabi, 2021).

Businesses founded and managed by women are uncommon in countries of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) (Cawtar, 2007) and Latin America (GEM-Brasil, 2018). Similarly, women-owned businesses represent only 18% of total businesses in Afghanistan, 6.1% of businesses in Iran (Modarresi & Arasti, 2021), and less than 5% of businesses in India (Sahoo, 2020), compared to a global average of 34% (Mohsen, Ahmadzai, & Modaser, 2021). The share of women in entrepreneurship in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) is notably lower than in other developing economies (Cawtar, 2007).

According to Williams & Gurtoo (2011), women in developing countries often engage in informal entrepreneurial activity, in which they own and manage businesses that are not registered nor declared to national authorities (Williams, Martinez-Perez, & Kedir, 2017). Women entrepreneurs in Tanzania and Kenya reportedly operate informally to avoid the complexity of business registration, incorporation, and licensing processes (Cutura, 2006, 2007). Bowman & Cole (2014) and Franck & Olsson (2014) indicate that women entrepreneurs commonly hide and devalue their entrepreneurial activity to avoid destabilizing their households and maintain their traditional socially-accepted roles as wives, mothers and caregivers rather than successful business women. Women in the majority of sub-Saharan African countries are often unable to legally own assets or engage in official contractual

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agreements without the consent of a male family member (Gelb, 2001), thus refrain from formalizing their businesses. This makes it difficult to estimate the accurate extent of women's ownership or control of businesses, assets and resources in developing nations (Bardasi, Blackden, & Guzman, 2007).

1.2. Women Entrepreneurs in Egypt

Women's participation in entrepreneurial activity in Egypt lags in comparison to the global reported averages despite the national declaration of 2017 as being the "Year of Egyptian Women" and the Egyptian government launching the "National Women's Strategy 2030" that advocates for equal opportunity in the workplace (Hassan & Zaharia, 2021). According to the United Nations Egypt (2016), Egypt has the lowest percentage of women entrepreneurs in the MENA region and sub-Saharan Africa (Shorbagi, Rizk, Kamal, & Sultan, 2017). Furthermore, Egypt is among the lowest-ranked countries for women in entrepreneurship worldwide (GEM, 2018). Women represent 7.5% of total early-stage entrepreneurship in Egypt compared to a global average of 10.4%. Only 2.1% of women in Egypt own businesses, comparing to an average of 6.4% of women globally (GEM, 2018). Women-owned businesses account for 9% of national businesses in Egypt (United Nations Egypt, 2016).

According to the World Bank (2018), the motivation of women entrepreneurs in Egypt differs from those of women in more developed economies. Egyptian women entrepreneurs are mostly driven by the necessity to survive due to the unavailability of well-paying job opportunities and family responsibility burdens. In contrast, women in more developed nations are motivated by opportunity and aspirations of success.

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A major challenge that faces women entrepreneurs in Egypt is the lack of access to financing opportunities. Only 20% of women resort to commercial banks for funding due to a reduced probability of success. Egyptian women generally opt to acquire funds from family and friends due to institutional challenges in the country (Nasr, 2010). The United Nations Egypt (2016) reports that nearly 82% of women entrepreneurs establish their businesses in rural areas, often home-based with reduced access to markets, credit facilities and business networks.

The contemplated research aims to develop a model or framework that better describes the factors affecting women in entrepreneurship in Egypt and inform how women in entrepreneurship can be fostered in developing countries.

2.0 THE PROVISIONAL RESEARCH QUESTION

With the aforementioned discourse in mind, the following main research question has been developed:

“What are the characteristics of a new conceptual model or framework that better describes the factors that affect women in entrepreneurship in Egypt?”

3.0 THE RESEARCH RELEVANCE

Given the potential positive impact of women in entrepreneurship in Egypt, exploring the factors affecting the phenomenon may result in benefits to women entrepreneurs, the Egyptian society in general, the Egyptian economy, and the global GDP (El-Said, Al-Said, & Zaki., 2013; Hechevarría, Bullough, Brush, & Edelman, 2019; Kelley, et al., 2017). The contemplated research will attempt to:

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1. Identify the main motivators for women entrepreneurs in Egypt;
2. Identify the main facilitators of success of women entrepreneurs in Egypt;
3. Identify the main challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Egypt;
4. Define the main indicators of success of women Entrepreneurs in Egypt;
5. Develop recommendations to support women in entrepreneurship in developing countries.

