

# The conflict between social role expectations and entrepreneurial role demands among women entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa: empirical study from Ethiopia

Empirical  
study from  
Ethiopia

Received 10 August 2019  
Revised 28 July 2020  
23 October 2020  
6 November 2020  
Accepted 17 December 2020

Hundera Mulu

*College of Social Sciences and Humanities, Haramaya University, Ethiopia*

Geert Duysters

*Tilburg School of Economics and Management, Tilburg University,  
Tilburg, The Netherlands*

Wim Naudé

*Maastricht School of Management, Maastricht, The Netherlands and RWTH  
Aachen University, Aachen, Germany, and*

Josette Dijkhuizen

*Maastricht School of Management, Maastricht, The Netherlands*

## Abstract

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to develop items for measuring the role conflict between social role expectations (SREs) and entrepreneurial role demands (ERDs) among women entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA).

**Design/methodology/approach** – This paper uses 20 interviews and literature from SSA to develop items, a survey of 408 to conduct factor analysis and a survey of 307 to conduct criterion validity analysis.

**Findings** – Statistical analysis shows that the scales used adequately captured two dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict. It was found that the SRE-to-ERD-conflict scale is reliable and valid with the five dimensions of entrepreneurial success and that women entrepreneur's experience significant role conflict between SREs and ERDs.

**Research limitations/implications** – The implication is that standard scales measuring work and family conflict, which tend to focus solely on the work and family context, cannot adequately account for role conflict among women entrepreneurs.

**Practical implications** – The practical implications of these findings are discussed.

**Originality/value** – New scale items for measuring the conflict between SREs and ERDs were developed.

**Keywords** Role conflict, Women entrepreneurs, Entrepreneurial role demands, Social role expectations

**Paper type** Research paper



## 1. Introduction

Role theory concerns one of the most important characteristics of social behavior – the fact that human beings behave in ways that are different and predictable depending on their respective social identities and the situation (Biddle, 1986, p. 68).

This is particularly the case as far as roles influenced by gender – gender roles – are concerned. Gender roles are related to behaviors and attitudes that are commonly considered as suitable or acceptable for an individual, based on their biological sex (Levesque, 2011). A person is thought to develop a gender role identity, which is the gender stereotypical traits and behaviors themselves, and which is influenced by their character.

This character also reflects expectations that societies have toward the person. For instance, the gender role assigns the household chores and carrying roles to women (Ciciolla *et al.*, 2017). It also associates women's gender roles to femininity, such as expressive, sensitive to others and communal (Levesque, 2011).

Role conflicts arise when individuals are in multiple roles and where it is difficult to meet all the role expectations. So, being compliant with one of the roles impedes the accomplishment of another (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). For instance, when women are working outside the home and are still responsible for the family roles and may worry about, plan for and think about their children, this can create role conflict with work roles outside the home (Medina and Magnuson, 2009).

Different studies explain the role of gender in entrepreneurship in different ways. For example, social beliefs limit the role of women to the family and carrying then conceal their competencies and constrain their involvement in entrepreneurial activities (Yang and Aldrich, 2014). In addition, gender stereotypic expectations may influence women to focus on entrepreneurial activities that are compatible with their gender roles, but with low potential for the profitability of their business (Nagler and Naudé, 2017). In sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), for example, it has been estimated that around 80% of female entrepreneurs are engaged in providing consumer goods and services associated with traditional (but not exclusive) women's roles, for example, hairdressing and food preparation (Chant and Pedwell, 2008; Vossenber, 2016). Often women work longer hours and take full responsibility for both entrepreneurial and household roles, which may leave them at a disadvantage compared to male entrepreneurs. Moreover, due to the gender stereotypes, the concept of entrepreneurship has been argued to be gender-biased, in that it supports a hierarchical valuation which prioritizes masculine attributes over feminine (Ogbor, 2000).

On the other hand, women in most developing countries are expected to show feminine attributes in all domains, including entrepreneurial roles. As a result, most women that involve in entrepreneurial activities do so without any corresponding decrease in their family roles. In this context, the complexity of the business challenges that women face as entrepreneurs demands much of their attention and ingenuity, but societal role expectations reduce the effective attention that they can pay to their business (De Vita *et al.*, 2014; Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo, 2013).

