THE IMPACT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION ON BUSINESS GROWTH

BY

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UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY - AFRICA

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Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the Degree of Masters In
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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution, or university other than the United States International University in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: ________________________  Date: _______________________

   Shamsa Omar Kassim (ID: 633796)

This project has been presented for examination with my approval as the appointed supervisor.

Signed: ________________________  Date: _______________________

   Dr. Joseph Ngugi Kamau

Signed: ________________________  Date: _______________________

   Dean, Chandaria School of Business
ABSTRACT

The general objective of this study was to establish the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses, focusing its attention on women entrepreneurs. The specific objectives of the research were to establish the extent to which the entrepreneur’s need for achievement impacts growth of the business. To examine how the risk-taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business. To determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise, and to investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business.

The study adopted a survey research design. The target population for the study were legally registered Kenyan MSMEs with a few comparisons to international MSMEs. Of these companies, a sample of 118 businesses was selected purposely and only 111 were filed and returned representing a response rate of 94% which was sufficient for the study. Data was collected for surveying by use of structured questionnaires self-distributed to the targeted population. The study employed Pearson’s bivariate correlation for analysis. Data collected were entered in SPSS and Amos software, which was also used to summarize the responses to give both the descriptive and inferential statistics. After analysis output were summarized using percentages and frequencies, then presented using tables and charts.

The findings indicate that the factors that motivate them towards entrepreneurship included innovation, self-confidence and fierce competition as well as intense focus. The need for achievement was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. To examine how the risk-taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business, the findings indicate that entrepreneurship risk taking, and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success, and higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs. Risk taking propensity was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth – meaning that an increase in risk taking resulted in increased business growth.

To determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise, the findings indicated that as an entrepreneur they are motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal. Self-efficacy was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. To investigate how an entrepreneur’s need
for affiliation impacts the growth of his business, the findings indicate that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers. Need for affiliation was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. Implying that an increase in need for affiliation resulted in increased business growth.

The study concluded that for any business to succeed there is a need to incorporate innovation, self-confidence and maintain fierce competition. Risk taking is important, although entrepreneurs take time to evaluate business situations across demography, younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs and female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty. Entrepreneurs are motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal, and this guides the choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties. In a dynamic business environment, it is necessary for them to exploit the opportunities. Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities and competences, thereby boosting the chance of success at start-up. Entrepreneurs possess a desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships which explains their high affiliate interest with their customers, and their employees’ needs.

The study recommends that women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and therefore need to shun the negative attitudes toward them. While younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs, the risks taken should be worth it. The business owners also need to seek professional information as it plays an important role in influencing risk attitudes. Also, entrepreneurs need education in order to equip themselves with the necessary abilities, competences, and thereby, boost their chance of success. Finally, to increase the firm’s growth entrepreneurs need to maintain positive and significant interpersonal relationships with their customers and employees, which in turn creates a high level of trust. Future studies should be done to determine why some entrepreneurs are successful and others not. Furthermore, more studies need to be undertaken to analyse the internal characteristics that lead to unsuccessful entrepreneurs.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Dr. Joseph Ngugi, for guidance, assistance and support during the entire period of the process. His wide knowledge, valuable comment and feedback given, has been of great value to me. Also, his understanding and patience have provided a good basis for the present research project.
I would also wish to acknowledge all the respondents I interacted with for their genuine responses to the questionnaires.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my husband and my family who gave me unlimited support, encouragement and motivation in ensuring I deliver a quality research paper.

May God Bless you.
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<tr>
<td>LDCs</td>
<td>In lower-developed countries,</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMEs</td>
<td>Small and Medium Sized Enterprises</td>
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<tr>
<td>WEF</td>
<td>Women Enterprise Fund</td>
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<td>BG</td>
<td>Business groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M &amp; A</td>
<td>Merger and acquisition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical package for social science</td>
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<tr>
<td>KIPPPRA</td>
<td>Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSME</td>
<td>Micro, Small and Medium Sized Enterprises</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In recent years, entrepreneurship research has focused largely on the environmental characteristics influencing firm-founding (Aldrich, 2000) and the characteristics of entrepreneurial opportunities (Christiansen, 1997). According to (Locke, 2000), all human action is the result of both motivational and cognitive factors, the latter including ability, intelligence, and skills. Also, he assumes that entrepreneurship is not solely the result of human action; external factors also play a role (e.g., the status of the economy, the availability of venture capital, the actions of competitors, and government regulations). The study of entrepreneurial motivation has several advantages including driving innovation and technical change, thus generating economic growth (Schumpeter, 1934). Second, entrepreneurial action is the process through which supply and demand are equilibrated (Kirzner, 1997). Third, entrepreneurship is an important process by which new knowledge is converted into products and services (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Fourth, entrepreneurship has become an important vocation and we need to understand its role in the development of human and intellectual capital (Zahra & Dess, 2001).

Therefore, entrepreneurship can be defined as the process by which “opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated, and exploited (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Entrepreneurial motivation and entrepreneurial orientation are two key determinants for performance which have been extensively investigated in the field of research. Entrepreneurial motivation can be explained as the drivers, or the reasons, for someone to start a business (Hessels, Van Gelderen, & Thurik, 2008). The motivations are often discussed in two distinct groups: first, opportunity motivations which are associated with “people who choose to start their own business by taking advantage of a perceived entrepreneurial opportunity” (Hechavarria & Reynolds, 2009). Second, necessity motivations are associated with “people who start a business because other employment options are either absent or unsatisfactory” (Hechavarria & Reynolds, 2009). These reasons can significantly affect the growth of small businesses. Entrepreneurial orientation on the other hand is defined as “as a set of distinct but related behaviours that have the qualities of innovativeness, pro-activeness, competitive aggressiveness, risk taking, and autonomy” (Pearce, Fritz, & Davis, 2010).
In lower-developed countries (LDCs), entrepreneurial motivation is commonly related to the need or pressure to start a business as a result of the small business owners’ unfavourable external circumstances, such as poverty. The poor economic and environmental situation in these countries forces individuals to struggle to survive and, therefore, pushes them to become entrepreneurs. Therefore, they start businesses to increase their income and create jobs for themselves in order to survive in such a harsh economic environment. In contrast to necessity motivated entrepreneurs, “opportunity entrepreneurs” are motivated by the achievement of success through exploiting opportunities for economic gain, and “opportunity entrepreneurship represents the voluntary nature of participation” (Acs & Varga, 2005). Entrepreneurial motivations such as the need for achievement, risk-taking, self-efficacy and drive are some of the dimensions that have recently gained attention from scholars seeking to understand the extent to which these aspects influence the growth of businesses.

Firm growth has long been a focus of entrepreneurship scholars and growth is often described as being synonymous with entrepreneurship (Sexton & Rivchum, 1989). There is a widespread belief that the success, growth and development of Small and Medium Sized firms (SMEs) are widely dependent on the behaviour and competence of an entrepreneur. Studies have shown that growth is a very complex and multifaceted process (Baum, Locke, & Smith, 2001), is not homogenous amongst business owners (massey, et al., 2006) and the path to growth can change over time (masurel & van, 2006). Some would argue that chance and entrepreneurial optimism play a major role in determining firm growth (Storey, 2011): this view has been challenged for not recognising recent developments in entrepreneurship research relating to the entrepreneur and the contexts in which they operate (Westhead & Wright, 2012).

According to most entrepreneurs, growth is an ideal and important aspect in the business ventures and lack of it is seen as failure. However, not all entrepreneurs develop strategies to enhance growth in their business. According to (Autio, 2005), statistics indicate that an extremely low percentage of entrepreneurs across the world expect their businesses to grow substantially in the next five years.

Business growth has different implications for different stakeholders. For the entrepreneur, growth is in terms of increase in personal wealth. The local community may benefit from growth in terms of increased activity and employment in the region. For the Government,
business growth is associated with increased tax revenues and researchers may view enterprise growth in terms of sales growth and employment growth, as a key indicator of business performance (Murphy, Trailer, & Hill, 1996). Scholars emphasize how high-growth firms relentlessly pursue new combinations of resources and economic knowledge (Schumpeter, 1934) and grow leveraging on resources that can be acquired or accessed in the marketplace (Hart et al., 1995).

Research has shown that firms can grow at different rates and with different patterns (Delmar et al., 2003). One possible explanation is that entrepreneurs are motivated differentially towards growth: previous studies have focused on understanding the influence of beliefs and motivation towards firm growth (Baum & Locke, 2004; Delmar & Wiklund, 2008; Wiklund et al., 2003), but have fallen short of understanding why some entrepreneurs are more motivated than others to grow their firms. Therefore, issues such as ‘What influences their motivations?’ and ‘What types of motivations (e.g. personal vs. profit maximisation) drive entrepreneurs’ choices?’ remain empirical questions.

Many psychological and sociological theories have been put forth by psychologists and sociologists to prove that these factors affect entrepreneurship (Suzana et al., 2013). According to McClelland (1961), the "need for achievement" is the inner concern which creates a desire to strive for success. This is confirmed by Paul Wilken who says that, "entrepreneurship becomes the link between need achievement and economic growth. Previous experiences may contribute to growth of entrepreneurial ventures. Habitual entrepreneurs who have failed previously may become more risk-averse in their next venture; this may lead to lower mean growth but also lower variability in growth (Ucbasaran et al., 2009). Cope (2011) argues that entrepreneurs who have experienced prior success and failure maybe more likely to recover more quickly and to pursue subsequent growth-oriented entrepreneurial activities (Ucbasaran et al., 2010).

The definition of a small-scale enterprise varies across countries, industries, agencies and authors. A business with a headcount of fewer than 10 employees is considered to be a micro business whereas that with a headcount of fewer than 50 employees is classified as small and a medium–sized is that with a headcount of fewer than 250 employees (Wanjiku, 2016). Berends et al. (2014) alluded that small firms are not miniature versions of large firms and their characteristics constitute particular strengths and limitations for product innovations. Reinecke (2002) points that SMEs tend to be more popular in developing
African countries accounting for 90 per cent of all enterprises and over 80 per cent of new jobs. This has come along with increased competition, technological breakthroughs and constantly changing customer tastes and preferences which demand strong market orientation (Shiu & Walker, 2007).

In Kenya, a survey carried out in 2008 showed that SMEs were responsible for 89.9% of new jobs created which are approximately 426.9 out of 474.5 jobs (Republic of Kenya, 2008). In 2009, SMEs contributed Ksh 806,170 million to the country’s GDP which is approximately 59%. Further analysis showed that Nairobi county achieved a 5.4% increase in SMEs in 2012 (Kenya, 2012). Despite the positive impact of SMEs, Kantor (2001) contends that these SMEs face a major problem of market saturation. Many entrepreneurs especially women are located in low value markets where there are barriers to entry and little room for growth (Kobia et al. 2015). Statistics state that three out five businesses fail within the first few months of operation (Kenya National Bureau of statistics, 2007).

Women entrepreneurship has been a subject of great interest in the past few decades. Schumpeter (1936) defined women entrepreneurs as women who innovate initiate or adopts and run a business. It has been a global uprising for women both socially and economically. In 2010, 104 million women in 59 economies which represent more than 52 per cent of the world’s population and 84 per cent of world GDP embarked on new venture creation and development. These self-employed women comprise between 1.5 per cent and 45.4 per cent of the adult female population in their respective economies (levie & hart , 2012). In the United States, women-owned firms contribute $3trillion to the economy. That translates into the creation and/or maintenance of more than 23 million jobs - 16 per cent of all U.S. jobs (NWBC, 2009).

Research findings further reveal that 28.2% of all businesses are owned by women but generate 4.2% of the country’s revenues. There are growing numbers of self-employed women in developed economies such as the UK and the USA (Carter & Shaw, 2006), and many of these businesses are highly dependent on the owner and her skills (Lerner et al., 1997). Women owned businesses account for 25 to 33% of all businesses worldwide. This percentage is higher in Africa at 40 to 50 and at 60% in some countries (Marcucci, 2001). Although African women entrepreneurs are playing an increasing role in diversifying production and services in African economies, fostering women’s entrepreneurship
Development is crucial for the achievement of Africa’s broader development objectives, including economic development and growth (Stevenson & St-Onge, 2005).

In Kenya, women-owned enterprises comprise 48 per cent of the total micro and small enterprises. However, the majority of these enterprises employ only the owner, and tend to be informal (Kobia et al. 2015). To encourage involvement of women in business, the Government of Kenya in 2007 established a Women Enterprise Fund (WEF). This institution was to develop more women owned SMEs and fund them (Kobia et al. 2015). Despite their immense contribution to the economy, women entrepreneurs face various obstacles in their entrepreneurial journey. Women business owners may be disadvantaged in their access to various entrepreneurial capitals, given their personal backgrounds and employment experiences and the socio-economic and cultural context in which their businesses operate (Carter & Shaw, 2006).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

According to the Austrian School of Economics, entrepreneurs are perceived as economic actors, and their activities are the driving force of economic development (Schumpeter, 1934). While there has been an extensive research on business growth, little studies have been done concerning entrepreneurial motivation and its effect on the growth of the enterprise. SMEs sector in Kenya is characterized by high mortality rate with over 60% fail each year and most do not survive to their third anniversary (Ngugi, 2013).

Global interest in women entrepreneurs has been growing (Marlow & McAdam, 2013) as the number of women entrepreneurs’ increases and women-owned businesses continue to contribute to employment creation and the development and growth of local economies (Monitor, 2011). While current studies have recognised heterogeneity amongst entrepreneurial motivations (Uhlaner & Thurik, 2007), many unanswered questions remain regarding the impact of macro national social values and cultural traditions, (Al Dajani & Marlow, 2010)

Despite studies indicating that male and females both have characteristics required for effective performance as managers, negative attitudes toward females still exist (Dubno, 1985). Traits attributed to women, such as emotionality (Goleman, 1988), gentleness, sensitivity, passiveness, and lack of logic, compose stereotypes that have been shown to be effective obstacles to employment, promotion, and salary increases (Heilman & Guzzo
In a study of bank loan officers’ perceptions of male and female entrepreneurs, (Buttner & Rosen, 1988) found that women were perceived as less entrepreneurial than men. Female entrepreneurs were evaluated significantly lower on dimensions related to leadership, autonomy and risk-taking propensity, readiness for change, endurance, and low need for support. Further, they were rated as more emotional.

Culture plays an important role in forming of relations and networks, and it also has an impact on the basic network model, which includes the actors, the activities, and transformation of resources, as well as the atmosphere where this takes place and the interactions involved (Fletcher, 2004). It is argued that Europeans have a more cooperative attitude, North Americans emphasize on power and conflict, while Asians are more connected in terms of relationships (Abosag, Tynan, & Lewis, 2002). In terms of Asia, Western entrepreneurs wishing to enter a new market like Pakistan would be confronted with an unknown cultural environment that could have a bearing on how to set up a business relationship (Rammal, 2005).