4.0 CONTRIBUTION TO EXISTING KNOWLEDGE

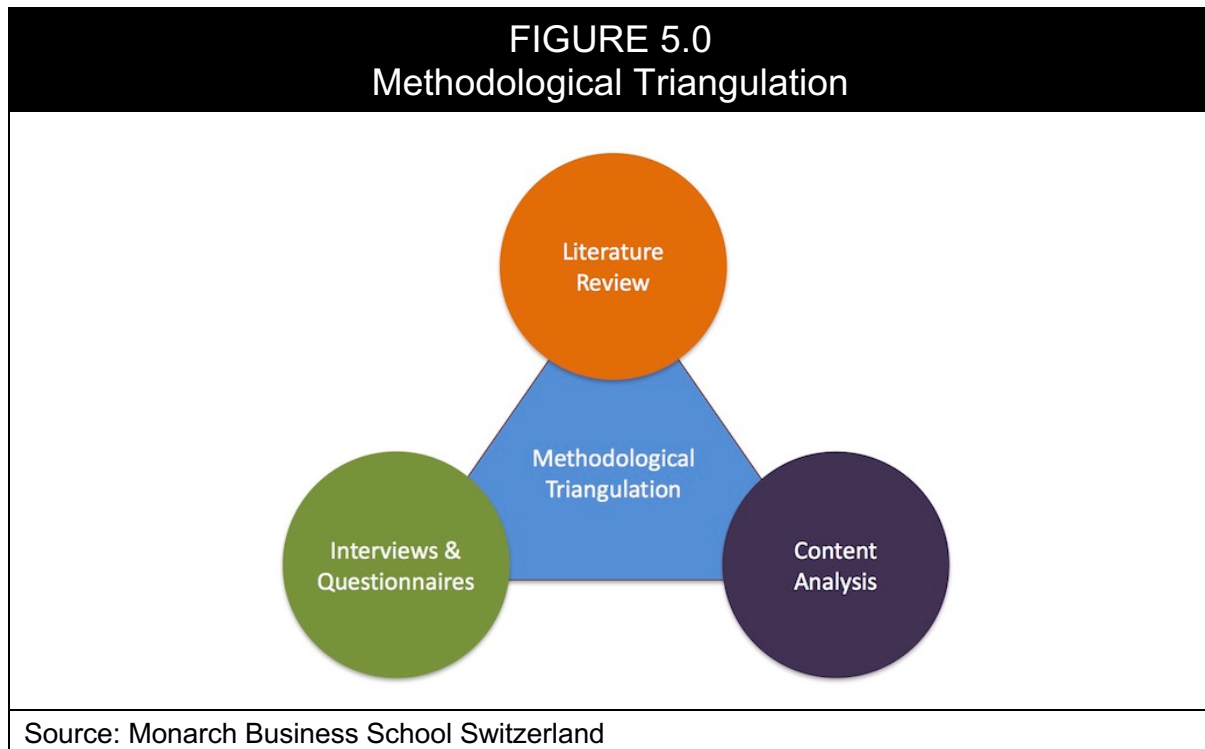
Limited research has been conducted on the factors affecting women entrepreneurs in developing nations (Marlow & McAdam, 2015; Yunis, Hashim, & Anderson, 2019). Exploring the scholarly domains of Entrepreneurship, Social Justice, and Motivation Theory may assist in identifying the factors affecting women entrepreneurs. The contemplated research aims to create a practical model or framework to assist governments and organizations in fostering the development, growth, and sustainability of women in entrepreneurship in developing countries using Egypt as the case study.

5.0 THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Figure 5.0 illustrates that the contemplated research aims to respond to the main research question by way of a triangulation of research data, being: 1. literature review of existing seminal academic authors (desk research); 2. content analysis of existing corporate data (desk research), and 3. interviews with primary stakeholders in industry (field research). The contemplated research will use a qualitative methodological approach for data collection and analysis. Moustakas (1994) recommended that a phenomenological approach is most suited for exploring human

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attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. A phenomenological approach will be employed to better understand the lived experiences of women entrepreneurs in Egypt.



5.1. Stakeholder Schema & Participants

Throughout the contemplated research a level of analysis methodology will be maintained as illustrated within the schema in Table 5.1.

TABLE 5.1
Levels of Analysis (LOA) & Stakeholder Schema

Level	Type	Group 1	Group 2	Stakeholders
MACRO	Societal	-	-	Ministry of Trade, National Commerce Cabinet in Egypt, Financial Regulatory Authority, The Central Bank of Egypt
MESO	Organizational/ Institutional	25	15	Business Incubator Managers, Entrepreneurship Support Organizations, VCs, Commercial Banks, Women's rights associations, UN for Women-Egypt
MICRO	Individual	45	15	Women Entrepreneurs
Total Respondents		70	30	

Source: Monarch Business School Switzerland

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The field research component consists of semi-structured interviews and is obtained in two parts. The interviews will comprise the Micro and Meso sub-groups.

Participants of the Micro-level will include individual women entrepreneurs. At the Meso-level, expert participants considered knowledgeable in the research domain associated with corporations, civil governments, commercial banks, stakeholder groups and other entities will be interviewed.

5.2. Phenomenological Research

A qualitative research design will be employed based on a social constructivist worldview approach that aims to define and construct a new model of the factors that affect women in entrepreneurship in developing countries (Crotty, 1998). A phenomenological research strategy, as recommended by Moustakas (1994), will explore the individual perceptions of the motivators, success indicators, facilitators, and challenges of women entrepreneurs in Egypt through the lived experiences of the participants.