Social role expectations (SREs) are the prescriptive gender role stereotypes as they portray the attributes ascribed to women in a given society (Zehnter *et al.*, 2018). For instance, in SSA, the social roles expected of women is that they should be selfless, put family roles first, and generally be conservative (Skapa, 2005). These SREs also determine the jobs considered appropriate for women (Azmat and Fujimoto, 2016).

Entrepreneurial role demands (ERDs), which are specific to entrepreneurship, are time demands, innovativeness, risk-taking, proactiveness and commitment toward the venture (Dijkhuizen *et al.*, 2014; Timmons, 1978). Successful entrepreneurs are often described in masculine terms (Ogbor, 2000). These include terms such as innovativeness, proactiveness,

risk-taking, self-confidence, dealing with failure, tolerance for ambiguities, boldness, aggressiveness, competing against a self-imposed standard and commitment to venture (Mitchell, 2004).

Therefore, ERDs seem to be incompatible with the feminine attributes that society expects women to portray (i.e. the SREs). For example, a case study in Ethiopia (Hundera *et al.*, 2019) found ERDs to be incompatible with SREs among women entrepreneurs. Moreover, gender stereotypic SREs influence individuals' behaviors in their community (Eagly and Wood, 2013). This can be a potential source of role conflict for women entrepreneurs and challenge them to create their own identity in entrepreneurship (García and Welter, 2013).

Despite the potential for role conflict among women entrepreneurs, arising out of the potential incompatibility between their SREs and ERDs and its effect on the success of women entrepreneurship, there is still a gap in the literature in this regard. Work-family role conflict literature (Paulin *et al.*, 2017) have focused on work and family (domestic) domains of roles. Scholars have also begun considering a range of structural and psychological demands in the community influencing work-family conflict (Voydanoff, 2005). However, no prior attempts to include the SREs items for measuring role conflict measures in both paid jobs and entrepreneurship.

To address this omission and contribute to the literature on role conflict and women entrepreneurship in Africa, this paper [1] aims to develop items for measuring SREs and ERDs conflict. The paper contributes to the entrepreneurship and gender literature in at least three ways. First, it provides the scale items for measuring the role conflict between the SREs and ERDs, hence, adds to the existing scale measures of role conflict, which only includes items for measuring work and family conflict. This increases the effectiveness to examine the role conflict among women entrepreneurs in general and those in the SSA context in particular. Second, it contributes to the discussions on the perceived role conflicts from the SREs that are experienced by female entrepreneurs and their effect on entrepreneurial success. Third, the paper helps to understand female entrepreneurs' behavior in the SSA context for effective interventions to be implemented.

The remainder of this paper will proceed as follows. First, the relevant literature on role conflict, social role theory, as well as SREs and ERDs conflict among female entrepreneurs in SSA are discussed. Second, the methods for data collection and analysis for developing ERD and SRE conflict scale items and validations are discussed in detail. In the final section, the results are presented and conclusions are stated.

## **2. Role conflict and social role expectations, related literature**

### *2.1 Role conflict*

The consensus is that role theory provides the widest scope for studying role conflict (Michel *et al.*, 2009)

Role theory proposes that human behavior is guided by expectations held both by the individual and by other people. The expectations correspond to different roles individuals perform or enact in their daily lives (Ashforth *et al.*, 2000, p. 88).

For example, women often choose roles that match with the ascribed gender roles in their society (Hechavarria and Ingram, 2016). This is because gender roles reflect innate attributes of the sexes, it appears natural and inevitable. With these beliefs, women construct gender roles that are responsive to their social context yet appear to be stable, inherent properties. When individuals accept and internalize roles associated with their sex, gender identities are built, which are shared with other people, resulting in social structure and culture emerge (Eagly and Wood, 1991). This implies that behavior that is inconsistent with gender roles will often not be sanctioned as it will be seen as disrupting social

---

interaction (Eagly and Wood, 2016). According to identity control theory, individuals' behaviors are based on the meanings of self-conception, their gender identity and expectation from others (Carter, 2014). The theory also explains why gender identity tends to be maintained.

Women's gender identities have predominantly feminine attributes. In contrast, the image of entrepreneurship has predominantly masculine features (Hechavarría and Ingram, 2016). According to the role conflict theory, roles derive from different norms that can be incompatible and create conflict (Michel *et al.*, 2009). Thus, women entrepreneurs experience role conflict due to the incompatibility between their gender identity (e.g. their femininity) and the entrepreneurship norm (García and Welter, 2013). Hundera *et al.* (2019) also indicate that women entrepreneurs in SSAs experience role conflict between the SREs and ERDs.

