

Women Students' Aspirations in Starting their Businesses in Botswana

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Evidence suggests that female entrepreneurs constitute a significant and growing proportion of owners and managers of small enterprises. Despite this, in Africa, traditionally some assistance programmes have not considered female entrepreneurs. However, recently, women entrepreneurship has drawn much interest from policy makers. This empirical research investigates women students' aspirations in venture creation in Botswana, contributing to this body of knowledge. Data was obtained from a survey of seventy six University of Botswana women students and a focus group discussion with ten of these women. The findings suggest that a majority of the women students (88 per cent) aspire to start their businesses when they graduate. Their aspirations were motivated by a combination of 'push' and 'pull' or triggering factors. The influence of role models on the entrepreneurial desire of the women students was evident. Additionally, the women cited independence, earning their own money and self-empowerment as their aspirations to start businesses. Their socio-cultural status was identified as an impediment to their business start-up aspirations. Recommendations for policy makers to devise programmes that would motivate women students to start their businesses are outlined.

Track: Management

1. Introduction

Women entrepreneurs in Africa experience the same problem faced by other women internationally - the difficulty in starting and growing an enterprise in a business environment that is male-dominated and often not recognising their efforts. Women in most developing African countries are engaged in the informal economy for household survival. In fact, up to 40-50 per cent of enterprises in developing countries are owned and run by women (Mugione, Aerni and Bartel, 2008). Statistics confirm that Botswana women migrate to urban areas for economic reasons and around 75 per cent of these women end up being engaged in the informal sector as they start their street side micro enterprises, which never grow (Ntseane, 2004). Importantly, this informal economy does not relate anyhow to career option, but household survival. Madichie (2009) also notes that the enterprises that are owned and managed by women entrepreneurs tend to be small and slow in growth as compared to those headed by their male counterparts. Additionally, many women support themselves and their families with the income they receive (Kantor, 2001) from these activities.

Women's entrepreneurship has been an untapped source of economic growth, despite their efforts in providing jobs for themselves and others (OECD, 2004). Evidently, women are under-represented in entrepreneurship (OECD, 2004). Thus, without proper governments' policy responses, this may act as a barrier to economic growth and employment. Consequently, this would negatively affect the overall economy. It is therefore justifiable to promote women entrepreneurship. The growing

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interest in entrepreneurship has resulted in policy makers focusing on small and medium sized enterprises (SMEs) as they are the pillars of economies in terms of generating employment and output. It is thus worth investigating women's (as a disadvantaged group) entrepreneurial aspirations in starting and growing their businesses.

Studies and assistance programmes in the small business sector in Africa have ignored female entrepreneurs, despite the fact that they constitute a significant and growing proportion of owners and managers of small enterprises (Mitchell, 2004). However, Botswana has begun to address women entrepreneurship as some business initiatives in the country have drawn particular interest from young people and women. For example, amongst others, the Local Enterprise Authority (LEA), which was established by the Botswana government in 2004, to develop and support the need of small, micro and medium sized enterprises (SMMEs), targets women, the youth and the unemployed in key sectors of manufacturing, tourism, agriculture, and any services that support these three business sectors. The World Bank (2011) confirms that as compared to other developing countries, Botswana displays a high rate of women owned and operated microenterprises, at 70 per cent. Thus, addressing the issue of women students' entrepreneurial aspirations toward self-employment is crucial.

The main reasons for focusing on women students in this study are as follows. First, studies, such as Hisrich and Brush (1991) have confirmed that the woman entrepreneur is not an "average" woman and that, she has problems not encountered by her male peers (Scott, 1986, p. 37). These setbacks have resulted in women entrepreneurs to be "under-resourced, under-experienced, under-protected and under-productive" (Marcucci, 2001, p.iii). Thus, to address these problems, women students' entrepreneurial aspirations are worth investigating, hence will contribute to existing knowledge. Secondly, students mostly comprise of the youth, which falls within the criteria for LEA entrepreneurship assistance programme. Moreover, GUESS (2008, p.1), note that a great amount of innovation power and entrepreneurial competences is embedded within students and can later lead to successful start-ups. Finally, as discussed above, women represent a minority of entrepreneurs and policy makers must be enlightened of this situation.

The predisposing and triggering factors affecting the entrepreneurial career aspirations (Huq and Moyeen, 2002) of female students in Botswana are explored. These factors are ascertained within a number of social constraining elements, such as patriarchy in Botswana. These limiting factors encompass access to resources such as land and finance, which enables an environment conducive to effective women entrepreneurial participation. In reiterating the issue of patriarchy in Botswana, Ntseane (2004, p.30), notes that as in most African societies, Botswana women's efforts are divided between household work and the management of their business. Moreover, other societal discriminatory issues, such as Botswana women being restricted by law from entering into binding legal contracts, without their husbands approval (if married in community of property) has capacity to negatively impact on successfully starting and growing their ventures (Ntseane, 2004, p38). Thus, with Botswana having committed itself to gender equality in 1996, as a signatory to the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), this situation is expected to improve.

The major aim of this research is to investigate factors that influence women students' entrepreneurial aspirations in Botswana. With policy makers focusing on entrepreneurship as instrumental to an economy's ability to innovate and create employment and output, programs in Botswana seem to have been instituted to interest young people and women. Thus, a study on entrepreneurial aspirations targeting young educated women is important. This research aims to identify what actually shapes women students' career aspirations towards self-employment, with a focus on predisposing factors, triggering factors and possession of a business idea (Scott and Twomey, 1988). The rest of this paper is organised as follows. Section two discusses the relevant literature. Section three explains conceptual issues. Section four presents research methods and data collection for this study. Section five examines the results and analysis of this investigation, with a focus on the "push" and "pull" factors of women students' aspirations to start their enterprises. Section six concludes this paper by outlining limitations, policy implications and recommendations for further research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Botswana Studies

The literature on women students' aspirations in venture creation, particularly in the African context, is very limited. In Botswana, a relevant study investigated students' career aspirations and their career-related self-concept (Plattner, Lechaena, Mmolawa and Mizingane (2009, p305). However, Plattner *et al* (2009) study did not investigate women students in isolation. Using a survey questionnaire, Plattner *et al* (2009) researched 349 University of Botswana students. They compared first and final year undergraduate students from various disciplines, to explore whether students who were about to complete their studies had more career-related self-confidence than those who had just commenced their studies (Plattner *et al* 2009, p305).