5.3. Research Process Flow

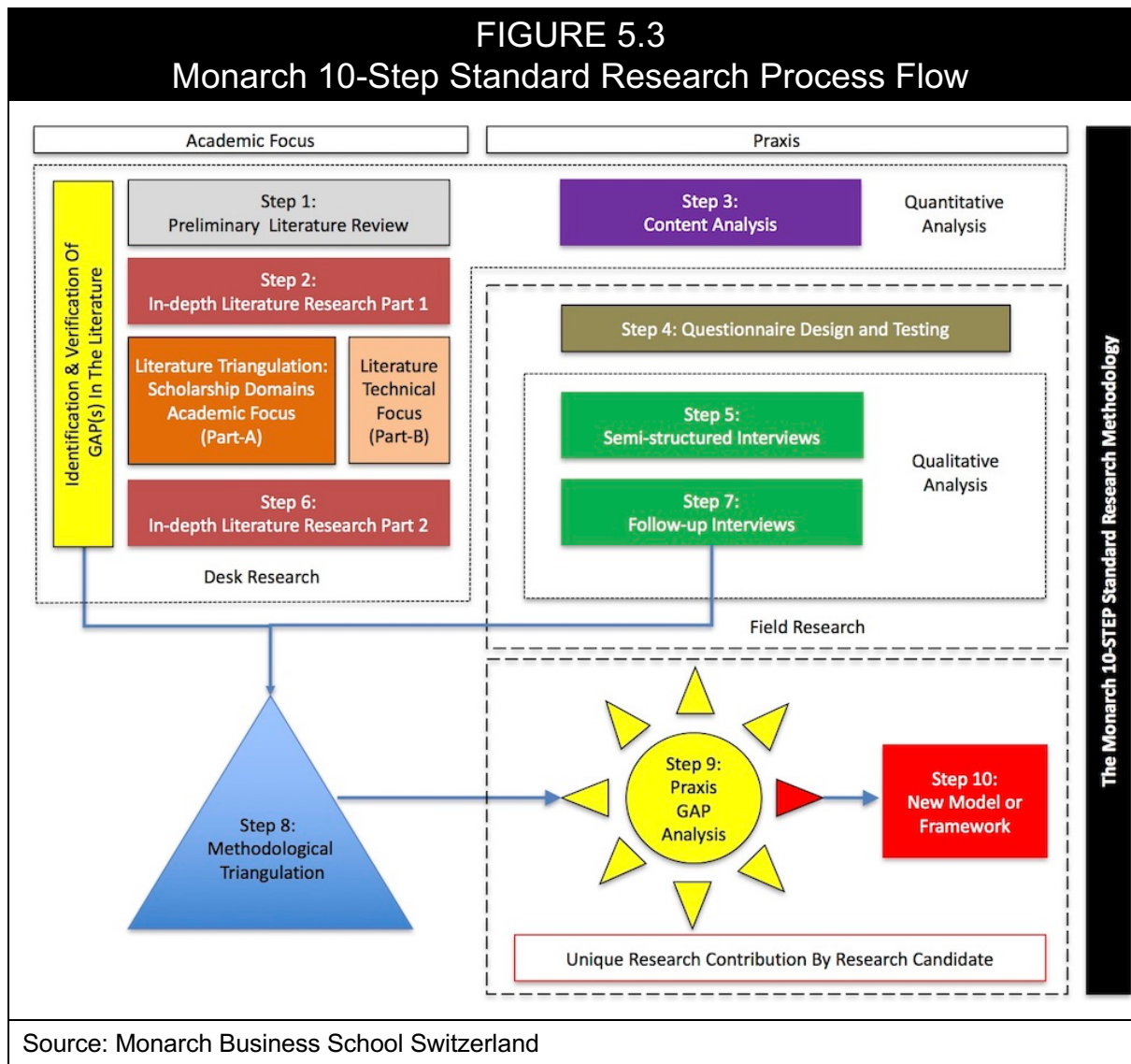
Figure 5.3 illustrates the steps within the Monarch Standardized Research Process Flow. The steps that will be followed within the contemplated research are:

STEP 1: PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

The research begins with a survey and review of the works of the seminal authors within the academic scholarship domains, being: Theories of Entrepreneurship, Theories of Social Justice, and Theories of Motivation. The

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preliminary literature review provides a framework to the contemplated research, identifies key concepts and theories, and develops a better understanding of the nexus of the academic scholarship domains.



STEP 2: IN-DEPTH LITERATURE REVIEW – PART 1

An in-depth review and critique of the works of the seminal academic authors and quasi-academic works within the three aforementioned academic scholarship domains will be completed to provide a solid academic foundation

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to the contemplated research. The “Gap in the Literature” will be presented and clearly identified in relation to the provisional research question.