Three types of role conflict are discussed in the literature (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). These are time-based, which involves competing time demands across different roles; strain-based, which arises when pressures in one role weaken performance in the other role; and behavior-based, which occurs when behavior required in one role is incompatible with action in the other role.

Most of the empirical studies have focused on time-based and strain-based role conflict (Dierdorff and Ellington, 2008).

Behavioral-based conflict may be very relevant to the case of women in entrepreneurship. Hundera *et al.* (2019) found that women in SSA, whether they are entrepreneurs or not, are expected to behave as per the social expectations (e.g. putting others' needs first and look after other members of family and community). As business owners, for example, female entrepreneurs engage in competition with others and aggressively look for opportunities. The two are incompatible and create behavior-based role conflict.

Many scholars have argued that role conflict, such as between work and family demands, can be most fully understood by considering its bidirectional nature (Carlson *et al.*, 2000; Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Paulin *et al.*, 2017). When family roles interfere with workplace roles, it creates a family-to-work conflict (F-to-W conflict); when workplace roles interfere with family roles, it creates work-to-family conflict (W-to-F conflict). When ERD interferes with SRE, it creates ERD-to-SRE conflict. When SRE interferes with ERD, it creates SRE-to-ERD conflict.

## *2.2 Social role theory and Social role expectations and Entrepreneurial role demands conflict among female entrepreneurs in sub-Saharan Africa*

In social role theory, women are stereotypically defined as friendly, warm, unselfish, sociable, interdependent, family-focused and relationship-oriented (Eisenchlas, 2013). These stereotypic views challenge women's involvement in roles socially prescribed to men: such as leadership (Zehnter *et al.*, 2018) or entrepreneurship. Women may even face social sanctions when they behave contrary to SREs (Heilman and Okimoto, 2007), for instance, by portraying masculine attributes typically associated with entrepreneurship (Hechavarría and Ingram, 2016).

It has been found that women who behave in a stereotypically masculine way as entrepreneurs tend to be socially devalued, considered as aggressive, pushy and evaluated more harshly than male entrepreneurs (Eagly and Wood, 1991; Rudman and Fairchild, 2004). The empirical evidence concerning gender role stereotypes is mixed. Some studies find that as the number of women in leadership roles increases, this results in changes in female stereotypes (Eagly and Wood, 2013; Koenig and Eagly, 2014). The backlash hypothesis, on the other hand, argues that stereotyping incongruent with socially expected

behavior gets punished (Rudman *et al.*, 2012). For example, Zehnter *et al.* (2018) found that stereotypes about “how women are” might change but “how women should be” might not.

Therefore, the increase of women in male domains, such as entrepreneurship, may not change stereotypes of “how women should be” in society. Women entrepreneurs may suffer social sanctions (e.g. gossip, being ostracized or violence) when they behave in stereotypical contrary ways. This can lead to the role-conflict between SREs and ERDs.

This role conflict potential is particularly likely in SSA, where SREs are strictly defined and women need to be willing to bow to patriarchy (Mazonde and Carmichael, 2016). To be accepted in their society, women in SSA are expected to be friendly, warm, caring and relationship-oriented (Eisenclas, 2013; Prentice and Carranza, 2002). The extent to which women comply with these expectations depends on their agency (Garcia and Welter, 2013). For example, during the case study in Ethiopia, a respondent said:

[. . .] I was born in Addis Ababa, went [to a] better school, got interesting education, had access to what I needed; the gender-related issues might not be significant, although they exist somehow. I believe that I am capacitated to handle them as they come. But does this work for the majority of the women who [are] deprived of access to opportunities? No, it does not. There are a lot of challenges for women out there.

Attributed to their background, personality, experience and access to different opportunities, only a few women still can overcome the social cost for the disapproval of behavior, but that is not an option for the majority of women in the region. For example, the vast majority of women entrepreneurs in Africa have an enterprise as means of survival and depend on their family and/or community for finance and sales of their products and services (Vossenber, 2016). Hence, they cannot afford to risk social disapproval. In addition, it was identified that the performance and status of the business in SSA not only depend on the owner’s aspirations or capacities but also on the extent of gender bias in the context (Vossenber, 2016). In conservative societies such as Ethiopia, gender stereotype often governs the role expectation and women who do not follow the general role expectations will risk social disapproval for their behaviors.