It is in this context that the current study sought to explore the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses. The study provides deep insight on factors that affect the individual’s motivation towards entrepreneurship and these include gender barriers, socio-cultural norms and religion. The study conducted interviews and collected data from both successful and not successful small-scale women entrepreneurs and drew conclusion on the problems faced by these individuals. Recommendations on what changes and improvements should be made are drawn at the end of the research paper.

1.3 General Objective
The general objective of this study was to establish the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of businesses, focusing its attention on women entrepreneurs.

1.4 Specific Objectives
The specific objectives of the research were as follows:

1.4.1 To establish the extent to which the entrepreneur’s need for achievement impacts growth of the business

1.4.2 To examine how the risk-taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business
1.4.3 To determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise.

1.4.4 To investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business

1.5 Significance of the Study
The results and outcomes of this study are expected to have beneficial impact on the following entities

1.5.1 Researchers and Academicians
This study aims to contribute to the already available literature on influence of entrepreneurial motivation on business growth. The paper will provide viable recommendations and suggestions on the knowledge gap identified in MSMEs sector.

1.5.2 Business practitioners
This study will provide a deep insight on the real practices in the current local and international markets. It will guide entrepreneurs on ways of managing their enterprises for sustainability as well as growth in different dimensions such as employees, customers, profits, revenue, liquidity and geographical locations.

1.5.3 The government and Financial policy regulators
The government and financial policy regulators will gain insight from this study thus enabling them to enhance their policies regarding funding of MSMEs and providing favourable regulations of business interactions within the country and beyond the borders.

1.5.4 Women Entrepreneurs
The outcome of the study will positively impact women entrepreneurs by providing viable solutions to the various bottlenecks they encounter in the business industry.

1.6 Scope of the Study
This study strictly focuses on legally registered Kenyan MSMEs with a few comparisons to international MSMEs. Data was obtained from reliable sources such as World Bank reports, Kenya Institute for Public Policy Research and Analysis, KIPPRA reports, Kenya
Bureau of Statistics and other relevant books and journals. The data collection period will be from May 2017 to July 2017.

1.7 Definition of Terms

1.7.1 Entrepreneurship


1.7.2 Entrepreneurial Growth

This is the process of developing an enterprise and working towards achievement of growth in the context of employees, customers, revenue, liquidity, profit, and geographic locations (Hisrich et al. 2008).

1.7.3 Entrepreneur

An entrepreneur is someone who marshals all resources necessary to produce and market a product or a service that answers a market deficiency (Leibenstein, 1968).

1.7.4 Women Entrepreneurs

As Schumpeter defined, women entrepreneurs are women who innovate initiate or adopt and run a business (Schumpeter, 1936).

1.7.5 Small and Medium Enterprises

A business that has not more than 50 employees with an annual turnover of between KSH 500000 and KSH 5 million with those in the service sector having a capital formation of between KSH 5 million and KSH 20 million, KSH 5 million and KSH 50 million for those in the manufacturing sector (Kenya micro, small and medium enterprises bill, 2011)

1.7.6 Entrepreneurial Process

The process of pursuing a new venture, whether it is new products into existing markets, existing products into new markets and/or the creation of new organization.

1.7.7 Innovation
A process of creating a better or more effective or more efficient processes and services or generating the ideas or culture that will breed this creativity (Crumpton, 2012).

1.7.8 Entrepreneurial Motivation

Internal and external factors that stimulate desire and energy in people to be continually interested and committed to a job, role or subject, or to make an effort to attain a goal

1.8 Chapter Summary

This is the introductory chapter where the topic in question is introduced and discussed in detail. The first section discussed is the background of the study where the problem that leads to the study is established. The problem statement is declared and discussed in details and the knowledge gap is pointed out. The purpose of the study/ the general objectives and the specific objectives are established which in this case is “The influence of motivation on small business growth”. The significance of the study is discussed in this chapter where all stakeholders that will be directly or indirectly affected by the research are clearly stated. The chapter further discusses the scope of the study; where and when the research will take place. Key words used in the study are defined with their references unambiguously stated. The following chapter will discuss various literatures and research findings available on issues concerning women entrepreneurship, their growth inhibitions their ability to access finances and markets and their entrepreneurial impact on the economy. The chapter will majorly base its content on readily available and reliable sources of literature.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter examined various literatures available on the intrinsic motivators that drive an entrepreneur to ensure the growth of his business venture. The main focus was to deeply indulge on the four main factors; an entrepreneur’s need for achievement, self-efficacy, risk taking propensity, recognition and status, and what effect these factors have on the growth of an enterprise.

2.2 Impact of Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement on Business Growth

2.2.1 Motivations for Entrepreneurship
In the words of (Price, 2011), understanding common characteristics and what motivates entrepreneurs to start and sustain their venture is important to understanding the entrepreneurial life cycle. By definition, “entrepreneurs are optimistic and idealistic.” They have great commitment, and a vision and passion that can be observed. According to research, most successful entrepreneurs are not those that are most talented, but those with the “entrepreneurial obsession” who see an opportunity and pursue it with profound existence. (Price, 2011) further states that entrepreneurs place an enormous value on creativity and are willing to take risks if they know they can influence the eventual outcome of the event. They are innovative, aggressive, self-confident, willing to work long hours, fiercely competitive, and intensely focused.

Current knowledge suggests that entrepreneurs are driven by several motivations, including economic gain and non-economic motives such as desire for achievement and independence, personal development, improved social status and contribution to community welfare. Governments that frequently foster and respect entrepreneurial activities in their countries motivate individuals to start their own businesses and prosper. Local governments foster entrepreneurship motivations through offering tax incentives to encourage business start-ups and by giving attention to entrepreneurial education and training (Etzioni, 1987). It is believed that culture influences the overall rate of innovation in a society and the behaviour of individuals pursuing entrepreneurship that is based on this innovation (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002).
For instance, individualism and low levels of uncertainty avoidance in national culture have been observed to be associated with an internal locus of control and increased innovativeness in prospective entrepreneurs (Mueller & Thomas, 2000) thus increasing an entrepreneur’s potential. (Shariff & Saud, 2009), indicate that attitude of individual to get involved in the field of entrepreneurship is driven by Push Factors and Pull Factors. The two authors argued that the Push Factors include frustration resulted from limited opportunities, economic down turn and dissatisfaction while Pull Factors consist of psychology and profit resulting from limited job opportunities and social mobility. Recent studies reveal that individuals are more likely to have strong intentions of starting a business and believe that they are personally capable of doing so if engaging in entrepreneurship would result in the achievement of entrepreneurial outcomes such as financial rewards, independence/autonomy, personal rewards and family security.

2.2.2 Demographic Gender and Culture and Entrepreneurial Motivation

A significant stream of international research has demonstrated wide variations in the practice of entrepreneurship among countries in terms of participation rates, types of entrepreneurial activities, motivations of individuals and effects on national economies (Wennekers, Uhlaner, & Thurik, 2002). These variations have been brought about by differences in cultural practices. According to (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002), culture influences the overall rate of innovation in a society and the behaviour of individuals pursuing entrepreneurship that is based on this innovation. Hofstede (1980) defines culture as a collective programming of the mind which differentiates on member group from the other or a group of people from the others. Culture can be seen to influence both the supply of entrepreneurs (e.g. the prevalence of motivated individuals and necessary resources) and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function (e.g. recognition and exploitation of opportunities)(Dave, 2014).

Dana (1995) found that culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially, and that subgroups can therefore exhibit markedly different entrepreneurial responses to the same environmental conditions. Behavioural psychologists point out that individual job performance is a function of ability and motivation originates from both internal and external stimulations. The motivations caused by push and pull factors stimulate the potential of an entrepreneur’s expectations. Push and pull motivational factors determine personal entrepreneurial behaviour, stimulate a
person’s expectations, and create the existence of entrepreneurial need, resulting in the formulation of entrepreneurial motivation (Hasni, Faridahwati, & Mohammed, 2012).

Valliere (2008) states that Entrepreneurship has no precise religion or culture as it slashes across all religions and exists in diverse socio-cultural contexts, each of which represents a symbol of global entrepreneurial behaviour. Religion certainly affects positively, personal values such as honesty, perseverance, bravery, foresightedness and general ethical standards (Altinay & Wang, 2011). At the highest level of social context, there is virtual consensus in the entrepreneurship literature that culture bears a profound impact on all facets of entrepreneurship in societies (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002). However, because culture is a fundamental, deep-seated social institution, its influence on entrepreneurship flows through numerous causal channels.

According to Davidsson (1995), the first theory as the aggregate psychological traits perspective which he emphasized that more people with entrepreneurial values in a society attract higher number of people to behave entrepreneurially. This approach assumes that low uncertainty avoidance and willingness to explore unknown situations characterizes an entrepreneurial society. The second theory, post-materialism goes hand in hand with the social value orientation between material and non-material life goals. This approach uses both the concept of scarcity and socialization to assess the value hierarchy between materialistic values (such as economic and physical security) and non-materialistic ones such as esteem, self-realisation and quality of life (Reneta, Isla, & Laura, 2016).

Over the past three decades, women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and new venture creation (Kickul, Wilson, Marlino, & Barbosa, 2008). Although female entrepreneurship and its social and economic importance are of increasing interest, the number of female entrepreneurs has increased significantly in recent years in both developed and developing countries. However, empirical evidence still indicates that the number of businesses owned by women is significantly lower than the number of businesses owned by men, and that twice as many men become entrepreneurs as do women (Acs & Varga, 2005).

Despite studies indicating that males and females both have characteristics required for effective performance as managers (Dubno, 1985), negative attitudes toward females still exist. Traits attributed to women, such as emotionality (Goleman, 1988), gentleness, sensitivity, passiveness, and lack of logic, are among the stereotypes that have been shown
to be effective obstacles to employment, promotion, and salary increases (Heilman and Guzzo, 1978). In a study of bank loan officers’ perceptions of male and female entrepreneurs, (Buttner & Rosen, 1988) found that women were perceived as less entrepreneurial than men. Female entrepreneurs were evaluated significantly lower on dimensions related to leadership, autonomy and risk-taking propensity, readiness for change, endurance, and low need for support. Furthermore, they were rated as more emotional as compared to their male counterparts. (Harry, 2007) points out that the labour market in the UAE is biased against women; when seeking employment, they risk being seen as challenging social expectations regarding the appropriate roles for men and women; therefore, employers are more likely to give men priority in employment, promotion and decision-making (Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011). As for the entrepreneurial experience, Emirati women considering an entrepreneurial career are more likely to be denied family support, as entrepreneurship continues to be perceived as a male job; moreover, women are denied access to informal networks and start-up capital, given the discriminatory practices of banks in the Arab countries (Corporation, Global partnership for financial inclusion and international finance, 2011).

2.2.3 Need for Achievement
According to McClelland (1961), although individuals have many needs, the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance. The need to achieve excellence motivates individuals to overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly as possible (Murray, 1938). The concept of need for achievement was first formulated by McClelland and his colleagues in 1958. They argued that individuals who exhibit high levels of need for achievement are more likely to engage in energetic and innovative activities as compared to those with low levels of need for achievement. (Mcclelland, 1961) argued that high need for achievement people should also prefer tasks that involve skill and effort, provide clear performance feedback, and were of moderate challenge or risk. McClelland hypothesized that countries with a higher mean level of need for achievement would show more entrepreneurial activity and economic growth than those countries with a lower mean level of need for achievement. He found a statistically significant relationship between a country’s average level of need for achievement and the subsequent economic growth of that country.
(Hackman & Oldham, 1975), argued that people with high growth needs will experience enriched job characteristics more positively and will respond more positively in terms of internal work motivation and performance than people with low growth need. Entrepreneurs with strong growth needs are capable of developing strong internal motivation when faced with challenges in their entrepreneurial journey. People having high need for growth seem to have a more proficient insight into reality, self, spontaneity, straightforwardness, problem-centering, the value of objectivity, autonomy, continual admiration, interpersonal relations, discrimination against means and ends, creativeness, personality integrity and overcoming of dichotomies (Hoffman, 1970). Individuals with high levels of need for achievement are more likely to value high performance and would therefore set challenging goals for themselves. This will in turn translate to increased productivity in their business ventures. Researchers demonstrate that group members who are relatively high in achievement motivation show more concern about group success (Zander & Forward, 1968) and groups composed of members with high achievement motivation solve complex problems more efficiently (Shaw & Harkey, 1976).

Nevertheless, varied investigations show that Europeans, in general, have categorical tendencies to participate in some corporations (for somebody else) instead of taking part in their own business (Jones and Nummela 2008). This tendency is typical for post-communist countries, within which the long-lived easiness of operating in an exceedingly state-owned firm has become dominant determinant in human behaviour (Jiangyong and Tao, 2008). Having this in mind, the drawback in our analysis is connected with questioning what are the psychological motivators and success factors of entrepreneurs in a developing country. Considering that entrepreneurs are very vital for the expansion and development of economies in countries where they operate their businesses, understanding their motivational and success factors may be an important topic. These two teams of variables have a substantial impact on development of entrepreneurial activities and on birth rate and growth of SMEs. Sadly, studies on this subject weren't conducted in satisfying amount in developing countries of South-Eastern Europe, up to recently (Zivkovic, Mihajlovic and Prvulovic, 2009; Zivkovic and Zivkovic, 2009).

Impact of entrepreneurs’ motivation on their success is a wide renowned topic in developed countries. Variety of studies was conducted to work out this relationship. Kuratko, Hornsby and Naffziger (1997) and Robichaud, mcgraw and Roger (2001) surveyed entrepreneurs from North America to establish what motivation classes cause business success. Findings
from their studies show that motivation of entrepreneurs falls into four distinct categories: extrinsic rewards, independence/autonomy, intrinsic rewards and family security. These four cluster of factors confirm the motivation level of entrepreneurs that successively have effects on their business success. One survey specializing in emerging entrepreneurs was conducted in the United States (Edelman, Brush, Manolova and writer 2010), and resulted in findings that offered explanations why emerging entrepreneurs need to launch a business are identical across the race, however there exist variations within the motivation to grow a brand-new venture between black and white aborning entrepreneurs. Blanchflower and Oswald (1998) conducted a survey during which they found that individuals who are self-employed reported higher levels of job and life satisfaction than staff.

Benzing, Chu and Kara (2009) in their study of entrepreneurs in Turkey, among alternative things, conferred a comparative result of diverse analysis on entrepreneurs’ motivating factors in several countries. as an example, they expressed that Swierczek and Ha (2003) in their study of Vietnamese little business entrepreneurs found that challenge and accomplishment were very vital motivators than necessity and security. In Romania, financial gain and job security desires were stronger motivators than self-complacency and personal desires (Benzing, Chu and Szabo 2005). On the other hand, entrepreneurs in India were most powerfully impelled by the will for autonomy and so to extend their financial gain (Benzing and Chu 2005). In Turkey, entrepreneurs are actuated to start their own business so that they may give security for themselves and their family and to extend financial gain (Ozsoy, Oksoy and Kozan 2001). Benzing, Chu and Kara (2009) conjointly bestowed analysis results from African countries. Ugandan entrepreneurs are driven by “making money” (Bewayo 1995).