STEP 3: CONTENT ANALYSIS

An analysis based on data obtained from annual reports, white papers, supporting commercial documents and other commercial data sources will be examined. Information found in professional journals, published manuscripts and governmental and non-governmental source documents will be reviewed.

STEP 4: QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN & TESTING

The development of the interview questionnaire will be informed by the review of the academic literature and technical documents. The interview questionnaire will be tested with several volunteers in advance of the interviews to perfect the document from a flow and timing standpoint and ensure that questions are clear, concise and have a direct bearing on the focus of the contemplated research.

STEP 5: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW PROCESS

All interview participants are expected to be knowledgeable with respect to the contemplated research. A total of 70 face-to-face interviews will be conducted with participants representing a sample from each selected stakeholder group, see Section 5.1. Interviews are expected to be 30-45 minutes in length and will be recorded electronically or manually. Telephone or Skype interviews will be used when face-to-face interviews are not possible.

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STEP 6: IN-DEPTH LITERATURE REVIEW – PART 2

To add more specificity and currency to the research analysis, a second in-depth literature review will be completed. The Part 2 literature review will also be informed by the interview responses from Step 5.

STEP 7: FOLLOW-UP INTERVIEWS

To achieve a more specific view informed by the first interviews and the second literature review, a sub-set of 30 respondents representing a sample from each selected stakeholder group, selected from the first-round interview sample, will participate in follow-up interviews. The timing and interview protocols will be similar to those listed in Step 5.

STEPS 8 AND 9: TRIANGULATION OF THE DATA AND GAP ANALYSIS

A triangulation of the research data informed by the literature review, content analysis and interview responses will be completed. This will assist in determining whether the existing academic knowledge is congruent with the practical application in the field. The result of this analysis should determine whether a Praxis Gap exists between the academic (theoretical) and the practical (applied) domains.

STEP 10: DEVELOPMENT OF NEW CONCEPTUAL MODEL OR FRAMEWORK

Building on the Gap Analysis completed in Step 9, an analysis of the existing models and frameworks within the academic domain will be considered. The analysis will evaluate whether the frameworks or models sufficiently address the requirement for practical application within the industry or whether they should be improved or modified.

5.4. The Data Analysis

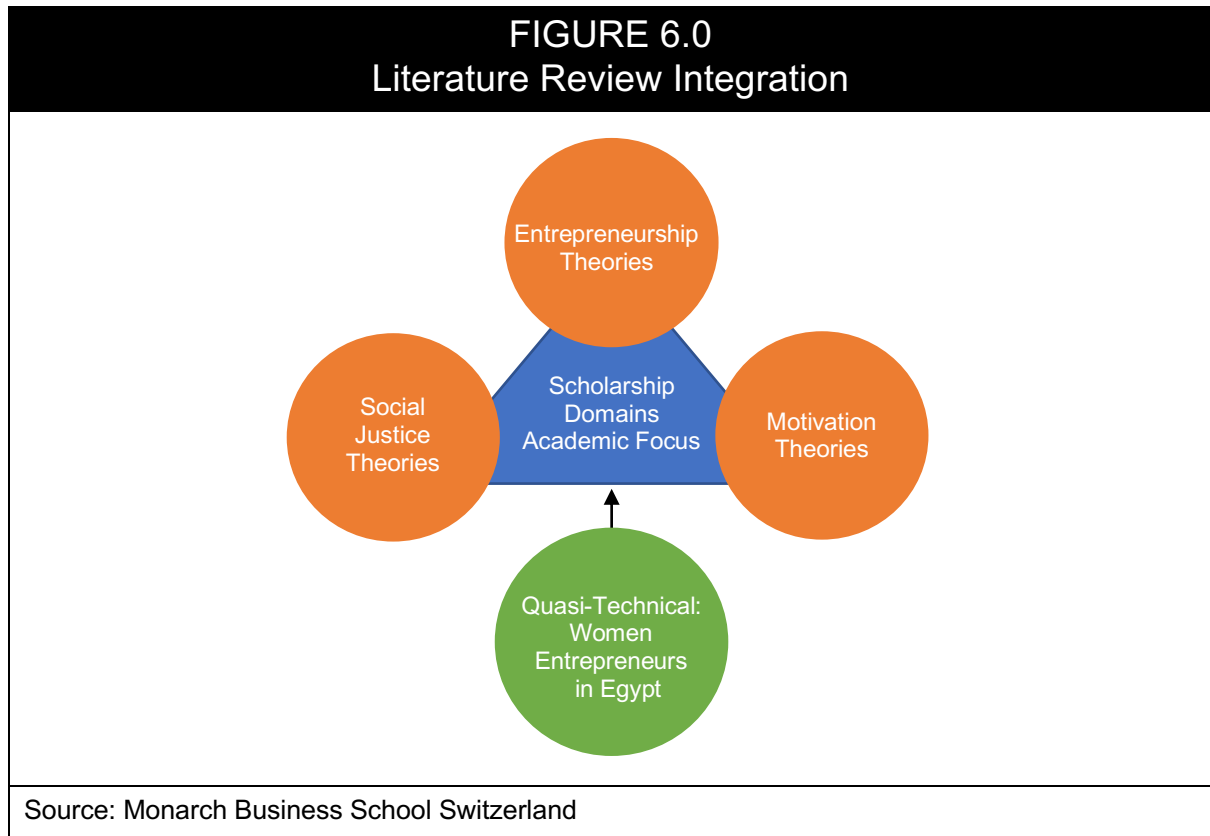
Data will be collected via semi-structured interview questionnaires that will be tested to ensure question accuracy and relevance. The Meso-Level analysis will include interviews with leaders and managers of 25 organizations that support women entrepreneurs in Egypt, and a non-probability purposeful sample of 45 women entrepreneurs will be undertaken in the Micro-Level analysis. Interviews will be conducted face-to-face in Arabic. The interviews will be recorded, and transcripts will be translated to English. Collected data will be transcribed and coded via MAX QDA Software to construct research themes. Data will be checked and cross checked for errors and consistency of coding as recommended by Miles (1994).