Women’s education, awareness of their rights and involvement in economic activities have been weakening the predominant gender power relationship. However, the change has been very slow and is accompanied by both resistance and backlash. This leaves little room for a woman to be portrayed as an entrepreneur. For example, a woman entrepreneur from Ethiopia mentioned that:

[. . .] women have better education and are aware of their rights nowadays. But men are still in better positions both in business and the paid job[. . .] they often show insecurity of losing out when they realize that a woman is advancing [. . .] in that condition men resist implicitly/at times explicitly using their power [. . .] for example, [they] prohibit women from participating in economic activities, use institutional rules to block women to access various opportunities, reduce or refuse to provide financial support at home, refuse to share parental responsibilities and domestic violence.

Entrepreneurs are assumed to possess characteristics such as decisiveness, innovativeness and leadership (Nooteboom, 2005), that equip them with the capacities to overcome resource constraints, influencing existing competencies and exploiting business opportunities. These characteristics are often considered undesirable qualities for women in SSA countries (Prentice and Carranza, 2002).

For example, in Zimbabwe, women are not expected to start and run their own business (Skapa, 2005) and “good” women are those who care for and put the needs of others before theirs. In Gambia and Zimbabwe, women are socialized to associate money with immorality,

---

avoid conflict and detach themselves from the behaviors needed in business, such as assertiveness (Chitsike, 2000; Della-Giusta and Phillips, 2006). In Zimbabwe, there is even a tendency to label successful women entrepreneurs as prostitutes (Chitsike, 2000).

In the case of Uganda, Dawa and Namatovu (2015) found that businesses owned by women are expected to have feminine features (e.g. to be conservative) and loan providers are hesitant to fund women's businesses that fall outside of this pattern.

The case study in Ethiopia shows that women are expected to behave according to the norms in their society and these tend to be incompatible with the behavior associated with the ideal entrepreneur.

The literature is clear that entrepreneurial work demands long hours and commitment (Dijkhuizen *et al.*, 2014; Timmons, 1978). This may mean, as Timmons (1978) argues, that entrepreneurs should put their businesses first. That means that ERDs supersede family and social life. Contrary to what Timmons (1978) and others argue about successful entrepreneurs who are committed to their venture, society in the SSA context expects women to be sensitive to the needs of others (Prentice and Carranza, 2002) and to spend time on social roles. Moreover, women in SSA are expected to meet social needs through their business, indicating the lack of a clear border between social and entrepreneurial roles (Hundera *et al.*, 2019).

Individuals in SSA, whether they are men or women, are expected to be committed to their roles in their social network (Kuada, 2009). Although social networks can have both a positive and a negative effect on entrepreneurial activities, it is the positive outcomes that have been emphasized in the literature (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Khayesi and George, 2011). Social networks can enhance access to resources and information and build trust, but not without certain role expectations being met (Adler and Kwon, 2002; Khayesi and George, 2011; Kiggundu, 2002). For example, business owners in SSA tend to be considered as wealthy and the society expects them to support their relatives financially to maintain their kinship, which can negatively affect further investment in their ventures (Kiggundu, 2002).

Some of the role expectations associated with members of certain social networks can create incompatibility with entrepreneurial roles. For example, the women entrepreneurs interviewed in Ethiopia stated that they have benefited from being members of business associations but that the rules, functions and obligations associated with the network, required them to forgo some of their business schedules. Moreover, most of the respondents said that sharing their experiences with the members of the association resulted in others copying their business ideas. Similarly, Njeru and Njoka (2001) in Kenya found that some women entrepreneurs reported that business idea gets copied by others when they share these during business association meetings. Other studies also show that social obligations in SSA, such as sharing income and participating in social functions, tend to outweigh the benefits from social networks for business owners (Dawa and Namatovu, 2015; Kuada, 2009).

Similarly, in Uganda, according to Kiggundu (2002) number of kin within a social network is positively associated with the level of social demands on an entrepreneur. The case study in Ethiopia also showed that women are expected to be part of informal social networks by being involved in social functions. Furthermore, some of the religious obligations in Ethiopia are incompatible with the expected behavior of successful entrepreneurs. Likewise, Della-Giusta and Phillips (2006) have indicated that women entrepreneurs in the Gambia face difficulties arising primarily from their community and religious duties. For women entrepreneurs in SSA, therefore, the imperative of meeting SREs can interfere with the long work hours and commitments required to be a successful businessperson.