A study of entrepreneurs in Republic of Kenya and Republic of Ghana (Chu, Benzing and McGee 2007) found that the strongest motivators were to extend financial gain and to supply employment to themselves. Roy and Wheeler (2006) found that microenterprise proprietors in West Africa were actuated by a need to satisfy basic psychological desires – food and shelter. Varied comparative studies of entrepreneurs and managers showed that entrepreneurs are moderately higher in accomplishment motivation than managers (Stewart and Roth 2007; Collins, Hanges and Locke 2004; Begley and Boyd 1987; Ahmed 1985; Lachman 1980). High level of accomplishment motivation is in line with the stress of entrepreneurial role that seems to draw in extremely accomplishment-motivated people owing to the potential to derive a lot of achievement satisfaction in an entrepreneurial
setting, a context that has the challenge, autonomy, and adaptability for accomplishment realization (Stewart and Roth 2007). Entrepreneurs are less strained by organizational systems and structures (Daily et al. 2002) and therefore the entrepreneurial role is less specialised, standardized and formalized.

Stewart et al. (1999) discovered that entrepreneurs, who are primarily growth-oriented, were higher in accomplishment motivation than were managers and small business owners, who were centered totally on creating current family income rather than growth, however the small business owners weren't considerably higher on accomplishment motivation than managers. The accomplishment motivation distinction between businesspersons and managers becomes far more pronounced once the entrepreneur has growth goals or once the entrepreneur is the founder of the venture. Motivation level for venture founders is likely owing to the circumstances related to founding. Venture creation seems to gift the kind of task challenge and lack of routine that draws highly impelled people (Stewart and Roth 2007).

2.3 Impact of Risk Taking Propensity on Business Growth

2.3.1 Risk Taking Propensity
Despite the variance altogether in the definitions of entrepreneurship, one common theme found within the entrepreneurship literature revolves around variations within the predisposition among entrepreneurs toward risk taking. Risk taking propensities dissent from business to business and from individual to individual, although it's clear that by lack of it, entrepreneurship wouldn't be an object of fascination to an equivalent extent it is today. Risk taking propensity might effectively be conceptualized as an individuals’ orientation toward taking possibilities in any higher cognitive process situation. The whole risk management in a business might be seen from numerous varying perspectives; strategic, tactical and operational risk management. The strategic focuses on risks from the business’ strategic goals that might embody new sorts of risks in itself (launching a brand-new product on a new market, new innovations, etc.). The tactical risk management aims to handle the plan of action choices of the business and thereby takes responsibility for handling the risks related to the yearly planning. The operational risk management is expounded to the daily operations of the business (Wendestam, 2008).

In entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success. Risk propensity can be explained as the entrepreneur’s general
likelihood of behaving more or less in a risky manner and how entrepreneurs evaluate the risk-return trade-off (Sitkin & Pablo, Reconceptualizing the determinants of risk behaviour, 1992) or the affinity for or tolerance of calculated risk (Dana, 2002). Several scholars have examined the impact of risk taking and risk perception on the outcomes of businesses. For example, (Sitkin & Weignart, 1995) show that higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs. (Palich & Bagby, 1995) found that entrepreneurs have a tendency to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs because they focus more on the opportunities of the situation than on the weaknesses and threats. In this way, the differences in risk perception among entrepreneurs can have strong impact on business outcomes.

The complexity of motivations is exhibited in cognitive dissonance and risk avoidance, both of which are strong motivators for entrepreneurs (Monsen & Urbig, 2009). Research on cognitive dissonance and the need to avoid failure (Cohen & Zimbardo, 1969) could be used to explain why entrepreneurs often do anything to avoid failure in their venture and why entrepreneurs show higher tenacity (Baum and Locke 2004). Moreover, research shows that individuals with high achievement needs and motivation for success will show greater cognitive dissonance the greater the probability of failure (Cohen & Zimbardo, 1969). This insight may help to explain why some persons agree to commit themselves to a high-risk venture whereas others do not. Research has found that, more than any other factor; it is risk taking that distinguishes the small business owner manager from the corporate manager. There is a measure of riskiness inherent in business ownership that is not necessarily present in the managerial role (Stewart et. al. 1999).

Norton and Moore (2002) conclude from their analysis amongst entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs that the two teams show no distinction on risk taking propensity, though they did notice proof for the hypothesis that entrepreneurs tend to assess risk a lot more favourably. Palich and Bagby (1995) additionally found that entrepreneurs typically read an equivalent business scenario more optimistically than that of managers. This may mean that the entrepreneurs are more susceptible to view an equivalent state of affairs as having additional positive attributes and a lot of doubtless positive outcomes compared to managers. In effect, this might imply that these people read the chance issue as being smaller in a specific scenario, than would managers.
2.3.2 Effects of Risk Propensity on Performance

A broad variety of studies realized that risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes, however, the scale and sign of the result of risk seizing performance is ambiguous. In their meta-analysis covering sixty studies Zhao et al. (2010) didn’t see proof of a major impact of risk propensity on performance. There is no accord on the sign of the impact (see Rauch et al., 2009). One reason for this lack of agreement could also be variations in definitions and measure of risk propensity. Another may be the fact that the construct of risk taking may be a complicated construct that needs a very elaborate approach as Sitkin and Pablo (1992) recommend. A variety of studies notice negative effects of risk propensity on performance. Naldi et al. (2007) realized that in family businesses, the propensity to require risk decreases performance. Tang and Tang (2007) conjointly notice a negative impact of risk propensity on performance. Tang et al. (2010) conjointly realize a negative impact for small corporations. They argue that this might be due to contradictory factors that cause a nonlinear relationship between risk propensity and performance. Lechner and Gudmundsson (2014) study the impact of risk propensity for small Icelandic companies and show that a high-risk propensity decreases differentiation processes and cost leadership strategies thereby lowering firm performance.

Thapa (2015) studied the role of risk propensity on microenterprise performance in Kingdom of Nepal and found no result. The perception of risk is an extra driver of risk taking [see Lumpkin and Dess, (1996), p.145; Sitkin and Pablo, (1992), p.12], but receives comparatively very little empirical attention (e.g., Randerson et al., 2016). We tend to argue that the mixture leads to the Entrepreneurial Orientation literature relating to risk propensity may perhaps be explained by the employment of a narrow idea of risk taking. Each risk propensity and risk perception have to be compelled, to be accounted for, once explaining firm performance. Variety of studies recommend that the idea of risk taking is more complicated and in addition to risk propensity, the perception of risk is vital as well (e.g., Boermans and Willebrands, 2012; Cressy, 2006; Dana, 1995; Gibcus et al., 2009; Gundolf and Jaouen, 2005; Kraus et al., 2012; Sitkin and Pablo, 1992; Willebrands et al., 2012).

Indeed, it’s how the businessperson perceives the chance instead of the chance itself that matters (Dana and Dana, 2005). Lower risk perception could also be the result of the entrepreneur’s framing of the business scenario, (e.g., Norton and Moore, 2006; Palich and Bagby, 1995). Willebrands et al. (2012) argue that this might cause a scarcity of risk
mitigation. In turn, poor risk mitigation is believed to cut back performance (Murmann and Sardana, 2013). Despite the recognised importance of entrepreneurs’ risk perception within the literature, its result on business outcomes has been minimally studied. Most empirical studies use of experimental styles and solely investigate the impact of risk perception on a single, predefined call (Forlani and Mullins, 2000; Norton and Moore, 2006).

Sitkin and Weingart (1995), as an example, show that higher risk perception results in less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs, but doesn’t analyse the impact on firm performance. The impact of risk perception may additionally differ in actual business set ups as entrepreneurship involves never-ending method of decision-making. Palich and Bagby (1995) noticed that entrepreneurs are inclined to gauge business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs because they focus a lot of on the opportunities of the case than on the weaknesses and threats. During this approach, the variations in risk perception among entrepreneurs will have robust impact on business outcomes. Varied studies within the entrepreneurship literature further highlight the importance of risk perception for entrepreneur’s start-up decisions (e.g., Arenius and Minniti, 2005; Forlani and Mullens, 2000; Simon et al., 2000).

Hormiga and Bolivar-Cruz (2014) show that among immigrants in Spain, the perception of risk influences the choice to become an entrepreneur. Robinson and Marino (2013) argue that certainty may deteriorate firm performance. They show that risk perception is a very important moderator for certitude, so creating an indirect positive contribution to entrepreneurial outcomes. During a closely connected study to our work, Willebrands et al. (2012) notice that higher risk perception is related to higher revenue among market salesmen in Nigeria.

### 2.3.3 Factors Affecting Risk Propensity

The demographic characteristics of executives is used as valid, albeit incomplete and general, proxies of executives’ cognitive frame (Hambrick, 2007). The demographic traits of project managers are therefore associated to their approach of constructing risk selections. As for age, young males or females take a lot of risks than older males or females. (Nicholson et al., 2005) also verified that risk propensity is reciprocally associated with age. As for gender, ladies are found to be more risk indisposed than men when facing gambling scenarios. Also, it's assumed that female project managers are accustomed to less risk taking. Numerous studies have been conducted to explore the magnitude of relative
risk aversion or risk taking, however, there is very little agreement and few generalizations to be determined from the present literature (Halek and Eisenhauer, 2001). Therefore, this study tries to explore the connection between demographic traits and risk propensity of entrepreneurs.

Personality traits are foreseeable characteristics of individual behaviour which may justify variations in actions of individuals in similar scenarios (Koe Hwee Nga and Shamuganathan, 2010). This analysis primarily uses the conception of the massive five model, particularly extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience. Sociability attribute is manifested by sociable, outgoing, positive perspective and assertive characteristics (Ciavarella et al., 2004), which creates a positive drive to risk-taking propensity and want for action. Agreeableness attribute issues the flexibility to foster social accord so as to take care of mutual trust (Llewellyn and Wilson, 2003). To a fault agreeable temperament could lead to compromising to realize acceptance and lower risk-taking propensity (Koe and Shamuganathan, 2010). Conscientiousness is said to an individual’s conscientiousness, responsibility, determination, which can promote their responsibility at work (Ciavarella et al., 2004). Emotional stability represents individual variations in adjustment. People who are emotional stable may be characterised as confident, clam, and relaxed (Zhao and Seibert, 2006).

Openness to experience could be a temperament dimension that indicates that people tend to seek new experiences and explore novel concepts (H. Zhao and Seibert, 2006). Individuals who are high on the dimension of openness tend to be versatile, creative, and often face challenges and show creative thinking (Llewellyn and Wilson, 2003). It is considered a psychological feature stimulant for risk seeking, chartered as acceptance of experimentation, tolerance of the uncertainty, modification and innovation. Abundant analysis has examined the link among temperament attribute, risk propensity, and entrepreneurial standing (Miner and Raju, 2004; Nicholson et al., 2005). The link between risk propensity and big-five model temperament is but debatable (Zhao and Seibert, 2006). Restricted analysis has been conducted to explore the connection between temperament and project managers’ risk propensity. So, it’s necessary to check the connection in entrepreneurs.

Professional information and scope of data all play important roles in influencing contractors’ risk attitudes within the Chinese housing industry (Wang and Yuan, 2011).
Thus, it's thought of to be vital for the project manager, who is the main individual liable for the entire construction project, to possess a decent knowledge of all projects. Project managers with adequate data are seemingly more assured in their decision-making, so changing into more risk taking.

2.4 Impact of Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy on Business Growth

2.4.1 Intrinsic Motivators of Entrepreneurs and their Impact on Growth of Business

Intrinsic motivation is defined as “the motivation to work on something because it is interesting, involving, exciting, satisfying, or personally challenging.” This is the opposite of being extrinsically motivated, which means being motivated by expected evaluation, surveillance, competition with peers, dictates from superiors, or the promise of rewards. Motivation can be either intrinsic or extrinsic, or both. Intrinsic motivation refers to a personal interest in the entrepreneurial task as seen in studies on multidimensional Achievement in entrepreneurs (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). Internally, entrepreneurs may be motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal, whereas externally, they may be motivated to obtain wealth and status.

The idea that an individual engages in entrepreneurial behaviours because of the need for stimulation (a form of intrinsic motivation) is not revolutionary, but the fact that serial entrepreneurs do this habitually may provide some interesting insights into such behaviour. Once an entrepreneur has had the stimulation of starting a firm, they frequently return to that behaviour because of intrinsic motivation and the internal and external rewards they received doing that behaviour in the past. They might persist in trying for internal reasons even if they have never been rewarded externally through a successful venture. They reduce the cognitive dissonance of perceived possible failure by believing they can be successful this time.

Finally, external motivations or rewards would include relatively intangible things such as status, power, social acceptance, etc., with the more tangible eternal rewards being money, stock options, and other forms of compensation (Carsrud & Brännback, 2011). Entrepreneurs do what they love, and they love what they do. In this chapter, four intrinsic variables and how they impact business growth will be discussed in detail.

2.4.2 Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy

In an entrepreneurial context, self-efficacy can be defined as an individual’s confidence in his or her ability to succeed in entrepreneurial roles and tasks (Chen, Greene, & Crick,
Entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations, and effort, as well as perseverance when entrepreneurs face difficulties (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) and it plays an important role in the development of an intention to establish and manage a new venture (Kickul, Wilson, Marlino, & Barbosa, 2008). Research has shown that individuals with higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy tend to exhibit higher entrepreneurial intention. The self-efficacy construct is appropriate for the study of entrepreneurship because of its nature: it is a task-specific construct that includes an assessment of confident beliefs an individual has about internal (personality) and external (environment) constraints and possibilities, and it is close to action and action intentionality (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994).

Scholars such as Shane et al. (2003, p. 267) have argued that an entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is likely to “exert more effort for a greater length of time, persist through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task.” (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) extend (Bird, 1988) model of entrepreneurial intentions where they proposed that self-efficacy was an important mediator in determining both the strength of entrepreneurial intentions, and the likelihood that those intentions would result in entrepreneurial actions. (Rauch & Frese, 2007) showed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity therefore confirming that entrepreneurs with higher self-efficacy have higher entrepreneurial intentions.

The theory of self-efficacy was advanced by Bandura and his colleagues (Bandura, Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency, 1982) to explain individuals’ variability in attaining goals. Individuals with different levels of self-efficacy beliefs are expected to systematically differ in the amount of effort they spend on goal-directed tasks, the magnitude of coping activities they initiate to overcome impediments, and the degree to which they maintain persistent goal pursuit despite obstacles (Bandura 1997). Individuals have different levels and contents of self-efficacy and differ in the amount of effort they expend on goal-directed activities. Research has found that self-efficacy beliefs influence coping with change, commitment and performance which are of relevance for entrepreneurship because entrepreneurs face considerable uncertainty and obstacles in achieving desired goals.