5.5. Ethical Considerations

Informed consent and the continuing voluntary nature of participation will be required for the research. Anonymity will be granted to participants and responses will be kept confidential. No vulnerable individuals will be involved in the study, i.e.: minors, non-literate individuals, or individuals with a disability.

6.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

As illustrated in Figure 6.0, an integrative literature review approach will be the basis upon which the theoretical framework is structured. The nexus of the contemplated research will be based on an analysis of the intersection between the theoretical domains of Entrepreneurship, Social Justice, and Motivation.



Quasi-technical research will be conducted by reviewing industry publications to better understand the dynamics of the ecosystem for women entrepreneurs in Egypt.

6.1. Entrepreneurship Theories

Although scholars have not yet constructed a universally accepted definition of entrepreneurship (Leunbach, 2021), Shane (2012) proposes a generally accepted description as “the identification, evaluation, and exploitation of opportunities” (p.12). According to Packard (2017), entrepreneurship is “not likely to come from a faithful adherence to the predominant meta-theories. A paradigm shift may be required” (p. 536). Entrepreneurial theory has stemmed from several epistemologies, including psychology, sociology, and economics (Janssens & Steyaert, 2018; Herron, Sapienza, & Smith-Cook, 1992).

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6.1.1. *Psychological Entrepreneurship Theories*

Scholars have attempted to establish the psychological roots of business success (Hermawan & Loo, 2019). The focus of psychology on the individual as a key determinant of behavior has rendered its concepts highly relevant to entrepreneurial theory development (Khan, 2020; Muluk, Hudiyana, & Shadiqi, 2018). Prominent psychological theories informing entrepreneurial theory include:

1. *Drivers of Behavior Theories*: theories of entrepreneurship that highlight an entrepreneur's ambition and need for achievement as their most significant motivator for entrepreneurial activity. These theories include:

- *Innovation Theory* (Schumpeter, 1934), which tackles an entrepreneur's ability to improve their performance via innovation (Littunen, 2000).
- *Need for Achievement Theory* (McClelland, 1965), which is based on an entrepreneur's self-motivation, confidence and ability to overcome business obstacles (Kaijun & Sholihah, 2015; Tong, Tong, & Loy, 2011).
- *Theory of Personal Resourcefulness* (Rosenbaum, 1990), which explains how an entrepreneur's resourcefulness allows them to successfully launch, grow, and re-invigorate their businesses (Sonenshein, 2014).

2. *Entrepreneurship as a Function of Interaction with Society*: refers to theories that relate entrepreneurial motivation to finding a satisfying role within the society to which one belongs. According to Calza, Cannavale, & Nadali (2020), entrepreneurial behavior is a construct of the individual as well as cultural values. These theories include:

- *Status Withdrawal Theory* (Hagen, 1960), which identifies withdrawal from the society as an entrepreneurial driver, leading to the adoption of the roles of Retreatists, Ritualists, Reformists, and Innovators within communities.

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- *Theory of Entrepreneurial Behavior*, which considers the effect of present and past surroundings, physical conditions and social structures in shaping entrepreneurial behavior (Kunkel, 1965). Liu, Zhu, Serapio, & Cavusgil (2019) suggest that millennials' rebellion against traditional social systems may be the basis upon which disruptive entrepreneurial innovations are initiated.

The works of seminal authors including Everett Hagen, John Kunkel, David McClelland, Michael Rosenbaum, and Joseph Schumpeter will be assessed.