The results showed that only eight students considered entrepreneurship as a career option. A majority (seven) were final year students and three of them were enrolled in the Business Faculty (Plattner *et al* 2009, p306). Notably, the list of aspirations in this study had the capacity to provide self-employment for students (Plattner *et al* 2009, p306). The Plattner *et al* study does not provide an analysis of entrepreneurship as a career option by gender, hence is not suitable for comparison with our research. Plattner *et al* (2009) also doubted if students are psychologically ready to work or become entrepreneurs. This is due to their "lack of self-efficacy, combined with a predominately external locus of control, an external causal attribution and a tendency for avoidant-evasive coping strategies" (Plattner *et al* 2009, p309).

Another study, by Ntseane (2004), is more relevant to our research as it touches on the triggering factors derived from the emergence and development of the women's business idea. Ntseane interviewed thirteen small business women from the Botswana cities of Gaborone and Francistown to investigate the contextual and personal factors that facilitated or impeded the success of their small businesses. Additionally, how these women went through in building a successful business (Ntseane 2004, p38) was assessed. The participants in Ntseane's study identified "non-normative experience....such as teenage pregnancy, dropping out from school or dysfunctional marriage" (Ntseane, 2004). Thus, the loss of social support triggered their need for money. Divorced women had financial desperation, hence realised that they could

use the skills that they acquired from family members, common sense or observation to start and expand their businesses. As noted by Scott and Twomey (1988) the triggering impact of looking for work can be seen in its effect on students' perceptions of effects of unemployment. However, Ntseane (2004) differs from Plattner *et al* (2009) as her study investigated participants who were not university students and whose education level ranged from three to twelve years of schooling (Ntseane 2004, p.38). Arguably, contradictory to Plattner *et al* (2009) findings, Ntseane's participants, owing to their age and experience, could be psychologically mature to start their businesses.

Muranda (2011) researched socio-demographic characteristics and factors that influenced entrepreneurial motives for women in Botswana. Utilizing a survey questionnaire, Muranda interviewed 101 women entrepreneurs in Botswana. The results confirmed that these women started their businesses because of factors such as "independence, job discontent, loss of employment, family welfare or family tradition" (Muranda 2011, p355). Muranda discusses some aspects contained in Scott and Twommey (1988) framework, comprising the triggering (push) and predisposing (pull) factors. Thus, the Botswana women desire for independence is seen as a pull factor for those who already succeeded in their jobs, hence break from the monotony of the workplace (Muranda 2011). Muranda also found that the low educational levels amongst women resulted in the loss of employment being a push factor for them to go into entrepreneurship. Again, the study identified 54.5 per cent of female entrepreneurs coming from single households, hence having a desire to improve family welfare through entrepreneurial ventures. Overall, the "push" factors predominantly influenced women to start their businesses, rather than the "pull" factors.

2.2 International Studies

The most relevant study on students' career aspirations on entrepreneurship is by Scott and Twomey (1988). Although this study is not gender based, its contribution to the literature is significant, particularly in the identification of the strong theoretical framework on students' career aspirations in business start-up. Scott and Twomey (1988) derived the data from the US, England and Ireland studies to assess the potential long-term supply of entrepreneurs in the region by researching the career attitudes of students in higher education (Scott and Twomey, 1988). Whilst students showed a significant interest in entrepreneurship, they lacked knowledge about how to start and operate a small business and enter the highly competitive marketplace (Scott and Twomey 1988, p.6). The results of Scott and Twomey's study confirmed that predisposing (for example, background/personality/perception) factors, triggering (situational) factors and having a business idea acted both independently and in concert to shape career aspirations (Scott and Twomey 1988, p9).

Regarding the predisposing factors, the findings confirmed that respondents whose parents owned a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment and the lowest for large business (Scott and Twomey 1988, p.7). This issue is supported by the social learning and the cognitive developmental literature. It is well known that the family is one of the most influential contexts of socialization in childhood and adolescence (Dryler, 1998). The social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and the cognitive developmental theory (Kohlberg, 1966), both assume that children imitate adults, in particular, parents who are regarded as role models (Dryler, 1998).

Moreover, other researchers suggest that less educated women without managerial experience can acquire entrepreneurial skills through socialisation with a successful family member entrepreneur (Kim, Aldrich and Keister, 2003). Thus Scott and Twomey (1988) found that students' self-perception of career preference was high on their need for independence, their capacity to work hard and innovativeness. Students who had not secured jobs (23 per cent) preferred small business as compared to 34 per cent of those who had secured jobs (Scott and Twomey 1988, p8).

Subsequent studies (e.g. Brush, 1992; Buttner and Moore, 1997; Huq and Moyeen, 1999) have identified the aspects of push and pull factors, which are explained within Scott and Twomey (1988) theoretical components of triggering (push) and predisposing (pull) factors. These represent different factors that explain a variety of women's motivations to start a business. Orhan and Scott (2001) define push factors as "elements of necessity such as insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with a salaried job, difficulty in finding work and a need for flexible work schedule because of family responsibilities" (Orhan and Scott, 2001, p233). Thus, due to unemployment and other factors, women had been "pushed" into creating their jobs through starting their own small businesses (Huq and Moyeen, 1999). On the contrary, the "pull" factors relate to independence (to be own boss), self-fulfilment, entrepreneurial drive, ambition to improve the quality of working conditions, social status and power and desire for wealth (Huq and Moyeen, 1999; Orhan and Scott, 2001).

Another relevant study to this research, by Huq and Moyeen (1999), investigated future career aspirations of female graduates in Bangladesh. Marcucci (2001) confirms that in Bangladesh, the sustained growth of the export-oriented ready-made garments industry has created employment for over one million under 30 years old rural migrant women with formal education. Similar to Scott and Twomey (1988), Huq and Moyeen (1999) focused on the predisposing and triggering factors of women's aspirations to start their businesses. Huq and Moyeen (1999) collected information from 82 students and the results showed that a majority of the students (88 per cent) aspired to work for a private sector large business as their future career option, mainly for attractive salary, prestige and job satisfaction. These students (53 per cent) aspired to set up their own businesses as future career option, while 49 per cent aspired for a job with a government organisation (Huq and Moyeen 1999, p8). The results also confirmed that amongst factors that influenced the students' aspirations of business-ownership, the media was most influential than relatives and husbands (Huq and Moyeen 1999, p14). Triggering factors of business-ownership were positive motivations (pull factors) such as independence, attractive monetary return, creativity..... (Huq and Moyeen 1999, p15).