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy includes at least two dimensions: the type of goal beliefs
(task/outcome), and type of control beliefs (positive/negative) that exist in the context of business start-up processes. Entrepreneurs are unlikely to view tasks independent of outcomes, but they rather manage tasks in a way to maximize outcomes. In addition, being self-efficacious means that one is confident about both his/her capabilities to attain success as well as capabilities to control negative thoughts about failure. During the process of establishing a new business entrepreneurs experience both positive and negative thoughts because the odds for a real business success and/or failure are high (Mateja, Joakim, & Mellisa, 2009). Several authors have explained why so many entrepreneurs lack motivation of trying again when their businesses fail. One possible reason is that the entrepreneurs may be so engrossed in the negative thoughts that arose from experience that they are unable to learn from the mistakes they made. Therefore, this makes them vulnerable and may lose the ability to control the environment. To the contrary, too much positivity under difficult circumstances may lead to the entrepreneur becoming too confident which harms the business activities rather than cause improvement.

2.4.3 Factors affecting Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy

Personality refers to behavioural pattern that are developed primarily throughout early life. An argument positing that entrepreneurial career selection in some folks might be derived to their temperament type continues to be debatable. However, it's changing and becoming more vital in entrepreneurship that focus is paid to personality. Variety of studies have additionally established that there is relationship between personality varieties and entrepreneurial intention (Obschonka et al., 2012; Zarafshani & Rajabi, 2011). On the far side entrepreneurial intention, it has conjointly been stressed that venture start-up and business success rely on temperament type (Halim et al., 2011; Obschonka et al., 2013). Prieto (2011) believes that individuals with a proactive temperament are susceptible to develop into social entrepreneurs due to their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities. Entrepreneurs acknowledge and exploit opportunity. Recognition of opportunities may be seen as an attribute, an equivalent factor with exploitation of the opportunities considering the danger related to it. Dehkordi et al. (2012) showed that there are variations within the personality attribute of entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs based on bound traits (Need of accomplishment, Tendency to risk, internal locus of control, Certainty, Tolerance of ambiguity, Innovativeness). The study highlighted that entrepreneurs have some essential psychological characteristics that result in the manifestation of specific temperament traits.
Zarafshani and Rajabi (2011) posited that in coaching entrepreneurs, educators ought to take into consideration the temperament variations in learning varieties of potential entrepreneurs. Ancient trait theories have identified varied models, the foremost well-liked ones being the three-factor model and the big Five’ factor model. However, the massive five temperament classification in recent years has gained a lot of attention in studies of entrepreneurial temperament because it classifies totally different temperament traits into conscientiousness, socialness, openness to experience neuroticism, and agreeableness. Over the years the big five temperament traits are seen as wide acceptable constructs of personality traits. Though this has not been without challenges from several quarters, the big five personality traits continue to gain the attention of researchers in several fields. Variety of studies have tried to look at the link between the big 5 temperament traits and entrepreneurial behaviour (Abdul et al., (2012); Ahmed et al. (2011); Khalafi, Razavi, & Behzadian, 2011). The tendency to become an entrepreneur may be examined through the final framework of the big 5 model (Shane, 2010). Wilfling and Silbereisen (2011) believe people tend to be interested in the career that suits their personality attribute and other people with high scores on personality traits related to entrepreneurial behaviour can inevitably opt for entrepreneurship as a career.

Entrepreneurship education has been connected to extend in entrepreneurial self-efficacy of potential entrepreneurs (Chell, 2008; Gürol & Atsan, 2006; Wilson, 2007). However, entrepreneurial self-efficacy among engineering and science students remains low compared with those of business students. This might result to alternative factors outside entrepreneurship education. Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the abilities necessary to achieve business. With perceived ability to achieve business after getting the mandatory skills through entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial intention of scholars are found to have accumulated (Hamidi et al., 2008). With abundant attention being paid to venture creation and tiny business management, it's been advocated that entrepreneurship education be inculcated into each program in educational activity (Gürol & Atsan, 2006; Pittaway & Cope, 2007). A substantial quantity of literature has been printed on entrepreneurial intention. These studies have established positive relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intention (Naktiyok et al., 2010; Sánchez, 2011). Bernstein & Carayannis, (2012) additionally found that entrepreneurial intention among non-business students emerge as a results of entrepreneurship courses offered. Entrepreneurship education increases competences,
thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up (Elmuti, 2012).

Most significantly, family plays a vital role in the career alternative of an individual. A number of the foremost convincing proofs indicating the influence of entrepreneurial role models on entrepreneurial development are given in previous analysis studies on families of entrepreneurs. Scherer et al., (1989) argued that folks play a vital role in influencing the educational process of their youngsters. The impact of the family socialization surroundings, beliefs and practices on how kids learn new ideas is critical. Children whose folks are self-employed are found to either start new ventures or continue the running of the private corporation as a career (Díaz-Casero et al., 2009; Leaptrott & Mcdonald, 2008). According to Carr & Sequeira (2007), previous participation in family owned business exerts pronouncedly positive influence on entrepreneurial intention. Competency gained within the process and perceived support from relations boost their confidence and therefore, their intention. One among the key determinants of recent firm formation is that the presence of a role model within the family, who in several occasions offer the required emotional supports at the developmental stage of the new venture (Arregle et al., 2013; Brixy, Sternberg et al., 2012; Chell & Baines, 2000).

Scherer et al. (1989) stressed the role of family backgrounds, beliefs and customs within the learning method of youngsters and maintained that the social surroundings of young ones incorporates a vital influence on their entrepreneurial attitudes particularly those impressed upon them by their folks. Students from homes that have family businesses are found to be more assured regarding their ability to successfully run a business venture (Hallak et al., 2012). These students have attained these entrepreneurial characteristics as a result of constant interaction with their folks running the business. Also, Ajzen's (1991) theory of planned behaviour (TPB) reveals that subjective norms could be a robust predictor of intention. In keeping with Byabashaija & Katono (2011), subjective norms can be outlined as a measure of the peer and social group expectations placed on an individual with regards to conformity to bound behavioural pattern. Perceived support from family and friends can boost their interest in entrepreneurship and can eventually directly or indirectly influence their entrepreneurial intention. In the meantime, Byabashaija & Katono (2011) maintain that in situations wherever friends and family expect graduates to take up an employment after graduation, perceived family support is weak for career selection in entrepreneurship, therefore leading to low entrepreneurial intention.
2.5 Effect of Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation on Business Growth

2.5.1 Need for Affiliation

Researchers believe that people possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships. People with a high need for affiliation desire to spend maximum time preserving social relationships, joining groups and wanting to be loved. Hill (1987) identified four fundamental reasons behind individuals’ desires for social contact: positive affect; attention or praise; emotional support; and social comparison. Generally, individuals with high affiliate needs are not concerned with task accomplishments unless they are instrumental in building interpersonal relationships (Atkinson & Reitman, 1956). (Boyatzis, 1974) concluded that it is the approach component of certain individuals’ affiliate concerns that enables them to be effective helpers and managers.

People with high need for affiliation try to avoid conflicts, and as they tend to do everything to sustain the good will of others make exceptions to the rules based on the needs of their followers (McClelland, 1975). These entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings. Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers’ and employees’ needs, welfare and development. They support and empower them and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust. These individuals seek to work towards the firm’s objectives together with their subordinates and can see a person’s performance independent of the relationship. Also, they provide them with feedback (Boyatzis, 1979).

According to existing literature, businesses owned by women are usually small because of limited capital. Thus, may not be as good as large corporations when it comes to fulfilling affiliation needs. Studies have shown that individuals with a moderate need for affiliation are likely to be effective entrepreneurs (Boyatzis R., 1974). With a moderate affiliate motive, women entrepreneurs may be motivated to build good working relationships with their co-workers. The higher the level of an individual’s affiliation, the more the network he/she creates thus leading to greater awareness of his/her business venture. In turn, this attracts potential investors, donors and customers who will increase the productivity of the firm.

In networked organizational forms like business groups (BGs), affiliated companies are joined by economic and social relationships, like family, kinship, ethnic, or relationship
ties (Granovetter, 1995; Khanna & Rivkin, 2001). Traditionally, BGs have dominated the economies of rising markets, like Republic of India, Republic of Korea, Taiwan, and numerous Latin American countries (Khanna & Rivkin, 2001; Leff, 1978). Their effects on firm performance (Khanna & Rivkin, 2001), innovation (Lee, Lee, & Gaur, 2017), and internationalization (Elango & Pattanaik, 2007; Gaur, Kumar, & Singh, 2014) are well documented. Above all, students argue that BGs are critical for filling voids within the economic establishments of imperfect markets for labour, capital, technology, and so forth (Guillen, 2000; Khanna & Rivkin, 2001). More recent studies debate whether institutional transitions in rising economies have attenuated these affiliation benefits (Chittoor et al., 2015; Gaur & Delios, 2006). We tend to argue that even with such institutional developments, BG affiliation continues to confer benefits to connected companies, within the type of resources and superior capabilities in managing heterogeneous organization (Lee & Gaur, 2013). These advantages are notably helpful when related to companies have interaction in M & As, granting them distinctive competitive benefits over independent companies, once they move to derive the advantages from their M & As.

2.5.2 Resource Based View and Business Groups (BGs)

The resource-based view (RBV) historically emphasizes the role of possession or management over resources as the primary means to make value from strategic activities (Barney, 1991), such that Amit and Schoemaker (1993: 35) outline resources as “stocks of obtainable factors that are in hand and controlled by the firm.” Building on the RBV, a growing stream of analysis advances the conception of an extended RBV (Cao & Zhang, 2011; Dyer & Singh, 1998), during which access to resources, assets, and skills obtained through external linkages could be a crucial determinant of a firm's competitive positioning. On the far side network ties, studies of alliance portfolios highlight the importance of network resources for firm performance (Gulati, 2007; Lavie, 2007), and Yamakawa, Yang, and Lin (2011) argue that a firm's explicatory and exploration alliances enhance its performance. As a result of BGs represent salient network forms in rising economies, examining the impact of BG affiliation on M & A performance may facilitate extend network theories and therefore the resource-based read even more (Lavie, 2006). A key to M & A success is whether or not the acquiring firm will notice potential synergies, net of any premium it pays. That is, actual worth creation represents the distinction between the advantages from the expected synergies and therefore the cost of the acquisition (or deal
worth, which has the acquisition premium) (Rappaport & Sirower, 1999). The success of an M & A deal stems from a firm's artistry in managing each ex-ante and ex-post challenges in managing the deal (Malhotra & Gaur, 2014).

The ex-ante issues primarily embody target screening and selection, due diligence, choice of equity possession and premium, and payment mode. The substantial data imbalance in M & As exasperates ex-ante target selection challenges. Furthermore, the multi-domain network structure of BGs may alter affiliated companies to make the newest opportunities (Lamin, 2013; Singh, 2011). With its pool of management experience within the kind of a bunch management cadre, the BG conjointly provides managerial services (Khanna & Palepu, 1997), which might mitigate ex-ante target screening and choice, negotiation, and due diligence difficulties. Even the danger of overpayment decreases for BGs, as a result of their centralized higher cognitive process encourages less biased due diligence for a target firm. As Bhaumik and Selarka (2012) noticed, targeted ownership in the hands of company administrators reduces manager–owner agency conflict and improves post-acquisition performance. With relation to the ex-post challenges, the RBV suggests that BGs represent repertoires of distinctive resources and capabilities (Guillen, 2000).

Following an M & A deal, such network resources will facilitate the acquirer firm to use opportunities which may not be obtainable to standalone companies (Manikandan & Ramachandran, 2014). For these edges, it's vital to classify M & A deals as either connected or unrelated and contemplate the affiliation benefits in every case. First, for connected deals, value creation stems from the realization of cost and revenue synergies (Scherer & Ross, 1990). Value synergies materialize comparatively easily; revenue synergies are tougher and take longer (Rappaport & Sirower, 1999). BG-affiliated companies will leverage the most effective operational practices across their network to leverage the quick edges of price reductions. For revenue synergies, that normally need cross-selling, the firm needs the power to make new growth opportunities by recombining resources from its own and the target companies (Cullinan, Le Roux, & Weddigon, 2004; Zollo & Meier, 2008). For this purpose, access to group-wide talent and technology square measure instrumental for encouraging product or service innovation (Kim & Lui, 2015; Singh & Gaur, 2013).

Moreover, the reputational capital of the BG helps legitimise new innovations, reducing the danger related to product or service innovations and thereby increasing the probability of revenue synergies (Belenzon & Berkovitz, 2010; Choi, Lee, & Williams, 2011). In
addition, the political capital of the cluster would possibly prompt approval and support
from government agencies, that is vital for managing external dependencies and
uncertainties (Park & Luo, 2001). Second, for unrelated deals, the belief of social control
and monetary synergies from diversification creates additional worth for the acquirer (Seth,
1990). As a result of a BG-affiliated firm, it has access to a various pool of social control
artistry, it’s possible it will manage the unrelated businesses more effectively (Mayer,
Stadler, & Hautz, 2015). Whether or not connected or unrelated, several M & A deals seek
to accumulate resources and capabilities from the target firm. The BG structure provides a
vital format to encourage data acquisition and absorption (Frenz & Letto-Gillies, 2009).
Cooperative relationships in an exceedingly BG network prompt shared best practices and
facilitate member companies assimilate new data (White, Hoskisson, Yiu, & Bruton, 2008).
In summary, the privileged access they need to individual data, resources, and capabilities
implies that BG-affiliated companies’ fancy superior long-run acquisition performance
following their M & A deals.

2.5.3 Affiliation and Business Performance
Business groups are usually ascribed to boost organisation performance by providing easy
accessibility to capital and different factors of production, and effectively distributing them
across all members of the cluster (Khanna & Palepu, 2000). A business cluster usually
possesses multiple resources within and outside of it. Therefore, in each occasion, it’s ready
to internally publicise these resources in step with the necessities of its members. The
interior allocation of resources may result in important economies of scale and scope, and
non-reliance on external funding reduces the value of total capital for every individual
company-member. What is more, the group’s international exposure and skill will offer
valuable insights to the individual members on a way to effectively answer policy
distortions within the international markets and the way to leverage their market power in
their domestic market (Ghemawat & Khanna, 1998). Overall, business teams in rising
markets offer distinctive and unreproducible market data, a highly trained talent pool, and
partnerships (with internal – the government – or external actors) providing a powerful
competitive advantage to attached members (Aguiar et al., 2009; Purkayastha et al., 2012).
It’s noteworthy that the highest thirty family conglomerates in Korea – chaebols – generate
over 46% of trade revenues, and their combined assets account for forty seventh of the
complete economy. At an equivalent time, the highest five chaebols account for 59% of the
whole price of corporations listed on the Korean stock market (Kim et al., 2004). Except
robust market presence and access to capital, the chaebols jointly share common assets, tangible and intangible, priceless management talent pool with long-term expertise across a range of industries (the Samsung chaebol alone employs 265,000 employees), and well established native distribution channels and networks, providing them and their members distinctive competitive benefits.