6.1.2. Sociological Entrepreneurship Theories

Society and culture play a significant role in determining the entrepreneurial patterns of its members (Liñán, Romero Luna, & Fernández Serrano, 2013). Creating a social climate with proper social values, training and educational opportunities, economic freedom, and institutional quality suitable for entrepreneurial development is essential for economic growth and job creation within a society (Castaño, Méndez, & Galindo, 2015). Sociological theories informing entrepreneurial theory stem from two theoretical orientations (Reynolds, 1992): *Social Consensus Theory* (Romney, Weller, & Batchelder, 1986), and *Class Conflict Models* (Marx, 1973) and include:

1. *Societal Subgroup Theories*: Entrepreneurship develops as a reaction to societal rejection of specific, often marginalized subgroups that seek recognition and status via entrepreneurial activities, as proposed in the *Theory of Reactive Subgroups* (Young, 1970), and *Pariah Entrepreneurship Theory* (Hoselitz, 1963).
2. *Social Approval Theories*: Entrepreneurship built to attain social acceptance and approval, as proposed in the *Cultural Theory of Entrepreneurship* (Cochran, 1965), *Theory of Social Culture* (Stokes & Hewitt, 1976) and *Theory of Religious Belief* (Weber M. , 1930).

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More recently, scholars have recognized the role of entrepreneurs in responding to the rapidly changing societal structures and needs, highlighting the significant role such changes and “unknowns” (Ansell & Boin, 2019, p. 1079) play in creating entrepreneurial opportunities (Ratten, 2020).

The works of seminal authors including William Batchelder, Thomas Cochran, Johan Hewitt, Berhold Hoselitz, Karl Marx, Paul Raynolds, A. Kimball Romney, Randal Stokes, Max Weber, Susan Weller, and Frank Young will be assessed.

6.1.3. *Economic Entrepreneurship Theories*

Human capital, with its capacity to develop efficient, effective, creative, innovative, and productive entrepreneurial activities has been identified as a main determinant of economic growth (Baltgailis, 2019; Vigliarolo, 2020). Profit maximization as a vital motivator for individual behavior is key to the economic foundation of entrepreneurial theory (Herron, Sapienza, & Smith-Cook, 1992). Significant theories include:

1. *Profit-Making Theories*: theories identifying economic profit as a significant motivator for entrepreneurial activity. Boettke & Sautet (2018) commend these theories for their ability to replace traditional process-focused approaches with a human-based economic analysis. These theories include:

- *Theory of Human Action* (Mises, 1949), which describes an individual’s constant pursuit of economic status improvement through purposeful behavior as a main driver to entrepreneurial activity.
- *Theory of Economic Incentive* (Harris, 1970; Papanek, 1967), which identifies an entrepreneur’s response to incentives as a driver to entrepreneurship.

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- *Theory of Profit* (Knight, 1926), which describes an entrepreneur as a specialist in reducing business risk and increasing profit.
- *Theory of Harvard School* (Harvard University, 1949), which capitalizes on the purposeful, initiative, and profit-oriented nature of entrepreneurial activity.

2. *Arbitrage Theories*: theories that highlight an entrepreneur's ability to exploit market gaps as the motivator for entrepreneurial activity. These theories include:

- *Theory of Adjustment of Price* (Kirzner, 1997), which identifies profit resulting from market price adjustments as the main role of entrepreneurs.
- *Theory of Functional Behavior* (Casson, 1982), which highlights entrepreneurial economic contribution via high-risk innovation projects.
- *Theory of X-Efficiency* (Leibenstein, 1978), which focuses on the ability of an entrepreneur to turn efficiency gaps into opportunities for innovation and improvement.
- *Theory of Market Equilibrium* (Hayek, 1946), where entrepreneurial profit is realized when market disequilibrium occurs.

The works of seminal authors including Mark Casson, Jeffrey Harris, Friedrich Hayek, Isreal Kirzner, Frank Knight, Harvet Lebenstein, Ludwig Von Mises and Gustav Papanek will be assessed.

6.2. Social Justice Theories

Social Justice is a social system in which: (1) Societal benefits and burdens are distributed based on an allocation principle via *Distributive Justice*; (2) Governing norms, procedures, and decision-making rules preserve basic rights, liberties, and entitlements of individuals and groups via *Procedural Justice*; and (3) People are

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treated with dignity and respect by authorities, society and their fellow citizens via *Interactional Justice* (Frankena, 1962). According to Wu, Wu, & Sharpe (2020), theories of social justice can be both the cause and the result of entrepreneurial behavior, as self-employment may occur as a reaction of individuals seeking justice and may result in social entrepreneurial activities that benefit the society as a whole.

Hayek (1976) identifies *Equity* as a possible precursor to entrepreneurial behavior, referring to justice based on the integration between the principles of *Equality*, *Need*, and *Merit* and describes the tendency of individuals to relate their inputs such as skill, ability, effort and contribution to punishments and rewards. The disparity of these elements causes frustration and motivates individuals to take action to restore equity (Adams, 1965; Frankena, 1962). *Relative Deprivation* and *Social Comparison* address people's frustration and engagement in collective action to change their unjust status when they perceive themselves as deprived relative to others (Davies, 1962; Gurr, 1970). The theories contribute to the understanding of why members of societies seek entrepreneurship as a vehicle to attain justice. *Deservingness and Entitlement* describe people's belief that they get what they deserve (Lerner, 1987), and can attribute actions to outcomes (Feather, 1994). Members of low-status groups such as women facing discrimination show a reduced sense of entitlement, leading to satisfaction with receiving less than others (Major, 1994), this may indicate why women entrepreneurs experience lower success rates within societies.