In another study, Huq and Moyeen (2002) conducted in depth interviews with 72 potential women in Bangladesh in order to establish their aspirations for business ownership. Their results showed that the majority of employed women (65 per cent) who wanted to start their own businesses were triggered by their desire for independence and attractive monetary return. Thus, the need for independence seems to be the main reason for business ownership, a situation confirmed by Scott and Twomey (1988). Thus inconsistent with Muranda (2011), Huq and Moyeen identified that positive (pull) factors played a significant role than negative (push) factors. This is probably because Muranda's respondents were largely uneducated women as compared to Huq and Moyeen's whose participants were educated women.

Regarding the predisposing factors, a majority of these women (57 per cent) were influenced by their husbands and friends. However, departing from Scott and Twomey (1988) study discussed above and others (for example, Van Auken, Spehens, Fry and Silva, 2006), the influence of family entrepreneurial role models in their career aspirations was not evident, probably due to the fact that women in Bangladesh appear to aspire to start their businesses for economic returns for the family. Van Auken *et al* (2006) examined differences in role model influence between the US and Mexican students. Their results showed that role models who owned businesses had a significantly greater influence on the career intentions of US respondents than role models that did not own a business. However, whether or not Mexican role models owned a business had no significant difference among Mexican students (Van Auken *et al* 2006, p334).

Orhan and Scott (2001) researched situations on women's decisions to become entrepreneurs. In-depth interviews were conducted with 25 successful women entrepreneurs in France. The level of education, push and pull factors was amongst the categorical themes that were used in the interviews. A majority of these women were educated, with university and professional qualifications. Only four did not have a degree but held managerial positions gained after experience (Orhan and Scott, 2001). It must be noted that, unlike this study's participants (university women), Orhan and Scott (2001) participants were mostly educated women who already had significant work experience.

Thus this research sheds light on a variety of factors relevant to the "push and pull" factors that are evident in women's venture creation. Amongst the push factors identified, the most dominant one was "boredom in the previous job, associated with lack of any career developmental potential" (Orhan and Scott 2001, p.236). Another factor was due to a lay-off situation, as these women were reluctant to "sell themselves again in the job market" (Orhan and Scott 2001, p.236). The pull factors outnumbered the push factors, with a common factor of "self-achievement, often expressed in terms of challenges and the willingness to see if they could manage the existing business or create a profitable venture on their own (Orhan and Scott 2001, p.236). A need for independence was prominent amongst three of the women. They also disliked the hierarchical structure of their previous employment, hence aspired to be entrepreneurs. Three other women advocated innovation as they wanted to put their ideas into practice without allowing these concepts to be taken by others. Two other women expressed social interest in offering their products as they identified an opportunity to practice their skills while providing a service to society (Orhan and Scott, 2001).

Wang and Wong (2004) surveyed 5,326 undergraduate students in Singapore to investigate the level and determinants of interest in entrepreneurship among university undergraduate students in Singapore. Due to traditional Asian culture that discourages women from working as employees and employers (Wang and Wong 2004, pp164-165), these authors hypothesized that, "the level of interest in entrepreneurship is related to gender; males' interest is higher (Wang and Wong, 2004, p165). Their hypothesis was confirmed as the results showed less interest in entrepreneurship among female university students in Singapore. This is not due to their risk-averse attitude, but the lack of entrepreneurial knowledge as well as their perceived role in society (Wang and Wong, 2004, p172). Arguably, the lack of knowledge in entrepreneurship could be because the surveyed students were not

business students, as they were from the engineering, science and computing discipline. Wang and Wong (2004) also hypothesised that, “the level of interest is related to family business background; respondents.....are more likely to be interested in entrepreneurship” (Wang and Wong 2004, p165). However, consistent with Van Auken *et al*, (2006) study on the US students, family business experience was found to have a significant influence on Singapore students in starting their own businesses.

The Global University Entrepreneurial Spirit Students’ Survey (GUESSS, 2008), a project that examines the entrepreneurial behaviour and intentions of students is another relevant study. The GUESSS compared, on an international level, the entrepreneurial intention and activity of university students (GUESSS 2008, p1). The most relevant part of this survey is the future career aspirations from a gender perspective. Students were requested to provide information regarding their future career aspirations directly after their studies (less than five years). The results showed that on an international average, 16.9 per cent of the male students had an interest in self-employment, compared to 15.1 per cent of the female students. However, even after some years of working experience (more than five years), the results showed a higher proportion of men preferring independent employment, compared to women. As GUESSS (2008) notes, “the possible explanation could be that women would prefer to do something else, like for example, start a family”. Thus, this explanation confirms the well-known cultural and stereotypical attitudes about women starting a family and becoming involved in the performance of home duties, as compared to men.

2.3 Women Entrepreneurs and Social Barriers

The United Nations Industrial Development [UNID] Report (2001) suggests that “women’s entrepreneurial activities are not only a means for economic survival, but also have positive social repercussions for the women themselves and their social environment” (UNID 2001, p1). However, social barriers have hindered women entrepreneurship. Studies, especially those conducted predominantly in the Western countries, have identified the socio-cultural status of women as the main barrier against female entrepreneurship (Bruni *et al*, 2004). Gender inequality is a prevailing situation, not only in Africa, but worldwide. Due to cultural beliefs, women have been subjected to inequality with their male counterparts. Moreover, Orhan and Scott (2001) suggest that women experience truncated or stopped careers more often than men due to their role as mothers, hence see entrepreneurship as a vehicle for accommodating their work and family roles. It is, therefore, important to understand the contemporary position of women within the socio-cultural context in relation to venture creation and growth. The inequality faced by women, such as patriarchy, has limited their access to resources that would facilitate their effective entrepreneurial engagement.

In Botswana, male offspring are privileged over female offspring under customary law of inheritance (Griffiths, 2002). Using Botswana as a case study, Kalabamu (2006, p237) examined the effects of patriarchy on women’s access, control and ownership of land in southern Africa. Kalabamu cites Molokomme *et al* (1998, p28) discussion on inheritance under customary laws in Botswana. The main issue relevant to land inheritance that could limit women entrepreneurs to commence and grow their businesses is access to land. Molokomme *et al* (1998, p28) as cited by Kalabamu

(2006, p241), notes that the child's sex determines the amount of inheritance entitlement. For example, the eldest son gets the largest share of their parents' deceased estate on the assumption that he would take care of the siblings. Daughters would receive smaller shares on the ground that they would be their in-laws' concerns upon marriage. Generally, as in most African countries, women in Botswana move from their family home to their in-laws home upon marriage. Clearly, a daughter receiving less share of the land in Botswana is a barrier to a competent entrepreneurial woman, who may use this land effectively in entrepreneurial activities. However, customary inheritance rules and practices have since been challenged and modified as a result of western and colonial influences. This includes the introduction of waged employment and capitalist or market-oriented economies (Kalabamu, 2009).