The lack of clear proof over the business cluster – firm performance relationship has recently aggravated a new body of analysis, raising issues for the riotous role of business cluster affiliations on the firm and the economy (Khanna & Yafeh, 2007; Kim et al., 2004). Seen as extremely heterogenous entities, business teams could turn out subpar performance results. Some business prompt diversification will cause poor performance, even if factors like the cluster size, the cluster diversity, and share of possession will considerably moderate its overall impact (Latham & Braun, 2008). Therefore, the diversification discount theory signals an unfavourable impact of cluster affiliation, particularly once the firm is overexposed internationally (Gaur & Kumar, 2009). This amounts to a discount in shareowner price of the firm, caused by inefficient allocation of resources and funds across divisions, transaction prices, miscommunication, and an inability to effectively and promptly respond to opportunities (Lang & Stulz, 1994; Whited, 2001). What is more, business teams are suspect of agency issues like “tunnelling”, “rent seeking,” and/or “monopolistic” behaviours (Khanna & Yafeh, 2007) which will be prejudices to each firm growth and overall “social welfare”.

2.6 Chapter Summary
Chapter two discussed the existing literature on the different types of entrepreneurial motivations that contribute to the growth of their businesses. These dimensions include need for achievement, need for affiliation, risk taking propensity and entrepreneur’s self-efficacy and their impact on firm growth. The consequent chapter which is research design will provide the manner in which data collection and analysis was undertaken.
3.0. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of entrepreneurial motivation and business growth. This chapter presents the research design, target population, sampling design, data collection methods, research procedures and data analysis methods that was used in this study.

3.2. Research Design

According to Cooper and Schindler (2014) research design is the comprehensive plan, structure or strategy of collecting data with the aim of obtaining answers to various research questions. It entails what the study is about, the reasons for carrying out the study, the location of the study, the type of data required, the possible sources of the data, the time periods of the study, the sample design, data collection techniques, data analysis methods and the style of preparing the final report. (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013) noted that there are three types of research design namely; descriptive, explanatory, and exploratory research designs. A descriptive study attempts to describe systematically a problem or provides information about a situation with the aim of showing what is prevalent with respect to the issue. An explanatory study goes beyond descriptive observations and attempts to clarify why and how there is a relationship between variables (Kumar, 2011). In exploratory research, a study is undertaken to explore an area about which little is known for feasibility or pilot study in order to assess if it is worth carrying out a full detailed investigation (Zikmund, 2013).

This study used a descriptive research design to investigate impact of entrepreneurial motivation and business growth. According to Kumar (2011), a descriptive study aims to discover or establish the existence of relationships or independence between two or more aspects of situations. A descriptive research design is fitted for this study because an independent variable causes change in a dependent variable. Also, descriptive design is fit for this study as it establishes a relationship and association between several variables in the same population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013)
3.3.1 Population
Saunders et al., (2016) defined a target population as the full set of cases from which the sample is taken and which the researcher wants to generalize results from. Zikmund, Babin, Carr, and Griffin (2013) similarly define target population as all elements or people that a researcher would like to study. In other words, a target population comprises of all individuals, events or objects that have common characteristics and from which the researcher wants to generalize results (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). This focused on legally registered Kenyan SMEs with a few comparisons to international SMEs. The total population was 168 SMEs. Saunders et al., (2016) recommend that, where no suitable list exists, the researcher will have to compile their own sampling frame to ensure that it is valid and reliable.

3.3.2 Sampling Design
Sampling design is the method used to find a sample from a specific population and as such it is the procedure that a researcher uses while selecting items for the study’s sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The sampling design comprises of the sampling frame, sampling technique and sample size.

3.3.2.1 Sampling Frame
Saunders et al. (2016) define sampling frame as the complete list of individuals or entities in the population, from which a probability sample is drawn and to which study findings are to be generalized. This study focused on the legally registered Kenyan SMEs with a few comparisons to international SMEs that were obtained from their websites.

3.3.2.2 Sampling Technique
Sampling techniques provides a way in which a researcher scientifically selects the elements to be studied. It is a process of selecting representative elements from the whole population in order to generalize the results (Saunders et al., 2016). Sampling techniques can be either probability sampling or non-probability sampling (Creswell, 2014). Probability sampling is a sampling technique in which every member of the population has a known, non-zero probability of selection, whereas in non-probability sampling, units of the sample are selected on the basis of personal judgment or convenience (Zikmund, Babin, carr, & Griffin, 2013).
This study used stratified random sampling technique. According to Saunders et al. (2016) stratified random sampling is a probability sampling technique in which the population is divided into two or more relevant strata and a random sample is drawn from each stratum. The study sought to collect data from the population by dividing its target population into two main strata namely; Small and Micro Enterprises and Medium sized enterprises.

3.3.2.3 Sample Size
The sample size is a subset of the population or the number of items to be selected from the population to constitute a sample (Creswell, 2014). The sample size of a study is of major concern to the researcher as it aims to remove bias in the selection of the sample (Kumar, 2011). According to Zikmund et al., (2013), a small sample size may not serve to achieve the study objectives and a large one may incur huge cost and waste resources. While choosing the sample size, scientific methods need to be used. Saunders et al., (2016) argue that when the sample size is large, then there is a lower likelihood of error in generalizing the population.

For this study the population sample was arrived at based on Yamane’s Formula (Yamane, 1967)

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \]

Where

\[ n = \text{corrected sample size}, \quad N = \text{population size}, \quad \text{and} \quad e = \text{Margin of error (ME)}, \quad e = 0.05. \]

With population of 168, at 95% confidence level, the sample size was:

\[ \frac{168}{1 + 168 (0.05^2)} \]

\[ = 118 \]

3.4. Data Collection Methods
The study used a questionnaire to collect data from the respondents of the 118 SMEs. Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2014) argue that questionnaires are the most commonly used method of data collection because they enable a researcher to save time, as it is possible to collect a large amount of information in case of large population. However, the authors caution that questionnaires must be kept short and that they are subject to non-response to selective items as well as reactive effects. The questionnaire was divided into various sections and was aimed to first capture general information about the respondents,
and then to solicit specific information arising from the research asked to indicate their response on a five-level Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5 where 1 reflected Strongly Disagree, 2 reflected Disagree, 3 reflected Neutral, 4 reflected Agree, and 5 reflected Strongly Agree. The questionnaire is made up of 6 sections which include; Section A as the General information of the respondent, Section B as Impact of Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement on Business Growth, Section C Impact of Risk Taking Propensity on Business Growth, Section D Impact of Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy on Business Growth, Section E Effect of Entrepreneur’s Need For Affiliation on Business Growth, and Section F Business Growth.

3.6. Research Procedure

Permission to conduct this research was granted in stages: initially by the research supervisors and then the Dean, Chandaria School of Business. In compliance with the Science and Technology Act, Cap 250 of the Laws of Kenya, a research permit was obtained from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). Permission was sought from the respondents and a letter allowing for the research was attained from the dean’s office at the Chandaria School of business.

Zikmund et al., (2013) define a pilot study as a small-scale research project that collects data from respondents similar to those that will be used in the full study. The purpose of piloting is to test the questionnaire for any weaknesses that may exist in it. Bryman (2012) posits that pilot studies are particularly crucial in self-completion questionnaires since the interviewer will not be present to clear up any confusion. Further, inappropriate questions and instructions can be identified and corrected. Bryman and Bell (2011) recommend that the pilot should be not be carried out on people who might be members of the sample employed in the full study as that may affect representatitiveness of any subsequent sample. Instead, it is best to find a small set of respondents who are comparable to members of the population from which the samples are taken.

According to Saunders et al., (2016), the pilot sample size should be sufficient to include any major variations in the population that are likely to affect responses, and recommend a minimum number of 10 respondents. Once data for pilot testing is collected, it will be coded and entered in SPSS to test for reliability and validity of the research instrument.
Testing for reliability of the research instrument is paramount in research. Reliability seeks to determine if scores to items on a research instrument are internally consistent, stable, and whether the test administration and scoring was consistent (Creswell, 2014). Zikmund et al., (2013) argues that pre-testing the research instruments reduces biases that may be caused by measurement errors. Zohrabi (2013) extensively categorizes reliability into two forms, that is, external and internal reliability. In the external reliability, focus is on the replication of the study. The internal reliability conversely constitutes the consistency in collection, analysis and interpretation of the data and it can be found when an independent researcher comes to similar findings as the original researcher after re-analyzing the information.

Warrens (2014) posits that Cronbach’s alpha is the most commonly used coefficient for approximation of reliability of test scores for structured questionnaires and for calculating internal consistency. According to Saunders et al., (2016), internal consistency involves correlating the responses to each question to other questions in the questionnaire and measuring the consistency of responses. Cronbach’s alpha values range between 0 and 1 where a value of 0 indicates no reliability, while 1 indicates high reliability (Warrens, 2014). However, the threshold for interpretation of reliability of the research instrument is Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.7. Thus, Cronbach’s alpha values less than 0.7 indicate that the research instrument is unreliable while Cronbach’s alpha values equal to or greater than 0.7 indicates that the research instrument is reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Research validity refers to the correctness or truthfulness of an inference that is made from a research study so that the results reflect the differences among the participants drawn from the population (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). According to Christensen et al., (2014), there are four major types of validity: construct validity is the extent to which a construct is adequately represented by the measures used; internal validity is the correctness of inferences made about cause and effect in connection with independent and dependent variables; and external validity, which is the degree to which results can be generalized to other people, settings, and time. According to Creswell (2013), the validity of a research instrument is improved by use of a pilot study.

This study makes use of self-administered questionnaires. According to Bryman and Bell (2011), with a self-administered questionnaire (SAQ), respondents answer questions by
completing the questionnaire themselves. As there is no interviewer in the administration of the self-completion questionnaire, the research instrument has to be especially easy to follow and its questions have to be particularly easy to answer (Saunders et al., 2016).

Bryman and Bell (2011) describe several advantages to using self-administered questionnaires over structured interviews: they are quicker to administer; there is absence of interviewer effects; no interviewer variability; and convenience for respondents. However, self-administered questionnaires have some shortcomings as well and these include: no one present to prompt if needed; cannot probe; have to ensure questions are salient to respondents; difficulties of asking questions in a different way; respondents can read all the questions before they start answering and this means they are not independent of each other; cannot ask a lot of questions; there is a risk of missing data and also poor response rates (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Cooper & Schindler, 2014).

Ethics in research have to do with the appropriateness of the researcher’s behavior in relation to the rights of those who become the subject of a research project, or who are affected by it. To advance knowledge and find solutions to problems, it is often necessary to impinge on the rights of individuals and it is necessary for the researcher to consider such ethical issues (Saunders et al., 2016; Zikmund et al., 2013). According to Christensen et al., (2014), research ethics are a set of guidelines to assist the researcher in conducting ethical research and comprise three areas: relationship between society and science; professional issues; and treatment of research participants. Of concern in business research are professional ethics and misconduct. Research misconduct includes ‘fabrication, falsification or plagiarism in proposing, performing or reviewing research (Christensen et al., 2014).

3.6. Data Analysis Methods
The data collected will be cleaned up of errors and to remove inconsistencies, incompleteness, misclassification and gaps in the information obtained from the respondents (Kumar, 2011). Missing data is a common problem with questionnaires and can come in several forms: invalid data is data with entry errors; incomplete data is missing data needed to make a decision; inconsistent data could result from mistakes of aligning databases; while incorrect data occurs when data is falsified (Cooper & Schindler, 2014).
Descriptive statistics are measurements that depict the center, spread, and shape of distributions and are helpful as preliminary tools for data description. They help to describe the basic features of the data, to organize and summarize it in a simple way (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Peck & Devore, 2012). Descriptive statistics make it possible to discern patterns that are not clearly apparent in the raw data through use of graphs, pie charts, and tables for ease of visual explanation. Descriptive statistics include measurement of central tendency and dispersion (Saunders et al., 2016).

There are various measures of central tendency and the choice of which to use is based on certain criteria. According to Agarwal (2013), a measure of central tendency is good or satisfactory if it possesses the following characteristics: it should be based on all observations; it should not be affected by extreme values; it should be close to the maximum number of observed values as possible; it should have a definite value; it should be subjected to complicated calculations; it should be capable of further algebraic formulation; and it should be stable with regards to sampling.

Inferential statistics refer to statistical methods used to make inferences or to project from a sample to an entire population. Statistical analysis can be univariate when testing objective involving only one variable, bivariate when involving two variables, or multivariate when testing objectives and models involving three or more variables (Zikmund et al., 2013). We have several inferential tests including; Factor Analysis, Correlation, Analysis of Variance and Regression. For the study, Factor analysis was used as it was the most appropriate with the collected data.

3.8. Chapter Summary
This chapter highlights the various processes and techniques applied to facilitate data collection from respondents. This chapter presents the research design, target population, sampling design, data collection methods, research procedures and data analysis methods that was used in this study. Chapter four will present the results and findings.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction
The purpose of this study was to establish the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses focusing its attention on women entrepreneurs. This chapter represents the data analysis results, presentation and interpretation.

4.1.1 Response Rate
Table 4.1 indicates the response rate. Out of 118 questionnaires hand delivered to the respective respondents, 111 were returned bringing the response rate to 94%. This rate was above the expected response rate of 50-75% and thus was sufficient to perform data analysis.

Table 4.1 Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responded</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Responded</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Demographic Characteristics

4.2.1 Gender of the respondents
Respondents were asked to indicate their gender and the response was represented in Figure 4.1. 52% of the respondents who constituted the majority were female and 48% were male. This indicates that more females took part in the study than the males.

Figure 4.1: Gender of Respondents
4.2.2 Age of the respondents
Respondents were asked to indicate their age bracket and the response was represented in Figure 4.2 below. Majority of the respondents (29%) were in the age bracket of 25-30 years, 25% were in the age bracket of 18-24, 22% were in the age bracket of 31-40, 14% were in the age bracket of 41-45 and 10% were above 45 years.

![Figure 4.2: Age of Respondent](image)

4.2.3 Nationality of the respondents
Respondents were asked to indicate their nationality and the response was represented in Figure 4.3. 91% of the respondents who constituted the majority were Kenyans and 9% were from other nationalities.

![Figure 4.3: Nationality of respondents](image)
4.2.4 Annual Net Income
The respondents were asked to indicate the average annual income for the business and the findings presented in figure 4.4. Majority of the business (43%) earned below 500000, 20% earned between 500001-750000, 9% earned between 750001-1000000, 12% earned 1000001-1250000 and 8% earned between 1250001-1500000 and 8% earned above 1500000.

Figure 4.4: Annual net income

4.2.5 Occupation Status
The respondents were asked to indicate their education level and the findings presented in figure 4.5. 59% of the respondents were undergraduates and 41% were graduates.

Figure 4.5: Level of Education
4.2.6 Religion

The respondents were asked to indicate their religion. The results were presented in figure 4.6. Majority of the respondents (33%) were Muslims, 31% were Protestants, 20% were Catholics, 7% were Hindus and 2% were Buddhist.