The *Social Role Theory*, which underlines the impact of social forces such as cultural norms, gender stereotypes and gender role expectations (Eagly & Wood, 1999; Wood & Eagly, 2002); and *Social Construction Theory*, which highlights the importance of individual differences over gender differences between men and

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women (Ahl, 2006; Tavis, 1992) highlight the effect of gender on achieving equal opportunity for women within societies. Cislighi & Heise (2020) emphasize the significance of “gender norms” enforced by the society and learnt and internalized by the individual (p. 410). Harper & Marcus (2018) suggest that gender norms may be a source of unequal opportunity distribution for women. Eckert & McConnell-Ginet (2003) highlight the importance of human “performance” regardless of physiological sex (p. 249), a concept proposed by Butler (1990) as “gender performativity” (p. 206). Few consistent gender differences have been identified in the skills, values, and abilities of women. Studies in the domain of *Gender Theory* challenge preset female-gender attributes such as passiveness, cooperativeness, and relationship-orientation, as inferior to masculine-gendered attributes such as aggressiveness, competitiveness, and regulation-orientation (Coates, 2003; Connell, 1995; Holmes, 2003; Mills, 1995). Similarly, according to Goldberg’s (1993) theory *The Big Five Personality Traits*, women exhibit a high level of “agreeableness” and “conscientiousness”, which contributes to their disadvantage in job opportunity and compensation in the workplace (Nyhus & Pons, 2012; Risse, Farrell, & Fry, 2018). Carter & Shaw (2006) highlight how previous research has focused on the degree to which gender affects entrepreneurship rather than whether it does.

Equality and inclusion are vital for women entrepreneurs, especially in low-income nations where they suffer from a lack of equal opportunity and social exclusion (Malach-Pines & Schwartz, 2008). Exclusion from educational and financing opportunities often results in a lower inclination of women to start their own business. Roomi, Rehman, & Henry, (2018) suggest that participation of women in the labor market is hindered by their inability to resolve their personal goals with the

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expectations of society. Studies indicate that working women are negatively affected by a lack of support from local regulatory and legal institutions (Naegels, Mori, & D'Espallier, 2018) and unequal access to resources (Estrin, Mickiewicz, Stephan, & Wright, 2019). According to the OECD report (2012), unequal opportunity in entrepreneurship is a complex phenomenon, pertaining to various cultural and economic barriers that create challenges for women entrepreneurs.

The works of seminal authors including J. Stacey Adams, Judith Butler, James Davies, Alice Eagly, Michel Foucault, William Frankena, Lewis Goldberg, Ted Gurr, Friedrich Hayek, and Wendy Wood will be assessed.

6.3. Motivation Theories

Motivation is identified as a key element in entrepreneurial success. Murnieks, Klotz, & Shepherd (2020) define motivation as “the set of energetic forces that originate within as well as beyond individuals to initiate behavior and determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration” (p. 115). Motivation is the instinct that drives behavior in pursuit of goals and objectives that entrepreneurs seek to accomplish by establishing their own businesses (Alam, Kousar, & Rehman, 2019; Kanfer, Frese, & Johnson, 2017). Maslow's (1958) *Hierarchy of Needs* suggests five need sets that are widely accepted as the basis for all human motivation. Ajzen (1991), Shapero & Sokol (1982) and Krueger & Brazeal, (1994) have declared “Intention” as the best predictor of entrepreneurial attitude and it has thus gained much scholarly attention. Ajzen (1991) signifies that motivation acts as a mediator to the transformation from intention into behavior. The *Theory of Planned Behavior* (Ajzen, 1991); the *Model of Entrepreneurial Potential* (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994); and the *Theory of the*

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Entrepreneurial Event (Shapero & Sokol, 1982) are accepted approaches to exploring entrepreneurial intention (Schlaegel & Koenig, 2014). Farooq, et al., (2018) highlight the importance of initiation of activity as an indicator of entrepreneurial behavior, rendering the understanding of motivation as a behavioral trigger relevant to academia and business practice. Scholars have categorized Entrepreneurial motivation into two broad categories:

1. *Push Motivation* (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Gilad & Levine, 1986), also referred to as *Necessity entrepreneurship* (Hessels, van Gelderen, & Thurik, 2008) and *Refugee entrepreneurship* (Thurik, Carree, van Stel, & Audretsch, 2008), in which an individual's main driver to entrepreneurship is to fulfil basic physiological, security and financial needs (Dencker, Bacq, Gruber, & Haas, 2021).
2. *Pull Motivation* (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Gilad & Levine, 1986), referred to as *Opportunity entrepreneurship* (Reynolds, Camp, Bygrave, Autio, & Hay, 2001), in which the incentive for self-employment is to capitalize on opportunities for quality of life improvement and fulfillment of more advanced needs such as belonging, esteem and self-actualization (Dencker, Bacq, Gruber, & Haas, 2021).