Similarly, in Bangladesh, although Muslim personal law and Hindu inheritance law permits property inheritance for women, they however, inherit less than men. On the contrary, Christian personal law, predominantly Catholic, permits daughters and sons to receive equal share of inheritance (Marcucci, 2001). In Zimbabwe, although the 1997 Inheritance Act had been revised to make it gender-neutral, where neither sons nor daughters can be given inheritance preference, patriarchal tradition, however, had made compliance with this amendment difficult (Marcucci, 2001).

Another social barrier is that in Botswana, women married under traditional law (or "in common property") are legally viewed as minors. McDonald (1996, p1327) note that, married women in Botswana are still subject to their husbands to authorise their credit and property matters. This includes any other legally binding contract. For example, married women in Botswana cannot open personal bank accounts or business without their husbands' permission (McDonald, 1996, p1327). This situation is supported by Sena, Scott and Roper (2008) that as compared to men, women are less likely to seek external finance for their business start-up as they perceive stronger financial barriers. Ntseane (2004) study identified that women growing their ventures often exposed them to social injustices in their society. These included confronting challenges such as gender discrimination....violence situations while on business trips, such as kidnappings and robbery ambushes in neighbouring countries (Ntseane, 2004, p39).

3. Conceptual Issues

After reviewing the literature (Scott and Twomey, 1998; Huq & Moyeen, 1999; Orhan and Scott 2001; Muranda, 2011), it can be concluded that there are certain factors that influence women career aspirations. These factors are represented by three broad variables, comprising of predisposing factors, triggering factors and possessing a business idea (Scott and Twomey 1988). Scott and Twomey (1988) explain predisposing factors as background/personality/perception factors that develop several years or more. For this study, these include family background; in particular, immediate or broader family owned small businesses as role models. Work experience and perception of business ownership are additional predisposing variables that may shape students' aspirations to become entrepreneurs.

Other broad variables regarded by Scott and Twomey (1988) as situational and short-term, are triggering factors. These are the reasons why the students are interested in setting up businesses. These could include "the effects of looking for work, career advice received, and the prospect of unemployment" (Scott and Twomey 1988, p6).

Another factor that may influence women students to start their businesses is possession of a business idea, which may be instigated by both predisposing and triggering factors. Thus, these factors may generate a business idea, which may be an ultimate career preference. Our contribution to this model is that, although the socio-cultural status of women can influence women's career aspirations, it can also act as an impediment to venture creation. Notably, the barriers to women venture start-up are not fully discussed in this paper.

4. The Methodology and Data Collection

This is a qualitative research that attempts to answer the question: What shapes Botswana women students' career aspirations in starting their own businesses?

Data was collected between December, 2010 and July, 2011. A questionnaire survey and a focus group discussion (FGD) were used to collect information from female students in Botswana regarding their aspirations in starting their enterprises. The questionnaire method of data collection was predominantly used as it is cost effective because it takes less of the researcher's time and it is more representative and reliable. The questionnaire survey can also be useful for collecting demographic profile data (Stevenson, 1990). However, there are numerous shortcomings of using survey data in this kind of research. The main disadvantage is that the closed questions in survey questionnaire would not facilitate the depth of the answers from respondents. In terms of women entrepreneurs, Stevenson (1990) notes that survey questionnaires "attempts little to discover the world of a woman as a business owner, but impose on her an already structured perception of the world of the business owner based on male centered notions" (Stevenson, 1990, p.442). However, in an attempt to deal with these problems, this research also used a focus group discussion to supplement information not collected by questionnaires as well as substantiation of some of the findings obtained from the questionnaire survey.

Data was collected in two stages. The first stage involved a questionnaire survey of 100 University of Botswana women students from the Faculty of Business, in December, 2010. However, 76 of these questionnaires were usable. The students were requested to complete the questionnaires during class and were immediately collected by the researcher upon completion. It took the students around forty five to sixty minutes to fill out the questionnaires. A synthesis of reports and information from other published sources, such as Government, the Internet, business and professional bodies has been used. Responses from the main survey had been analysed appropriately using a Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The second stage of the research was based on a focus group discussion with ten women students from the same surveyed group, in July 2011. Robinson (1999) defines a focus group as "an in-depth, open-ended group discussion of 1-2 hours' duration that explores a specific set of issues on a predefined and limited topic... and are convened under the guidance of a facilitator" (Robinson 1999, p.905). It must be noted that focus group interviews involve a small number of participants, hence the results cannot be generalised to the whole population, if used in isolation. Group dynamics can also be a challenge for the moderator. The interpretation of the results is usually a painstaking process and requires experienced analysts. However, the presence of the researcher, with the capacity to guide participants, adds value to the study. A focus group discussion was conducted mainly to validate the in-depth

information obtained from students about their aspirations to start their own businesses in Botswana through the survey. Moreover, the presence of the researcher enabled further clarification on answers that may have not been understood by the questionnaire respondents. Thus this addressed the “how” and “why” questions.

The researchers contacted twenty of the students who had indicated in the survey questionnaire that they were willing to participate further in the study. However, only ten students were able to attend the focus group discussion session because most of the students had finished their studies and others had gone to their respective villages for their semester break. The women students’ age ranged from 18 to 26. These students knew each other and this was an advantage as they related very well during the discussion. Moreover, as Kitzinger (1994) notes, friends and colleagues relate each other’s comments to actual incidents in their shared daily lives. Prior to conducting a focus group discussion, the researchers identified some questions for the purpose of exploring a set of specific issues (Kitzinger, 1994) related to women students’ views and experiences on their aspirations in business start-up. Basically, the researcher, as a facilitator, asked the participants to reflect on a number of issues of concern identified from the preliminary results of the first stage of the study, which needed further clarification. These issues were the important factors that influence women students’ aspirations towards business ownership. These included the education level, family background, awareness, access to money, government policies, confidence and the media. The FGD lasted for four hours and was divided into three sessions. The first session comprised of an “ice breaker” and motivation for business start-ups. The “ice breaker” was to create a relaxed environment for the students. The students were required to discuss who they are now and how they see themselves in future. Participants were also requested to outline their motivation for business start-up with a focus on the “pull” and “push” factors.