![Figure 4.6: Religion](image)

4.2.7 Marital status

The respondents were asked to indicate their marital status. Majority of the respondents 48% were Married, 40% were single, 7% were divorced and 5% were widowed as indicated in figure 4.7.

![Figure 4.7: Marital Status](image)
4.2.8 Level of Education

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of education. The results are presented in figure 4.6. From the findings, majority of the respondents 88% had gone through college or university, 5% had secondary certificates, 1% had primary certificate and 6% had no education. This implies that the respondents were well informed.

![Figure 4.8: Level of Management](image)

4.2.9 Business Category

The respondents were asked to indicate the category the business falls under. The results are presented in figure 4.9. 41% of the respondents’ businesses were sole proprietorship, 33% were limited companies and 26% were partnership.

![Figure 4.9: Business Category](image)
4.2.10 Business Existence Period

The respondents were asked to state the period the business has been in existence; the results are presented in figure 4.10. 50% of the business had operated for less than 5 years. 28% had operated for 6-10 years, 17% had operated for over 15 years and 6% had been in existence for 11-15 year.

Figure 4.10 Business Existence Period

4.2.11 Employees Number

The respondents were asked to indicate the number of employees in the business, the results are presented in figure 4.11. 41% of the businesses had between 1-4 employees, 22% of the businesses had between 5-9 employees, 16% had between 10-20 employees and 21% had between 21-50 employees.

Figure 4.11: Number of Employees
4.3 Impact of Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement on Business Growth
The study sought to establish the extent to which the entrepreneur’s need for achievement impacts growth of the business.

4.3.1 Motivation
The findings are as indicated in table 4.2. The findings indicate that 57% of the respondents indicated that innovation influence’s them most towards entrepreneurship, majority of the respondents (42%) indicated that aggressiveness is of more influence towards entrepreneurship, 51% indicated that self-confident is most influential towards entrepreneurship, 32% indicated that working for long hours influences them most towards entrepreneurship, 42% indicated that fiercely competitive is of more influential towards entrepreneurship and 55% indicated that intensely focused influences them most towards entrepreneurship.

Table 4.2: Attributes on Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Least influential (%)</th>
<th>Less influential (%)</th>
<th>Influential (%)</th>
<th>More Influential (%)</th>
<th>Most Influential (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Innovation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aggressiveness</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-confident</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work for long hours</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fiercely competitive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensely focused</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Demography and Culture
The findings are as indicated in table 4.3. The findings indicate that 73% of the respondents agreed that entrepreneur motivation differ across gender, 69% agreed that Entrepreneur motivation differ across different culture, 71% agreed that culture influence both the supply of entrepreneurs and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function, 77% agreed that culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially, 86% agreed that women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and new venture creation over years, 73% agreed that there is a negative attitudes toward
females entrepreneurs, 64% agreed that women considering an entrepreneurial career are more likely to be denied family support compared to men.

Table 4.3: Demography and Culture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Demography and culture</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DAC1</td>
<td>Entrepreneur motivation differ across gender.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC2</td>
<td>Entrepreneur motivation differ across different culture.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC3</td>
<td>Culture influences both the supply of entrepreneurs and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC4</td>
<td>Culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC5</td>
<td>Women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and new venture creation over years.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC6</td>
<td>There is a negative attitude toward female entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAC7</td>
<td>Women considering an entrepreneurial career are more likely to be denied family support compared to men.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KEY: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, NS-Not sure, D- Disagree, SD-Strongly disagree

4.3.3 Need for Achievement

The findings are as indicated in table 4.4. The findings indicate that 94% of the respondents agreed that the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance, 83% agreed that individuals that exhibit high levels of need for achievement are more likely to engage in energetic and innovative activities than those without, 77% people with high growth needs will experience enriched job characteristics more positively than those without, 88% agreed that entrepreneurs with strong growth needs are capable of developing strong internal motivation when faced with challenges, 83% agreed that entrepreneurs are motivated more by extrinsic rewards such as high profits and 77% agreed that entrepreneurs are motivated more by intrinsic rewards such as recognition and autonomy.
Table 4.4: Need for Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Need for Achievement</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFA1</td>
<td>The need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA2</td>
<td>Individuals that exhibit high levels of need for achievement are more likely to engage in energetic and innovative activities than those without.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA3</td>
<td>People with high growth needs will experience enriched job characteristics more positively than those without.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA4</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs with strong growth needs are capable of developing strong internal motivation when faced with challenges.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA5</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs are motivated more by extrinsic rewards such as high profits.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA6</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs are motivated more by intrinsic rewards such as recognition and autonomy.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KEY: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, NS-Not sure, D- Disagree, SD-Strongly disagree

4.4 Impact of Risk Taking Propensity on Business Growth

The study sought to examine how the risk taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business, the findings are as shown in table 4.5. The findings indicate that 90% of the respondents agreed that in entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success, 62% agreed that higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs, 88% agreed that entrepreneurs have a tendency to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs, 82% agreed that entrepreneurs often do anything to avoid failure in their venture, 75% agreed that entrepreneurs tend to assess risk a lot of favourably, 94% agreed that risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes, 83% agreed that poor risk mitigation has an effect on performance,
69% agreed that higher risk perception results in less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs, 86% agreed that entrepreneurs have an inclination to gauge business situations a lot positively than non-entrepreneurs, 59% agreed that higher risk perception is related to higher revenue, 69% agreed that younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs, 61% agreed that female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty, 86% agreed that personality traits determine the variations in actions of individuals in similar scenarios and 83% agreed that professional information, and scope of data play important roles in influencing risk attitudes.

**Table 4.5: Risk Taking Propensity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Risk Taking Propensity</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RTP1</td>
<td>In entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP2</td>
<td>Higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP3</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs have a tendency to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP4</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs often do anything to avoid failure in their venture.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP5</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs tend to assess risk a lot more favourably.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP6</td>
<td>Risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP7</td>
<td>Poor risk mitigation has an effect on performance.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP8</td>
<td>Higher risk perception results in less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP9</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs have an inclination to gauge business situations a lot positively than non-entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP10</td>
<td>Higher risk perception is related to higher revenue.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP11</td>
<td>Younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP12</td>
<td>Female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5 Impact of Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy on Business Growth

The study sought to determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise, the findings are as presented in table 4.6. From the findings, 95% agreed that as an entrepreneur I’m motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal, 61% agreed that they are motivated as an entrepreneur by wealth and status, 69% agreed that power and social acceptance influences my entrepreneurship ability. 87% agreed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties, 85% agreed that entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is persistent through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task, 85% entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity, 86% agreed that self-efficacy influence levels of commitment and performance relevance for entrepreneurship, 76% agreed that entrepreneur temperament determines their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities, 84% agreed that recognition of opportunities is a vital attribute in order to exploit the opportunities. 94% agreed that entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities, 94% agreed that entrepreneurship education increases competences, thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up and 86% agreed that family plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career.
Table 4.6: Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SE1</td>
<td>As an entrepreneur I’m motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE2</td>
<td>I’m motivated as an entrepreneur by wealth and status.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE3</td>
<td>Power and social acceptance influences my entrepreneurship ability.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE4</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE5</td>
<td>Entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is persistent through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE6</td>
<td>Entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE7</td>
<td>Self-efficacy influence levels of commitment and performance relevance for entrepreneurship.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE8</td>
<td>Entrepreneur temperament determines their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE9</td>
<td>Recognition of opportunities is a vital attribute in order to exploit the opportunities.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE10</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE11</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship education increases competences, thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE12</td>
<td>Family plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KEY: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, NS-Not sure, D- Disagree, SD-Strongly disagree

4.6 Effect of Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation on Business Growth

The study sought to investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business, the findings are as shown in table 4.7. The findings indicate that 85% agreed that Entrepreneurs possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring,
positive and significant interpersonal relationships, 64% agreed that entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings, 84% agreed that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers, 76% agreed that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their employees’ needs, welfare, and development, 75% agreed that entrepreneurs support and empower employees and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust, 85% agreed that business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital, 89% agreed that business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to factors of production, 85% agreed that Group’s exposure and skill offer valuable insights on a way to effectively handle any matters arising and 92% agreed that business affiliation offers a highly trained talent pool and partnerships.

Table 4.7: Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFAF1</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF2</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF3</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF4</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their employees’ needs, welfare, and development.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF5</td>
<td>Entrepreneurs support and empower employees and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF6</td>
<td>Business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF7</td>
<td>Business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to factors of production.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF8</td>
<td>Group’s exposure and skill offer valuable insights on a way to effectively handle any matters arising.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
NFAF9 | Business affiliation offers a highly trained talent pool, and partnerships. | 0 | 4 | 5 | 52 | 39

KEY: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, NS-Not sure, D- Disagree, SD-Strongly disagree

4.6.1 Business Growth
Respondents were asked to rate the extent of business growth. The findings are as shown in table 4.8. The findings indicate that 92% agreed that their business turnover increased over the last three years. 77% agreed that their business had an increase in staff growth over the last three years, 86% agreed that their business had an increase in revenue over the last three years and 81% agreed that their business production increased over the last three years.

Table 4.8: Business Growth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Business Growth</th>
<th>SD (%)</th>
<th>D (%)</th>
<th>NS (%)</th>
<th>A (%)</th>
<th>SA (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BG1</td>
<td>Sales turnover has increased the last three years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG2</td>
<td>Increase in staff growth over last three years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG3</td>
<td>Increase in revenue over the last three years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG4</td>
<td>Production has increased over the last three years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

KEY: SA-Strongly Agree, A-Agree, NS-Not sure, D- Disagree, SD-Strongly disagree

4.7 Inferential Statistics
Structural equation modelling with SPSS Amos version 23 software was used to assess influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses focusing its attention on women entrepreneurs.

4.7.1 Normality Test
The normality of data distribution was assessed by examining its skewness and kurtosis. The results in Table 4.9 show that the variables are normally distributed with skewness and kurtosis values ranging between -2.0 and + 2.0. This implies that the study items are normally distributed and hence further tests can be carried out on the data.
Table 4.9: Assessment of Normality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>skewness</th>
<th>Critical Ratio</th>
<th>kurtosis</th>
<th>Critical Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFA6</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.480</td>
<td>-2.063</td>
<td>-.489</td>
<td>-1.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA5</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.734</td>
<td>-3.156</td>
<td>-.073</td>
<td>-.158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA2</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.137</td>
<td>-4.890</td>
<td>.143</td>
<td>4.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE7</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.074</td>
<td>-4.622</td>
<td>1.564</td>
<td>5.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE6</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.084</td>
<td>-4.663</td>
<td>1.902</td>
<td>4.090</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE5</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.470</td>
<td>-2.022</td>
<td>.552</td>
<td>1.186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP5</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.755</td>
<td>-3.249</td>
<td>.426</td>
<td>.916</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP4</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.339</td>
<td>-5.759</td>
<td>1.083</td>
<td>4.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP3</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.228</td>
<td>-5.283</td>
<td>1.288</td>
<td>4.920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF4</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.575</td>
<td>-2.472</td>
<td>.833</td>
<td>1.791</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF3</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.010</td>
<td>-4.345</td>
<td>1.738</td>
<td>3.737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF2</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.828</td>
<td>-3.561</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF1</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-.449</td>
<td>-1.933</td>
<td>-.281</td>
<td>-.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG4</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.021</td>
<td>-4.393</td>
<td>1.546</td>
<td>3.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG3</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.194</td>
<td>-5.135</td>
<td>1.318</td>
<td>4.985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG2</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.233</td>
<td>-5.301</td>
<td>1.089</td>
<td>2.342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG1</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>-1.151</td>
<td>-4.951</td>
<td>1.045</td>
<td>4.398</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Two statistical tests were performed to assess the suitability of the data for structural detection before performing exploratory factor analysis. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy. KMO detection value ranges from 0 to 1, the more KMO value indicates that there are more communities among variables and it is more appropriate for factor analysis. Generally, when the detection value is more than 0.5, factor analysis is appropriate, while not appropriate when less than 0.5. The result in table 4.10 shows that the KMO value is 0.714, Bartlett significant value is 0.00, less than 5%, indicating that the data was appropriate for the factor analysis.

The variability of each observed variable that could be explained by the extracted factors were checked by extracting the communality values. The extracted communalities were found to be greater than 0.5 which indicated that the variables fitted well other variables in their factor (Pallant, 2010). Factor analysis was assessed using Principal component analysis. The five factors had an Eigen value of greater than 1.0 and the factors were able to explain 60.034% of the total variance in the data.
Table 4.10: Principal Component Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITEM</th>
<th>Business Growth</th>
<th>Need for Affiliation</th>
<th>Risk propensity</th>
<th>Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Need for Achievement</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NFAF1</td>
<td>0.623</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF2</td>
<td>0.677</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF3</td>
<td>0.727</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFAF4</td>
<td>0.770</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG1</td>
<td>0.797</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG2</td>
<td>0.756</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG3</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.742</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG4</td>
<td>0.715</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.550</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE6</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.584</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE7</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.779</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.689</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.594</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NFA6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP3</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.8211</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP4</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.7019</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTP5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.7524</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eigen value</td>
<td>4.099</td>
<td>2.193</td>
<td>1.532</td>
<td>1.267</td>
<td>1.115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Variance</td>
<td>24.109</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>9.012</td>
<td>7.456</td>
<td>6.556</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative %</td>
<td>24.109</td>
<td>37.01</td>
<td>46.022</td>
<td>53.478</td>
<td>60.034</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KMO=</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>Bartlett's Test=506.339, df= 136 , sig =0.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFA (Confirmatory-Factor-Analysis) was conducted to verify the fitness of the model and also to measure the validity (convergent and discriminant validity) of the constructs.
Figure 4.12: Measurement Model (CFA)
Table 4.11: Model Fits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>PClose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>165.856</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>1.522</td>
<td>0.859</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>0.078</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>&gt;0.95</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The model fits were measured using Chi-square ratio ($\chi^2/df$), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The models fit the data adequately since the model fits were within the threshold as indicated by Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000) as indicated in table 4.11.

4.7.4 Construct Reliability

Construct reliability was assessed by computing the composite reliability and the Cronbach alpha of the constructs. The Cronbach alphas were all above the 0.6 threshold as specified for PLS analysis (Hair et al., 2010). Composite reliability of reflective items were all above the acceptable 0.7 threshold which means all the variables in the study exhibited construct reliability as indicated in table 4.12.

Table 4.12: Reliability of Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constructs</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Composite Reliability &gt; 0.7</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha &gt; 0.6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Growth</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.780</td>
<td>0.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Affiliation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.712</td>
<td>0.722</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk propensity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.718</td>
<td>0.716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Achievement</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.714</td>
<td>0.731</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.5 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity was assessed using average variance extracted (AVE). Table 4.13 indicates that AVE of all constructs were above the 0.5 threshold indicating that the latent constructs account for at least fifty percent of the variance in the items. This indicates that the measurement scales exhibited adequate measurement validity (Hair et al., 2010).
4.7.6 Discriminant Validity.