Other classifications include Stevenson's (1986) *Lifestyle entrepreneurship*, with specific emphasis on its significance as a motivator for women entrepreneurs; Minniti & Naudé's (2010) environment related *External motivators*, and entrepreneur-generated *Internal factors*; Cabrera & Mauricio's (2017) categorization of *Internal, Micro-environmental, Meso-environmental, and Macro-environmental* factors; and Ettl & Welter's (2010) *5M Model*: management; money; market; micro environment; and meso/macro environment categorization. Studies on entrepreneurship suggest that entrepreneurial intent is higher in developing countries than in developed countries (Polin & Golla, 2016). The *Cultural Dimensions Theory* (Hofstede, 1983)

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has been used to study entrepreneurial motivations and behavior across nations considering the diverse effects of individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance and masculinity-femininity orientations of different cultures on entrepreneurial intent and behavior.

The works of seminal authors including Icek Ajzen, Deborah Brazeal, Benjamin Gilad, Geert Hofstede, Norris Krueger, Philip Levine, Abraham Maslow, Albert Shapero, and Lisa Sokol will be assessed.

6.4. Quasi-Technical: Women in Entrepreneurship in Egypt

Limited research has been dedicated to exploring the factors influencing women in Entrepreneurship in Egypt as with other developing nations (Marlow & McAdam, 2015; Yunis, Hashim, & Anderson, 2019). There is an incomplete understanding of the factors that contribute to a lower number of women entrepreneurs in Egypt than the rest of the world (GEM, 2018; Shorbagi, Rizk, Kamal, & Sultan, 2017; United Nations Egypt, 2016). Industry research is needed to explore the factors affecting women entrepreneurs in Egypt. This includes a review of information published by various organizations such as: the World Bank, the United Nations (UN), the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the International Labour Organization (ILO), McKinsey Global Institute, Silicon Valley Bank, the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), the Egyptian Government, the Central Bank of Egypt (CBE), the Egyptian Center for Economic Studies (ECES), the Investors Service Center (ISC), the Social Fund for Development (SFD), the Egyptian Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency (MSMEDA), the National Council for Women (NCW), and various Egyptian Women's Rights Associations.

7.0 RESEARCH PLAN

The field research interview process is to be completed over a 3-month period from November 2022 to January 2023 for Phase I interviews and from April 2023 to May 2023 for Phase II follow-up interviews, after which the data will be analyzed, and the manuscript will be completed. Each interview will last a maximum of forty-five (45) minutes at a location and time that is suitable to participants.

8.0 RESEARCH TIMELINE

The contemplated research is expected to conclude over a 36-month period.

TABLE 8.0 Research Timeline													
		Year 1				Year 2				Year 3			
		Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4
PART A	Initial Literature Search												
	Main Literature Search - Part 1												
	Research Plan												
	Section 1 - Background												
	Section 2 – Supporting Literature												
	Content Analysis												
		Official Submission of Chapters 1, 2, 3 and Slide Presentation To Obtain Authorization To Continue On To Field Research											
PART B	Interviews Part 1												
	Main Literature Search - Part 2												
	Interviews Part 2												
	Section 3 - Synthesis												
	Section 4 - Recommendations												
	Manuscript Perfecting & Submission												
Source: UGSM-Monarch Business School Switzerland													

Table 8.0 illustrates the duration of each task anticipated within the research process. Although every effort will be made to implement the steps within the

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research timeline, variation in the plan may be encountered due to variables beyond the control of the researcher. Variables that may have a significant effect on the research timeline which are beyond the control of the researcher are resource availability and accessibility and availability of participants. These variables could result in a modification of travel schedules and prolongation of the field research stages.

9.0 RESEARCH BUDGET

The research will be privately funded. No additional resources or funding will be requested of UGSM-Monarch Business School Switzerland. No funds will be received from any public body in carrying out the contemplated research. The total budget of the research as exhibited in Table 9.0 is approximately 13,150 Euros. The budget is presently fully funded and research may begin immediately upon approval.

TABLE 9.0 Research Budget	
	In Euros
Books and articles purchases	1,500
Digital recorder and software purchases	650
Travel and accommodation expenses	5,000
Conferences, workshops & webinars	2,500
Article publications	3,000
Manuscript publication	500
TOTAL	13,150

10.0 RESEARCH PROPOSAL APPROVAL

The contemplated research has been approved by the Administration and the Candidate may commence the research immediately. The Candidate is not to deviate from the proposed research plan unless expressly confirmed by both the Supervisor and the Administration in written form.

Approved by The Administration on
04-April-2022 in Zug-Switzerland
By: Dr. Jeffrey Henderson, Ph.D.

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