The second session was on moderating factors for business start-up decision. Preliminary results of the survey (stage one) confirmed that amongst other factors, the media (television, radio, newspapers, magazines, etc.) and relatives who are entrepreneurs influenced women students’ desire to start their businesses. The participants were therefore requested to discuss the extent of the influence the media and relatives had on their desire for venture creation. The third session required participants to identify barriers to business start-up in Botswana and recommendations on combating these barriers. Thus, the interactive setting allowed participants to talk to one another, asking questions and commenting on others’ views and experiences, hence influencing each other (Robinson, 1999). Moreover, this enabled participants to discuss their own perception of the barriers, hence bringing an element of richness to data that was missed in the survey. The data had been transcribed and analysed through identification of key themes, linking issues discussed to the underlying subject matter identified by the survey results, such as moderating factors for business start-up decision and barriers to women business start-up.

5. Results and Analysis

5.1 The Respondents’ Profile

The responses, predominantly from undergraduate women students, produced 76 usable responses from 100 distributed questionnaires. The profile of respondents represented personal background. This included educational qualifications, field of

study, age of respondents, type of family, family income, parents' occupation, type of business interested in and perception on particular problem to start-up. Respondents' educational background is summarised in Table 5-1 below. A majority of the students (64 per cent) highest educational qualification was a Bachelor's degree, followed by 18 per cent with a Diploma. Only one student had a Masters degree. Forty two (42) per cent studied Accounting, followed by Information Systems (21 per cent), Management (18 per cent) and Finance (9 per cent). Around 79 per cent of the respondents were between the age of 18 and 25 and the rest were mature aged students (see Table 5-1). The focus group participants' education profiles were as follows. Out of the ten participants, two had just completed a Bachelor of Commerce (Accounting) qualification. The rest of the students were completing their final year of Bachelor of Commerce.

Table 5.1: Educational Background

Educational Background	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Qualifications:		
Secondary	12	15.8
Diploma	14	18.4
Bachelor	49	65.5
Masters	1	1.3
Overall	76	100
Field of Study:		
Information Technology	1	1.3
Information Systems	16	23.1
Accounting	32	42.1
Tourism and Hospitality	4	5.3
Management	14	18.4
Marketing	2	2.6
Finance	7	9.2
Overall	76	100

Around 79 per cent of the respondents were between the age of 18 and 25 and the rest were mature aged students (see Table 5-2).

Table 5.2: Respondents' Age

Age	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
18-25	60	78.9
26-30	40	5.3
31-35	2	2.6
36-40	4	5.3
41-45	4	5.3
45+	2	2.6
Overall	76	100

5.2 Family Background

Responses on family background, which includes the type of family, monthly family income and parents' occupation, are presented in Table 5-3. A majority of respondents (75 per cent) were from a nuclear family, followed by 18 per cent from a joint family. Only 6 per cent of the respondents were single mothers. A majority of respondents' (55.3 per cent) bread winners earned a monthly income of between P5,000 to P20,000 (US \$625-\$2,500). Around 36.8 per cent of the respondents' bread

winners earned less than P5,000 (Table 5-3). Furthermore, 47.4 per cent of the respondents' fathers were employed and 50 per cent reported that their mothers were employed. Around 33 per cent of the respondents' mothers were housewives. Interestingly, none of the respondents stated that their fathers were house husbands, confirming the stereotypical attitude that only women perform home duties. Thirty four (34) per cent reported their fathers as farmers, whilst 9 per cent said their mothers were farmers. A majority of respondents' (18.4 per cent) fathers owned a business as compared to their mothers (7.9 per cent) (Table 5-3).

Table 5.3: Respondents' Family Background

Family Background	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Type of Family		
Nuclear Family	57	75.5
Joint Family	14	18.4
Single Mother	5	6.6
Overall	76	100
Family Income		
Less than P5,000	28	36.8
P5,000 to less than \$20,000	42	55.3
P20,000 to less than P35,000	3	3.9
More than P35,000	3	3.9
Overall	76	100
Father's Occupation		
Farmer	26	34.2
Business	14	18.4
Job	36	47.4
Overall	76	100
Mother's Occupation		
Farmer	7	9.2
Business	6	7.9
Job	38	50.0
Housewife	25	32.9
Overall	76	100

Around 86 per cent of the respondents were single and 15 per cent married (Table 5-4). Eighty four per cent did not have children and 16 per cent had children. This is justifiable as a majority of the students (around 79 per cent) were young, with age range of 18-25. Five per cent of respondents had one child and another five per cent had two children. Around three per cent of the respondents had three children and one per cent had four children. One respondent (one per cent) had seven children (see Table 5-4).

Table 5.4: Respondents Marital Status and Number of Children

Marital Status and Number of Children	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Marital Status		
Single	65	85.5
Married	11	14.5
Overall	76	100
Number of Children		
None	64	84.2
Two	4	5.3
Three	4	5.3
Four	1	1.3
Seven	1	1.3
Overall	76	100

A majority of the respondents (48.7 per cent) were interested in a service business, followed by retail (18 per cent) and manufacturing (7.9 per cent). However, eleven respondents did not provide an answer to this question (see Table 5-5). Generally, statistics show that a majority of women in Botswana work in the service industry. In 2007, there were a total of 6,709 service workers, of which 3,719 (55 per cent), were women (Central Statistics Office, 2007).

Table 5.5: Type of Business Interest

Industry	Number of Respondents	Percentage (%)
Service	37	48.7
Commercial Business	4	5.3
Manufacturing	6	7.9
Retail	14	18.4
Real Estate	2	2.6
Clothing	2	2.6
Missing	11	14.5
Overall	76	100

The results show that overall, of the respondents' parents; their mothers were more educated than their fathers. As shown on Table 5-6, around 15 per cent of respondents' fathers had no education and 3 per cent stated that their mothers had no education. Around 29 per cent and 25 per cent of respondents' mothers and fathers had education level of standard 1-7 respectively. Around 12 per cent of respondents confirmed that their parents' (both father and mother) education level was form 4-5. The same proportion of respondents' (12 per cent) parents had university education of bachelors and masters. Around 20 per cent and 11 per cent of their mothers and fathers respectively attained a diploma level of education (Table 5-6). These figures show a high proportion of educated women than men. Thus, overall, the majority of respondents' parents were literate.