In correlation matrix table 4.13, the diagonal elements in bold are the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) of all the latent constructs. The discriminant validity is assumed if the diagonal elements are higher than other off-diagonal elements in their rows and columns. Discriminant validity was confirmed for the measurement model.

Table 4.13: Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Business Growth</th>
<th>Need for Affiliation</th>
<th>Risk propensity</th>
<th>Need for Achievement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>0.538</td>
<td>0.734</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Growth</td>
<td>0.547</td>
<td>0.289</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Affiliation</td>
<td>0.535</td>
<td>0.293</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.490</td>
<td>0.731</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk propensity</td>
<td>0.515</td>
<td>0.545</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.433</td>
<td>0.718</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need for Achievement</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.467</td>
<td>0.061</td>
<td>0.317</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.730</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.7 Structural Model (SEM)

The structural model was estimated to extract the estimates for standard coefficients. The significance of the estimates was evaluated by the T statistic values provided.

Figure 4.13: Structural Model for Study Variables.
The structural model fit statistics of the overall structural model for study variables was then extracted as shown in table 4.14. The structural model fit the data adequately since the fit indices were within an acceptable range (Gold et al., 2001).

### Table 4.14: Model Fits for Structural Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>PClose</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>208.419</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>1.812</td>
<td>0.868</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.056</td>
<td>0.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Between 1 and 3</td>
<td>&gt;0.95</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
<td>&gt;0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>acceptable</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4.15: Path coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Unstandardized Estimate</th>
<th>Standardised Estimate</th>
<th>Standard Error.</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>P Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BG  &lt;--- NFA</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.092</td>
<td>2.172</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG  &lt;--- RTP</td>
<td>0.307</td>
<td>0.350</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>2.670</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG  &lt;--- SE</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.153</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>2.221</td>
<td>0.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BG  &lt;--- NFAF</td>
<td>0.584</td>
<td>0.409</td>
<td>0.205</td>
<td>2.849</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.7.8.1 Need for Achievement on Business Growth

Need for achievement was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. The path coefficient was positive and significant at the 0.05 level (β=0.199, T-value =2.172 p<0.05) as indicated in table 4.15 and figure 4.11. The positive relationship means if, need for achievement increases by 1, business growth will increase by 0.199.

#### 4.7.8.2 Risk Taking Propensity on Business Growth

Risk taking propensity was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. The path coefficient was positive and significant at the 0.05 level (β=0.307, T-value =2.670 p<0.05) as indicated in table 4.15 and figure 4.11. The positive relationship means if, Risk taking propensity increases by 1, business growth will increase by 0.307.
4.7.8.3 Self-Efficacy on Business Growth

Self-efficacy was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. The path coefficient was positive and significant at the 0.05 level (β=0.189, T-value =2.221 p<0.05) as indicated in table 4.15 and figure 4.11. The positive relationship means if, Self-efficacy increases by 1, business growth will increase by 0.189.

4.7.8.4 Need for Affiliation on Business Growth

Need for affiliation was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. The path coefficient was positive and significant at the 0.05 level (β=0.584, T-value =2.849 p<0.05) as indicated in table 4.15 and figure 4.11. The positive relationship means if, need for affiliation increases by 1, business growth will increase by 0.584.

4.7.9 Predictive Relevance of the Model

The quality of the structural model can be assessed by $R^2$ which shows the variance in the endogenous variable that is explained by the exogenous variables. Based on the results reported in figure 4.11, the $R^2$ was found to be 0.372 indicating that Need for achievement, Risk taking propensity, Self-efficacy and Need for affiliation can account for 37.2% of the variance in the business growth.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the results and findings achieved from the study, the first section analyzed the response rate and demography of the respondents, this was followed by the descriptive statistics of the various research questions. The inferential statistics were also presented through use of exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, reliability, validity and correlation analysis. The next chapter presents the discussions conclusion and recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study and links this to past research done on the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses. This is discussed in line with the literature review and the conclusions and recommendations are drawn.

5.2 Summary

The general objective of this study was to establish the influence of entrepreneurial motivation on the growth of small businesses focusing its attention on women entrepreneurs. The specific objectives of the research was to establish the extent to which the entrepreneur’s need for achievement impacts growth of the business. To examine how the risk taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business. To determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise, and to investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business.

The study adopted a survey research design. The target population for the study were legally registered Kenyan SMEs with a few comparisons to international SMEs. Of these companies, a sample was of 118 businesses was selected purposively. Data was collected for surveying by use of structured questionnaires each made up of two parts where the first part collected general information about the entrepreneurs and the second contained the specific statement that sought to get views of the respondents. Questionnaires were self-distributed to the targeted population. The study employed Pearson’s bivariate correlation for analysis. Data collected were entered in SPSS and Amos software which was also used to summarize the responses to give both the descriptive and inferential statistics. After analysis output were summarized using percentages and frequencies then presented using tables and charts. Out of the 118 questionnaires distributed, only 111 were filed and returned representing a response rate of 94%, which was sufficient for the study.

To establish the extent to which the entrepreneur’s need for achievement impacts growth of the business the findings indicate that the factors that motivate them towards entrepreneurship included innovation 57%, self-confidence 51%, fierce competition 42% and intense focus at 55%. Respondents also agreed that entrepreneur motivation differ across gender 73%, across different culture 69%, culture influence both the supply of
entrepreneurs and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function 71%. Also, it was agreed that culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially 77%, and 86% agreed that women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and new venture creation over years, 73% agreed that there is a negative attitude toward female entrepreneurs, 64% agreed that women considering an entrepreneurial career are more likely to be denied family support compared to men. The findings indicate that 94% of the respondents agreed that the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance, 83% agreed that individuals that exhibit high levels of need for achievement are more likely to engage in energetic and innovative activities than those without, 83% agreed that entrepreneurs are motivated more by extrinsic rewards such as high profits and 77% agreed that entrepreneurs are motivated more by intrinsic rewards such as recognition and autonomy. Need for achievement was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. The path coefficient was positive and significant thus meaning that an increase in need for achievement resulted in increased business growth.

To examine how the risk taking propensity of an entrepreneur reflects on the growth of his business, the findings indicate that 90% of the respondents agreed that in entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success, 62% agreed that higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs, 88% agreed that entrepreneurs have a tendency to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs, 82% agreed that entrepreneurs often do anything to avoid failure in their venture, 94% agreed that risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes, 83% agreed that poor risk mitigation has an effect on performance, 86% agreed that entrepreneurs have an inclination to gauge business situations a lot positively than non-entrepreneurs, 69% agreed that younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs, 61% agreed that female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty, 86% agreed that personality traits determine the variations in actions of individuals in similar scenarios and 83% agreed that professional information, and scope of data play important roles in influencing risk attitudes. Risk taking propensity was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. Thus, meaning that an increase in risk taking resulted in increased business growth.
To determine whether an entrepreneur’s self-efficacy can positively impact the growth of his enterprise, the findings indicated that 95% agreed that as an entrepreneur they are motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal. On the other hand 87% agreed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties, 85% agreed that entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is persistent through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task, 85% entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity, 86% agreed that self-efficacy influence levels of commitment and performance relevance for entrepreneurship, 76% agreed that entrepreneur temperament determines their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities, 84% agreed that recognition of opportunities is a vital attribute in order to exploit the opportunities, 94% agreed that entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities, 94% agreed that entrepreneurship education increases competences, thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up and 86% agreed that family plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career. Self-efficacy was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. Self-efficacy was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with business growth. Thus, meaning that an increase in self-efficacy resulted in increased business growth.

To investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business, the findings indicate that 85% agreed that entrepreneurs possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships, 64% agreed that entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings, 84% agreed that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers, 76% agreed that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their employees’ needs, welfare, and development, 75% agreed that entrepreneurs support and empower employees and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust, 85% agreed that business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital, 89% agreed that business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to factors of production, 85% agreed that group’s exposure and skill offer valuable insights on a way to effectively handle any matters arising and 92% agreed that business affiliation offers a highly trained talent pool and partnerships. Need for affiliation was found to have a positive and statistically significant relationship with
business growth. Implying that an increase in need for affiliation resulted in increased business growth.

5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement and Growth of the Business

The findings indicated that the factors that motivate them towards entrepreneurship included innovation, self-confidence, fierce competition and intense focus. Similar sentiments have been expressed by Price (2011) who states that entrepreneurs place an enormous value on creativity and are willing to take risks if they know they can influence the eventual outcome of the event. They are innovative, aggressive, self-confident, willing to work long hours, fiercely competitive, and intensely focused. Shariff and Saud (2009), indicate that attitude of individual to get involved in the field of entrepreneurship is driven by Push Factors and Pull Factors. The two authors argued that the Push Factors include frustration resulted from limited opportunities, economic down turn and dissatisfaction while Pull Factors consist of psychology and profit resulting from limited job opportunities and social mobility.

Respondents also agreed that entrepreneur motivation differ across gender, across different culture. Valliere (2008) states that entrepreneurship has no precise religion or culture as it slashes across all religions and exists in diverse socio-cultural contexts, each of which represents a symbol of global entrepreneurial behavior. Religion certainly affects positively, personal values such as honesty, perseverance, bravery, foresightedness and general ethical standards (Altinay & Wang, 2011). At the highest level of social context, there is virtual consensus in the entrepreneurship literature that culture bears a profound impact on all facets of entrepreneurship in societies (Hayton, George, & Zahra, 2002).

Findings reveal that culture influences both the supply of entrepreneurs and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function. According to Hayton, George, & Zahra (2002) culture influences the overall rate of innovation in a society and the behavior of individuals pursuing entrepreneurship that is based on this innovation. It was also agreed that culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially, Dana (1995) found that culture affects the ability of individuals to perceive opportunities and to respond entrepreneurially, and that subgroups can therefore exhibit markedly different entrepreneurial responses to the same environmental conditions. Behavioral
psychologists point out that individual job performance is a function of ability and motivation originates from both internal and external stimulations. The motivations caused by push and pull factors stimulate the potential of an entrepreneur’s expectations.

The findings indicate that 94% of the respondents agreed that the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance, and according to McClelland, although individuals have many needs, the need for achievement is one of the critical factors in determining individuals’ levels of performance. The need to achieve excellence motivates individuals to overcome obstacles, to exercise power, to strive to do something difficult as well and as quickly as possible (Murray, 1938).

Majority agreed that individuals that exhibit high levels of need for achievement are more likely to engage in energetic and innovative activities than those without. (Zander & Forward (1968) also established that individuals with high levels of need for achievement are more likely to value high performance and would therefore set challenging goals for themselves. This will in turn translate to increased productivity in their business ventures. Researchers demonstrate that group members who are relatively high in achievement motivation show more concern about group success and groups composed of members with high achievement motivation solve complex problems more efficiently (Shaw & Harkey, 1976).

5.3.2 Risk Taking Propensity and Growth of Business

The findings indicate that majority agreed that in entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success. Wendestam, (2008) explained that the strategic focus on risks from the business’ strategic goals might embody new sorts of risks in itself (launching a brand-new product on a new market, new innovations, etc.). The tactical risk management aims to handle the plan of action choices of the business and thereby takes responsibility for handling the risks related to the yearly planning. The operational risk management is expounded to the daily operations of the business.

It was also revealed that entrepreneurs tend to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs. This has been expressed by several scholars who have examined the impact of risk taking and risk perception on the outcomes of businesses. For example, Sitkin & Weignart (1995) show that higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs. Palich and Bagby (1995) find that entrepreneurs have a tendency
to evaluate business situations more favorably because they focus more on the opportunities of the situation than on the weaknesses and threats. Stewart et. al. (1999) added that there is a measure of riskiness inherent in business ownership that is not necessarily present in the managerial role. Norton and Moore (2002) conclude from their analysis amongst entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs that the two teams show no distinction on risk taking propensity, though they did notice proof for the hypothesis that entrepreneurs tend to assess risk a lot of favourably.

It was also revealed that risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes. Palich and Bagby (1995) in their study found that entrepreneurs typically read an equivalent business scenario additional optimistically than that of managers. This may mean that the entrepreneurs are more susceptible to view an equivalent state of affairs as having additional positive attributes and a lot of doubtless positive outcomes compared to managers. In effect, this might imply that these people read the chance issue as being smaller in a specific scenario, than would managers.

It was also revealed that poor risk mitigation influences performance and a broad variety of studies realize that risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes, however, the scale and sign of the result of risk seizing performance is ambiguous. In their meta-analysis covering sixty studies Zhao et al. (2010) failed to realize proof of a major impact of risk propensity on performance. According to them there's no accord on the sign of the impact. One reason for this lack of agreement could also be variations in definitions and measure of risk propensity. Another may be the actual fact that the construct of risk taking may be an additional complicated construct that needs a very elaborate approach as Sitkin and Pablo (1992) recommend.

The findings revealed that entrepreneurs are inclined to gauge business situations a lot positively than non-entrepreneurs. Sitkin and Weingart (1995), as an example, show that higher risk perception results in less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs, however don't analyse the impact on firm performance. The impact of risk perception may additionally differ in actual business set ups as entrepreneurship involves never-ending method of decision-making. Palich and Bagby (1995), noticed that entrepreneurs have an inclination to gauge business situations a lot more positively than non-entrepreneurs because they focus a lot of on the opportunities of the case than on the weaknesses and threats. During this approach, the variations in risk differ.
According to this study, younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs and female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty. The demographic characteristics of executives are used as valid, albeit incomplete and general, proxies of executives' cognitive frame (Hambrick, 2007). The demographic traits of project managers are therefore associated to their approach of constructing risk selections. As for age, young males or females take a lot of risks than older males or females, supported that it is projected and so verified that risk propensity are reciprocally associated with age (Nicholson et al., 2005). As for gender, ladies are found to be more risk indisposed than men when facing gambling scenarios. Also, it’s assumed that female project managers are accustomed to less risk taking. Numerous studies conducted to explore the magnitude of relative risk aversion or risk taking, however there is very little agreement and few generalizations to be terminated from the present literature (Halek & Eisenhauer, 2001).

5.3.3 Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy and Growth of an Enterprise

The findings indicated that entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties. Entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations, and effort, as well as perseverance when entrepreneurs face difficulties (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) and it plays an important role in the development of an intention to establish and manage a new venture (Kickul, Wilson, Marlino, & Barbosa, 2008). An entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is persistent through setbacks, and develops better plans and strategies for the task. The study revealed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity. Previous research has shown that individuals with higher entrepreneurial self-efficacy tend to exhibit higher entrepreneurial intention. The self-efficacy construct is appropriate for the study of entrepreneurship because of its nature: it is a task-specific construct that includes an assessment of confident beliefs an individual has about internal (personality) and external (environment) constraints and possibilities, and it is close to action and action intentionality (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994).