Table 5.6: Parents' Academic Qualifications

Qualification	Father		Mother	
	Number of respondents	Percentage	Number of respondents	Percentage
No education	11	14.5	3	3.9
Standard 1-7	19	25.0	22	28.9
Form 1-3	3	3.9	14.5	14.5
Form 4-5	9	11.8	9	11.8
Diploma	8	10.5	15	19.7
Bachelors	5	6.6	7	9.2
Masters	4	5.3	2	2.6
Others	1	1.3	1	1.3
Total	60	78.9	70	92.1
Missing	16	21.1	6	7.9
Overall	76	100	76	100

Fifty (50) per cent of the respondents' family members operated a business (Table 5-7). A majority of the respondents (22 per cent) stated that these family members were men. Only nine per cent confirmed that the family members who operated a business were women, and 17 per cent stated that they were both men and women. Thus, this shows that a majority of respondents' family members who operated a business were males.

Table 5.7: Gender of Family Members Operating a Business

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
No response	3	3.9
Male	17	22.4
Both female and male	13	17.1
Female	7	9.2
Missing	36	47.4
Overall	76	100

The respondents were asked if they were involved in the business in any way. A majority of the students were not involved (around 63 per cent). This is expected as the respondents were students and probably seeking to concentrate on their school work. However, 18 per cent were involved and only seven per cent confirmed that they were paid a salary from the business. Three per cent of the respondents were paid a share of the profit from the business. Thus, these women students were rewarded for keeping their family business going as well as earning income whilst completing their studies.

5.3 Predisposing Factors

5.3.1 Parental/Family Role Models and Experience/Career Preference

Situations that influenced women students to start their businesses are seen as predisposing (pull) factors. This study confirms that women students' involvement in their family members' businesses (42 per cent) influenced them of the desire to own businesses. This suggests the importance of parental role models (Dryler, 1998). As shown on Table 5-8, forty two (42) per cent confirmed that their involvement in family

members' businesses influenced them to think of owning businesses. Around 12 per cent said this situation did not influence them.

Table 5.8: Involvement in Family Business' Influence on Starting Own Business

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
No	9	11
Yes	32	42.1
Total	41	53.9
Missing	35	46.1
Overall	76	100

This is consistent with Scott and Twomey (1988) finding that those students whose parents owned and operated a small business showed the highest preference for self-employment and lowest preference for large business. The results of this study show that 50 per cent of the respondents' parents own a business. The respondents from the focus group discussion mostly related their aspirations in starting their own businesses to parental influence. One participant became emotional as she revealed:

“My mother was a small business owner.... She passed away six years ago. She really influenced my desire to start my own business. She operated a clothing boutique and vegetable shop. She would travel to South Africa to buy her stock and unfortunately, she died in a road accident when she was travelling back home (Botswana). It was through my mum that I have a network of contacts and through these contacts, I know I will start my own business... My interaction with different entrepreneurial people motivates me to start my own business...” (Participant A).

Another participant also revealed that:

“My father is an author of mathematics books and he is the most influential person in my desire to start my own business as he earns revenue from his publications....” (Participant B).

These participants' assertion confirms Dryler (1998) argument that family is one of the most influential contexts of socialisation in childhood and adolescence. However, Participant B believed that the influence could be limited if the parents believe that the child lacks entrepreneurial capabilities.

The respondents who were not influenced by family members to own their businesses aspired to work for private companies. Another surveyed respondent stated that:

“My family business had not been generating profits for almost three years and this has demotivated me to start my own business when I finish my studies.... I would rather work for a large business”.

Women students who were graduating were asked to indicate their preference for the type of employment upon leaving the university. The organisations stated were, government, private sector large business, private sector small/medium business, own business and joint family business. They were required to rank how attracted they

were by such employment on a scale 1-5 (very unattractive, unattractive, undecided, attractive, and very attractive).

As shown on Table 5-9, working for the private sector was appealing to a majority of women graduates, at 56.6 per cent, followed by working for the small/medium business (47.7 per cent), own business (44.7 per cent), government (35 per cent) and joint family business at 17.1 per cent. Obviously, the students would prefer (“pulled”) to work for private sector large business as there is more security in terms of resources and a higher salary, compared to government. Working for a large private sector organisation is supported by Huq and Moyeen (1999) whose respondents wanted status, attractive salary and prestige. Working for government is less appealing for women graduates, probably due to a fear of bureaucratic red tape in the public sector. Again, working for small /medium sized businesses confirm Scott and Twomey (1988) assertion that small organisations are perceived to yield an opportunity of creativity and originality, where there is less supervision and an opportunity for employees to take their own responsibility.

A joint family business is the least preferred, probably attributable to lack of resources and that they may not be willing to grow as they are not risk takers. Overall, accessing financial resources and capabilities place family businesses at a disadvantage and they tend to have a conservative attitude and be risk-adverse (Fernandez and Nieto, 2005; Chittenden, Hall, and Hutchinson, 1996). Women students in Botswana seem to be striving for work experience and job satisfaction.

Table 5.9: Preference of Employment Type Upon Graduation

Response	Government		Private Sector		Small/ Medium Business		Own Business		Joint Family Business	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-5										
Very Unattractive (1)	7	9.2	1	1.3	2	2.6	2	2.6	16	21.1
Unattractive (2)	10	13.2	3	3.9	7	9.2	5	6.6	9	11.8
Undecided (3)	13	17.1	2	2.6	18	23.7	8	10.5	11	22.4
Attractive (4)	11	14.5	7	9.2	18	23.7	6	7.9	11	14.5
Very attractive (5)	8	10.5	36	47.4	4	5.3	28	36.8	2	2.6
Total	49	64.5	49	64.5	49	64.5	49	64.5	49	64.5

N denotes number of respondents

A majority of respondents (56.1 per cent) confirmed that their parents influenced them on their most preferred employment, followed by the university (47.3 per cent), then the media (39.5 per cent) (Table 5-10). Generally, in Botswana and other countries, parents have a significant influence on their children’s career choices. Moreover, a majority of women students (57.9 per cent) reported their mothers as either owning a business or having a job. Around 59.3 per cent of the students also reported their mothers’ level of education as ranging from form three to university education. Additionally, 65.8 per cent reported their fathers also either owning a business or employed, with an education level of form three to university education (39.4 per cent). This is supported by Bundura (1977) socialisation theory that children tend to imitate their parents, hence impacting on their career options. Thus, it is not surprising that a majority of women students ranked their parents on the top of the list as influential in their most preferred employment. Overall, their parents’ level of education and

involvement in entrepreneurship and work, influences their most preferred employment.

Table 5.10: Influence on the Choice of the Most Preferred Employment

Response	Parents		Siblings		Friends		Media		University		Work Experience		Relatives		Spouse	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No Influence (1)	5	6.6	17	22.4	11	14.5	6	7.9	3	3.9	12	15.8	16	21.1	17	22.4
Little Influence (2)	2	2.6	2	2.6	4	5.3	5	6.6	1	1.3	7	9.2	11	14.5	1	1.3
Undecided (3)	6	7.9	9	11.8	12	15.8	7	9.2	8	10.5	7	9.2	7	9.2	2	2.6
Moderate Influence (4)	17	22.4	9	11.8	11	14.5	16	21.1	15	19.7	11	14.5	8	7.9	3	3.9
Strong Influence (5)	18	23.7	11	14.5	10	13.2	14	18.4	21	27.6	10	13.2	6	7.9	5	6.6
Total	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2	48	63.2

N denotes number of respondents

5.3.2 Work Experience and Business Ownership

The participants were asked if they were interested in starting a business. A majority (88 per cent) stated that they were interested in venture creation and 10.5 per cent were not keen to start their own business (see Table 5-11).

Table 5.11: Interest in Starting Own Business

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
No	8	10.5
Yes	67	88.2
Missing	1	1.3
Overall	76	100

The women who participated in the FGD showed a high interest in venture creation, basically for their independence and empowerment, as they aspired to be their own bosses. One participant wanted to work for fifteen years to gain experience before she could set up her own business. This confirms Plattner et al's (2009) doubt that students may not be psychologically ready to work or become entrepreneurs. Another student planned to obtain an accounting (professional) qualification and then set up her own accounting practice. Three of the participants aspired to gain work experience that would allow them to perform consultancy work for the government and other large businesses. Two other participants were interested in property management business. Overall, all participants asserted that making a significant amount of money to support their lifestyles will pull them into creating their own businesses. When requested to state how they wanted to set up their businesses, a majority (50 per cent), indicated by themselves, followed by 22.4 per cent who indicated that they would like businesses with friends (Table 5-12). The lowest (3.9 per cent) figure wanted businesses with their husbands. This lowest figure relates to a lower number of married respondents (11.9 per cent).

Table 5.12: How to Set-up the Business

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
By myself	38	50
With friends	17	22.4
With husbands	3	3.9
With other family members	7	9.2
Missing	11	14.5
Overall	76	100

As Table 5-13 shows, 5.3 per cent of women respondents would like to start their business with 4 male friends and 10.5 per cent with female friends. Only one respondent indicated setting up a business with both 30 male and female friends. This suggests that women students feel more comfortable working with other female friends.

Table 5.13: Starting Business with Either Male or Female Friends

With friends		No. of male friends	With friends		Number of female friends
Number of respondents	Percentage		Number of respondents	Percentage	
3	3.9	1	4	5.3	1
4	5.3	2	8	10.5	2
3	3.9	3	2	2.6	3
3	1.3	30	1	1.3	30
Total	11	14.5	15	19.7	
Missing	65	85.5	61	80.3	
Overall	76	100	76	100	

Table 5-14 shows that 10.5 per cent of the respondents indicated that they would like to start their businesses with male family members and 6.5 per cent with female family members. Those who want business with male family members, 5.3 per cent indicated to setting up business with only 1 male, 3.9 per cent with 2 males and 1.3 per cent with 3 males. Those who indicated starting a business with female members, 3.9 per cent wish to start with 1 female and 2.6 per cent with 2 female family members (see Table 5-14). A majority of women students prefer starting business with male family members, probably for security reasons. For example, in Botswana, men are in a better position in land inheritance (Molokomme, 1988) and access to finance than women (Sena, et al., 2008).

Table 5.14: Starting Business With Either Male Or Female Family Members

With male family members		Number of male family members	With female family members		Number of female family members
Number of Respondents	Percentage		Number of respondents	Percentage	
4	5.3	1	3	3.9	1
3	3.9	2	2	2.6	2
1	1.3	3			
8	10.5		5	6.5	
Missing	65	85.5	61	93.5	
Overall	76	100	76	100	

As Table 5-15 shows, around 23.7 per cent of respondents are trying or have attempted to set-up a business. A majority (67.1 per cent) indicated that they never attempted starting a business. This is because their priority is to complete their studies first.

Table 5.15: Trying to Set Up a Business

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Yes	18	23.7
No	51	67.1
Missing	7	9.2
Overall	76	100

Table 5-16 surprisingly shows that 73.7 per cent of the respondents believe that as compared to men, being a woman is not giving them particular problems in setting up a business. These women students are well educated and assertive enough to succeed in business start-up. This was evident during the focus discussion which revealed personal ambition amongst the young women students. However, 26.3 per cent believe that being a woman is making them encounter particular problems in setting up a business. This is because only a few students were already operating their businesses, or involved in their parents'/relatives' businesses, hence aware of business related problems.

Table 5.16: Does Being A woman Give Particular Problems

Response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Yes	20	26.3
No	56	73.7
Overall	76	100

The participants were also asked to rank the influence they thought their parents, siblings, friends, the media, the university, work experience, relatives, spouses and others had on their desire to start their businesses. As shown on Table 5-17, a majority of respondents (65.8 per cent) confirmed that the media influenced them on their desire to start business, followed by the university (51.4 per cent), then their parents (47.4 per cent). The focus group participants confirmed that the international media had a major impact on the participants' desire for venture creation, than the local media. The participants cited the television movie called "The Apprentice" by Donald Trump), which shows the high level of ambition. They revealed that fashion designers are passionate about growing their businesses, and this has a major influence on them. They believe that talk shows such as Oprah, portrays successful business women. Moreover, visual pictures had a major influence on their venture creation desire. One participant said:

"Seeing people living in poverty on TV really motivates me so start my own business in future, mainly to change the world through involvement in social initiatives" (Participant F).

Thus the women believed that social entrepreneurship is important in Botswana society. This is confirmed by an Indian study (Vijaya and Kamalanabhan, 1998), of 195 potential women entrepreneurs in India which found that these women were driven by providing services to the community, rather than motivated by money.