It was also revealed that Self-efficacy influence levels of commitment and performance relevance for entrepreneurship. Scholars such as Shane et al., (2003) have argued that an entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is likely to “exert more effort for a greater length of time, persist through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task. (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) extend(Bird, 1988) model of entrepreneurial intentions where they proposed that self-efficacy was an important mediator in determining both the strength of
entrepreneurial intentions, and the likelihood that those intentions would result in entrepreneurial actions. Rauch & Frese (2007) showed that entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity therefore confirming that entrepreneurs with higher self-efficacy have higher entrepreneurial intentions.

The study shows that entrepreneur temperament determines their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities. Variety of studies has additionally established that there's relationship between personality varieties and entrepreneurial intention (Obschonka et al., 2012; Zarafshani & Rajabi, 2011). On the far side entrepreneurial intention has conjointly stressed that venture start-up and business success rely on temperament type (Halim et al., 2011; Obschonka et al., 2013). Prieto (2011) believes that individuals with a proactive temperament are susceptible to develop into social entrepreneur due to their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities. Entrepreneurs acknowledge and exploit opportunity. Recognition of opportunities may be seen as an attribute, an equivalent factor with exploitation of the opportunities considering the danger related to it. Dehkordi et al., (2012) showed that there are variations within the personality attribute of entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneur based on bound traits (Need of accomplishment, Tendency to risk, Internal locus of control, Certainty, Tolerance of ambiguity, Innovativeness). The study highlighted that entrepreneurs have some essential psychological characteristics that result in the manifestation of specific temperament traits.

The findings show that entrepreneurship education increases competences, thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up. Entrepreneurship education has been connected to extend in entrepreneurial self-efficacy of potential entrepreneurs (Chell, 2008; Gürol & Atsan, 2006; Wilson, 2007). Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the abilities necessary to achieve business. With perceived ability to achieve business after getting the mandatory skills through entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurial intention of scholars are found to have accumulated (Hamidi et al., 2008). With abundant attention being paid to venture creation and tiny business management, it's been advocated that entrepreneurship education be inculcated into each program in educational activity (Gürol & Atsan, 2006; Pittaway & Cope, 2007).
5.3.4 Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation and Growth of Business

To investigate how an entrepreneur’s need for affiliation impacts the growth of his business, the findings indicate that entrepreneurs possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships. People with a high need for affiliation desire to spend maximum time preserving social relationships, joining groups and wanting to be loved. Hill (1987) identified four fundamental reasons behind individuals’ desires for social contact: positive affect; attention or praise; emotional support; and social comparison. Generally, individuals with high affiliate needs are not concerned with task accomplishments unless they are instrumental in building interpersonal relationships (Atkinson & Reitman, 1956). Boyatzis (1974) concluded that it is the approach component of certain individuals’ affiliate concerns that enables them to be effective helpers and managers.

It was established that entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings. According to McClelland (1975), there is a belief that people possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships. People with high need for affiliation try to avoid conflicts, and as they tend to do everything to sustain the good will of others and make exceptions to the rules based on the needs of their followers.

The finding revealed that entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers’ and employees’ needs, welfare, and development. Boyatzis (1979) reports that they support and empower them and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust. These individuals seek to work towards the firm’s objectives together with their subordinates and as they are able to see a person’s performance independent of the relationship; they provide them with feedback. Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their employees’ needs, welfare, and development.

Business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital and factors of production. In networked organizational forms like business groups, affiliated companies are joined by economic and social relationships, like family, kinship, ethnic, or relationship ties (Granovetter, 1995; Khanna & Rivkin, 2001). Traditionally, BGs have dominated the economies of rising markets, like Republic of India, Republic of Korea, Taiwan, and numerous latin american countries (Khanna & Rivkin, 2001; Leff, 1978). Their effects on firm performance (Khanna & Rivkin, 2001), innovation (Lee, Lee, & Gaur,
2017), and internationalization (Elango & Pattanaik, 2007; Gaur, Kumar, & Singh, 2014) are well documented. Above all, students argue that BGs are critical for filling voids within the economic establishments of imperfect markets for labor, capital, technology, and so forth (Guillen, 2000; Khanna & Rivkin, 2001). More recent studies debate although whether or not institutional transitions in rising economies have attenuated these affiliation benefits (Chittoor et al., 2015; Gaur & Delios, 2006).

Entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings. According to existing literature, businesses owned by women are usually small because of limited capital, thus may not be as good as large corporations when it comes to fulfilling affiliation needs. Studies have shown that individuals with a moderate need for affiliation are likely to be effective entrepreneurs (Boyatzis, 1974). With a moderate affiliate motive, women entrepreneurs may be motivated to build good working relationships with their co-workers. The higher the level of an individual’s affiliation, the more the network he/she creates, thus leading to greater awareness of his/her business venture. This in turn attracts potential investors, donors and customers who will increase the productivity of the firm.

5.4 Conclusion

5.4.1 Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement and Growth of the Business
In the competitive business world to succeed there is a need to incorporate innovation, self-confidence and maintain fierce competition. The culture adopted by entrepreneurs differs across gender and influence entrepreneurs’ ability to succeed. Women entrepreneurs have also made significant progress in new venture creation over years, although they still experience negative attitudes from the society. Entrepreneurs engage in the act because of motivation from extrinsic rewards such as high profits and recognition.

5.4.2 Risk Taking Propensity and Growth of Business
Risk taking is a trait is viewed as an important driver of entrepreneurial success, although entrepreneurs take time to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs to avoid failure in their venture. Across demography, younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs; similarly, female entrepreneurs are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty.
5.4.3 Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy and Growth of an Enterprise
Entrepreneurs are motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal, and this guides the choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties. In the dynamic business environment, it is necessary for them to exploit the opportunities. Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities and competences, thereby boosting the chance of success at start-up. Family also plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career.

5.4.4 Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation and Growth of Business
Entrepreneurs possess a desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships thus explain their high affiliate interest with their customers, and their employees’ needs, welfare, and development. Affiliation with business groups boosts organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital and factors of production. Similarly, group’s exposure and skill to effectively handle any matters arising and offer a highly trained talent pool and partnerships.

5.5 Recommendation

5.5.1 Recommendation for Improvement

5.5.1.1 Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement and Growth of the Business
Entrepreneur’s need to stimulate the growth of their business through increased innovation. Although entrepreneurial motivation differs across gender there is a need for both male and female to take up entrepreneurship as a way of creating employment. There is a need to create a positive culture towards entrepreneurship as it influences both the supply of entrepreneurs and the economic demand for the entrepreneurial function. Women have made significant progress in entrepreneurship and therefore need to shun the negative attitudes toward female entrepreneurs. The families need to offer the much-needed support to the women entrepreneurs.

5.5.1.2 Risk Taking Propensity and Growth of Business
Entrepreneurship risk taking, and risk perception are important drivers of entrepreneurial success. Entrepreneurs need to analyse and evaluate business situations more positively to avoid failure in their venture. While younger entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs, the risks taken should be worth it. The business owners also need to seek professional information as it plays important role in influencing risk attitudes.
5.5.1.3 Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy and Growth of an Enterprise
Entrepreneur need high persistent through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task that they have challenges in. Such actions have the potential of increasing the likelihood of business survival. Also, entrepreneurship need education in order to equips themselves with the necessary abilities, competences, and thereby boost their chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up and 86% agreed that family plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career.

5.5.1.4 Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation and Growth of Business
To increase the firm's growth, entrepreneurs need to maintain positive and significant interpersonal relationships with their customers and employees, thus create a high level of trust. There is a need to engage in business groups in order to boost organisation performance through easy accessibility to capital and other factors of production.

5.5.2 Recommendation for Further Studies
Growth as a process needs to be studied over time and this study was survey-based. Future studies should be done to determine why some entrepreneurs are successful and others not. In addition, more studies need to be undertaken to analyse the internal characteristics that lead to unsuccessful entrepreneurship.

REFERENCES


74


78


**APPENDIX 1: COVER LETTER**

Dear Respondent,

This letter is an introduction to the main reason as to why your participation in this questionnaire is required.

This study is a research study on the thesis title “Impact of Entrepreneurial motivation on business growth”. It is in partial fulfillment of one of the requirements for the attainment of the award of the Masters degree in Business Administration from the United States International University from where I am currently taking on my studies.
My research project endeavors to generate knowledge to be utilized in understanding how an entrepreneur’s motivation affects growth of business. The study specifically focuses on intrusive motivational factors that impact the growth of small and medium enterprises. As an entrepreneur, your views are of importance in my study and I would appreciate you responding to this questionnaire. This is purely for academic purpose and your response will be kept confidential and anonymous.

Thank you for your time, co-operation and contribution to my study. I shall be pleased to send you a copy of the findings of the study if you desire so.

Yours faithfully,

Shamsa Omar

QUESTIONNAIRE
IMPACT OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION ON BUSINESS GROWTH

This questionnaire aids to assist in data collection for academic purpose. The research intends to give an in-depth analysis of the impact of motivation on business growth. All information obtained, will be handled with high level of confidentiality. Do not incorporate identification or names in the questionnaire.
Please answer every question as in outlined by using either a cross(x) or (ticking) in the option that applies

SECTION A: General information

1. Gender
   - Male □
   - Female □

2. Age
   - 18 to 24 years □
   - 25 to 30 years □
   - 31 to 40 years □
   - 41 to 45 years □
   - Above 45 years □

3. Nationality
   - Kenyan □
   - Other □

4. What is your annual net income
   - Below Ksh. 500,000 □
   - 500,100 to 750,000 □
   - 750,001 to 1000,000 □
   - 1000,001 to 1250,000 □
   - 1250,001 to 1500,000 □
   - Above 1500,000 □

5. Occupation Status
   - Student □
   - Business man / Entrepreneur □
   - Employed □
   - Unemployed □
   - Other □

6. What is your religion
   - Christian – Catholic □
   - Hindu □
   - Christian – Protestant □
   - Buddhist □
Christian – Other □ Other □
Muslim □

7. Marital status
Married □
Single □
Divorced □
Widowed □

8. Education?
None □
Primary school □
Secondary school □
College / university □

SECTION B: Impact of Entrepreneur’s Need for Achievement on Business Growth

9. Kindly rate the following attributes on the basis of how they motivate you towards entrepreneurship where (5) most influential and (1) least influential

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<td>i Innovation</td>
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<td>ii aggressiveness</td>
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<td>iii self-confident</td>
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<td>iv Work for long hours</td>
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<td>v  fiercely competitive</td>
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<td>vi Intensely focused</td>
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10. Kindly rate the following non-economic factors in order of how they motivate you to perform with (1) being the most important

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<tr>
<td>i Desire for achievement</td>
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<td>ii Independence</td>
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<td>iii Personal development</td>
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<td>iv Improved social status</td>
<td>□</td>
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<td>v  Contribution to community welfare.</td>
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11. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on demography and culture with 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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12. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on entrepreneur need for achievement with 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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</table>
Entrepreneurs are motivated more by family security

SECTION C: Impact of Risk Taking Propensity on Business Growth

13. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on risk taking propensity with 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  In entrepreneurship risk taking and risk perception are viewed as important drivers of entrepreneurial success</td>
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<td>ii Higher risk perception leads to less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs</td>
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<td>iii Entrepreneurs have a tendency to evaluate business situations more positively than non-entrepreneurs</td>
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<td>iv Entrepreneurs often do anything to avoid failure in their venture</td>
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<td>v  Entrepreneurs tend to assess risk a lot of favourably.</td>
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14. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on effects of risk propensity on performance with 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tr>
<td>i  Risk taking is one among the process characteristics of the enterpriser that affects business outcomes</td>
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<td>ii Poor risk mitigation has an effect on performance</td>
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<td>iii Higher risk perception results in less risky decision-making by entrepreneurs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv Entrepreneurs have an inclination to gauge business situations a lot positively than non-entrepreneurs</td>
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Higher risk perception is related to higher revenue

15 Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on factors affecting risk propensity 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  Young entrepreneurs take more risk than older entrepreneurs</td>
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<td>ii ladies are more risk indisposed than men when facing uncertainty</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii Personality traits determine the variations in actions of individuals in similar scenarios</td>
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<td>iv Professional information, and scope of data play important roles in influencing risk attitudes</td>
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SECTION D: Impact of Entrepreneur’s Self-Efficacy on Business Growth

16. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on Intrinsic Motivators of Entrepreneurs and their Impact on Growth of Business 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tr>
<td>i  As an entrepreneur am motivated to succeed and accomplish a goal</td>
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<td>ii Am motivated as an entrepreneur by wealth and status</td>
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<td>iii Power and social acceptance influences my entrepreneurship ability.</td>
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17. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on entrepreneur’s self-efficacy 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

In an entrepreneurial context, self-efficacy can be defined as an individual’s confidence in his or her ability to succeed in entrepreneurial roles and tasks

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  Entrepreneurial self-efficacy influences choices, aspirations when entrepreneurs face difficulties</td>
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</table>
Entrepreneur who is high in self-efficacy is persistent through setbacks, and develop better plans and strategies for the task.

Entrepreneurial self-efficacy for starting a new business is a crucial factor in increasing the likelihood of business start-up activity.

Self-efficacy influence levels of commitment and performance relevance for entrepreneurship.

18. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on factors affecting entrepreneur’s self-efficacy 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tr>
<td>i  Entrepreneur temperament determines their aggressiveness in difficult social inequalities</td>
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<td>ii Recognition of opportunities is a vital attribute in order to exploit the opportunities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii Entrepreneurship education equips potential entrepreneurs with the necessary abilities.</td>
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<td>iv Entrepreneurship education increases competences, thereby boosting the chance of success for potential entrepreneurs at start-up</td>
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<td>v  Family plays a vital role in shaping entrepreneur career</td>
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SECTION E: Effect of Entrepreneur’s Need for Affiliation on Business Growth

18. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on need for affiliation 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  Entrepreneurs possess a basic desire to form and maintain a few enduring, positive and significant interpersonal relationships.</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii Entrepreneurs are accommodative and sympathetic and do not like hurting others’ feelings.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their customers’</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv Entrepreneurs high in affiliate interest are concerned with their employees’ needs, welfare, and development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>v  Entrepreneurs support and empower employees and create an atmosphere of openness and interpersonal trust.</td>
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19. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on affiliation and business performance 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  Business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to capital</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii Business groups boost organisation performance by providing easy accessibility to factors of production</td>
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<td>iii Group’s exposure and skill offer valuable insights on a way to effectively handle any matters arising.</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv Business affiliation offers a highly trained talent pool, and partnerships</td>
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**SECTION F: Business Growth**

20. Kindly rate your level of agreement to the following statements on growth of business 5 being strongly agree, 4- agree-, 3- not sure, 2- disagree, 1 strongly disagree

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<td>i  Has your business sales turnover increased over the last three years?</td>
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<tr>
<td>ii Has your business had an increase in staff growth over the last three years?</td>
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<tr>
<td>iii Has your business had an increase in revenue over the last three years?</td>
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<tr>
<td>iv Has your business production increased over the last three years?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>