Table 5.17: Extent of Influence in Desire to Start Business

Response	Parents		Siblings		Friends		Media		University		Relatives		Spouse	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-5														
No influence (1)	12	15.8	22	28.9	15	19.7	8	10.5	17	22.4	26	34.2	31	40.8
Little Influence (2)	2	2.6	7	9.2	10	13.2	3	3.9	2	2.6	11	14.5	2	2.6
Undecided (3)	15	19.7	12	15.8	8	10.5	4	5.3	7	9.2	9	11.8	1	1.3
Moderate Influence (4)	13	17.1	12	15.8	16	21.1	24	31.6	16	21.1	12	15.8	2	2.6
Strong Influence (5)	23	30.3	12	15.8	16	21.1	26	34.2	23	30.3	7	9.2	4	5.3
Total	65	80.5	65	85.5	65	85.5	65	85.5	65	85.5	65	85.5	65	85.5
Missing	11	14.5	11	14.5	11	14.5	11	14.5	11	14.5	11	14.5	11	14.5
Overall	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100

N denotes number of respondents

The participants were also asked to rank the influence they thought their parents, siblings, friends, the media, the university, work experience, relatives, spouses and others had on their lack of interest in business ownership. This was on a scale 1-5, 1 representing (no influence), 2 (little influence), 3 (undecided), 4 (moderate influence) and 5 (strong influence). Not many participants responded to this question. However, the highest proportion of participants (9.5 per cent) of those who responded to moderate and strong influence together, ranked parents, followed by siblings, the media, relatives and spouse (5.2 per cent) (see Table 5-18). When asked to explain how or in what way their lack of interest in business-ownership was influenced by their parents, siblings, friends, the media, the university, work experience, relatives and spouses, the participants gave the following responses:

“Some peers and friends at times think.... I just dream too big dreams that can’t happen practically and they make fun of me”.

Another respondent said, *“.... They [parents] have tried to set up their business and ended up with debts such that some of them lost their houses on top of their business premises”.*

Respondents who were not influenced by the above stated parties commented that they never lacked interest. One pointed out that: *“... there was never any influence because I never spoke about it to anyone”.* Another said, *“I am so much interested that you can never imagine”.*

Table 5.18: Extent of Influence on Lack of Business Ownership

Response	Parents		Siblings		Friends		Media		University		Relatives		Spouse	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	
1-5														
No influence (1)	6	7.9	8	10.5	5	6.6	8	10.5	6	7.9	6	7.9	4	5.3
Little influence (2)	3	3.9	2	2.6	3	3.9	1	1.3	2	2.6	2	2.6	1	1.3
Undecided (3)	3	3.9	3	3.9	6	7.9	4	5.3	6	7.9	5	6.6	3	3.9
Moderate influence (4)	3	3.9	2	2.6	2	2.6	2	2.6	1	1.3	2	2.6	1	1.3
Strong influence (5)	2	2.6	2	2.6	1	1.3	2	2.6	2	2.6	2	2.6	3	3.9
Total	17	22.4	17	22.4	17	22.4	17	22.4	17	22.4	17	22.4	12	15.8
Missing	59	77.6	59	77.6	59	77.6	59	77.6	59	77.6	59	77.6	64	84.2
Overall	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100	76	100

N denotes number of respondents

5.4 Triggering Factors

The triggering factors, as already discussed, are situational and may happen in the short-term. Information on the triggering factors was mostly elicited during the focus group discussion. The majority of the women revealed that once they have gained work experience, they would start their businesses because they want to be their “own bosses” and earn more money. The women students did not reveal many negative motivations that would trigger them to start their own businesses. This does not support Muranda (2011) study that found that the “push” factors outweighed the “pull” factors. This is probably because Muranda’s sample predominantly comprised of women with low educational background. Notably, for our study, the participants were mostly students who never worked before, hence had not experienced any job dissatisfaction.

Another situational factor that the participants discussed was that, they would start their businesses to make a change to their families. They expressed that culturally, Botswana are not individualistic as they support extended families that may be poor. Therefore, the issue of poverty stricken extended families may trigger women students’ aspirations to start their own businesses, mainly to support their families. This is supported by Muranda (2011) study that identified that a majority of Botswana women, who came from single households, had a desire to improve family welfare through entrepreneurial venturing. Thus, the loss of social support triggered the need for money (Ntseane, 2004). The FGD participants also wanted to be good role models for their children by following the “foot-steps” of their uncles and other relatives. They believe society can see them as failures, if they do not start their own businesses. Moreover, consistent with Scott and Twomey (1988), they revealed that the current negative economic conditions trigger them to aspire to also create employment for others, through venture start-up.

6. Conclusions and Policy Recommendations

The major objective of this study was to identify what actually shapes women students' career aspiration towards self-employment. The results confirmed that, a majority of the women students aspired to start their businesses when they graduate. The reasons related to both the "pull" and "push" factors. Women students' involvement in their family members' businesses influenced their desire to start their businesses, suggesting the importance of parental role models on these women. A majority of women students ranked their parents on the top of the list as influential in their most preferred employment. This is attributable to their parents' level of education, involvement in entrepreneurship and work. A majority of the women aspired to work for the private sector (56.6 per cent), followed by working for small/medium business (47.7 per cent), own business (44.7 per cent), government (35 per cent) and joint family business (17.1 per cent). Thus, amongst these factors, women students aspire to work for large organisations. Job security, more resources and a higher salary seem to be appealing in the private sector. The public sector (government) is less appealing for women students' graduates due to a fear of bureaucratic red tape. Regarding the "push" factors, women students aspire to start business to make a change to their family members and other extended family members who may be poor. They also desire to be role models for their children by imitating their uncles and other relatives.

The main limitation of this study was, due to the lower number of focus group participants, the findings cannot be generalised to represent the opinions of the whole women students' population in Botswana. However, this presented a substation of the surveyed results on moderating factors for business start-up decision. Despite this, the richness of the data obtained from these participants strengthened the findings of this research.

This study confirmed that women students preferred to acquire work experience before starting their businesses. As noted by Vazquez, Naghiu, Gutierrez, Lanero and Garcia (2009, p511), most high level academic program seem to be much centred on training wage-earner managers or technicians, than offering potential qualified entrepreneurs and responsible enterprises to society. It is thus recommended that a solid entrepreneurship course be developed both at an early stage of high school and at a university level. Universities can incorporate capstone courses as part of curriculum to develop women students to acquire work experience, hence to immediately start their businesses upon completion of their studies. Industry engagement is also suggested to connect women students to the local private sector. This could encourage women students to be more innovative as the results also showed that the possession of a business idea predisposed not many of them in venture creation. Students could also be encouraged to network with role models.

This research also confirmed that women students aspire to work for large organisations as job security; more resources and a higher salary seem to be appealing in the private sector. The public sector is less appealing for women students' graduates due to a fear of bureaucratic red tape. Thus, to be competitive with the private sector in recruiting women graduates to acquire entrepreneurial experience, government agencies should adopt less stringent rules and regulations and embark on contemporary organisational structures, such as "flatter"

organisations, that facilitate flexibility. Further research on the extent to which entrepreneurship education influences women students' aspirations to start their businesses, within the Botswana context, is recommended.

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