The literature review and case study for this research, therefore, show that women entrepreneurs in SSA are expected one way or another to meet the SREs attached to being female. A violation of social expectations can lead to various forms of punishment and devaluation. At the same time, as entrepreneurs, women are required to possess the competencies believed to be essential for business success. Therefore, as women entrepreneurs try to meet SREs and ERDs, conflicts can arise between the two realms.

### **3. Method: data collection and analysis**

#### *3.1 Survey*

To measure SREs and ERDs conflict scales, a survey was conducted between September and November 2016. The questionnaires were filled out by the respondents in the presence of trained enumerators, who were on hand to clarify the survey items. To increase the response rate, the researchers established a network with various women entrepreneurs' associations (e.g. Organization for Women in Self Employment and the Ethiopian Chapter of the African Women Entrepreneurship Program). Members of these associations are women owner-managers of private companies in various sectors all over Ethiopia. When asking for the consent of women entrepreneurs to participate in the study, they were provided with letters of support for the study from the Addis Ababa Chamber of Commerce. The network that was created with women entrepreneurs' associations was particularly beneficial in terms of enabling that researcher to participate in training, meetings, workshops and trade shows and meet women entrepreneurs and to collect data from a large number of respondents within a short period.

The survey with the 18 items left after the content adequacy test was initially administered to 500 formally registered women entrepreneurs in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The women entrepreneurs rated the degree to which they felt that they experienced the role conflict indicated in each of these items under both SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict. Their responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). It took each respondent about 35 to 50 min to complete the entire questionnaire. As most of the survey was conducted face-to-face and we contacted networks closely related to respondents, a response rate of 77% was attained.

#### *3.2 Data management*

Before the data was entered into the SPSS software (version 20), each completed questionnaire was checked for thoroughness, and consequently, 50 questionnaires had to be excluded because most of the scale items on SRE and ERD conflict had not been answered. In addition to that, a missing value analysis was performed to avoid Type I and Type II errors and increase statistical precision, eliminating another 42 questionnaires. This left 408 completed questionnaires for analysis.

A measure for SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict was tested on a final sample of 408 women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia. The study aimed to test whether the factors for SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict that had been identified in the literature review and case study could be established from the 18 items ultimately developed during the content adequacy test.

#### *3.3 Sample respondents*

The sample included female owner-managers of companies located in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. That city was selected because it contains the largest population of women entrepreneurs in the country (around 60% of all women entrepreneurs) high-level economic activity. Information on women entrepreneurs in the city was obtained from multiple

archival data sources. These included the websites of women-owned business enterprises, women's business associations, the Micro and Small-Scale Enterprise Agency and the Chamber of Commerce. Then, key informants were interviewed to validate the archival data by checking if the women who registered were still in business and whether the business address was still valid.

Respondents were on average 35 years old ( $SD = 10.5$ ). About 35% of them were college graduates and 27% of them had a high school diploma. Similarly, most of the growth-oriented women entrepreneurs in Africa had an above-average level of education (e.g. completed at least high school). Most of them, 42%, operate in the service sector, yet 22% work in the retail sector, about 13% in textile and fabric, 10.5% in handicrafts and only 3% in construction.

### 3.4 Factor analysis

The factor structure was examined using principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than one appeared, as expected, based on the results of the content adequacy test. All SREs-to-ERDs conflict items had loadings  $>0.60$ . The first three SREs-to-ERDs items were highly cross-loaded on more than one factor and thus rejected; this produced 15 items representing the SRE-to-ERD and ERD-to-SRE conflicts. Cronbach's  $\alpha$  for the SREs-to-ERDs factor was 0.91 and the ERDs-to-SREs factor was 0.87. The two factors together explain 59.2% of the variance in the 15 items. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value for the 15 items combined was 0.89. The first factor, SRE-to-ERD conflict, with an eigenvalue of 5.3, explains 34.5% of the variance, with the second factor, ERD-to-SRE conflict, with an eigenvalue of 3.5, explaining another 23.7%.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to examine the extent to which the data fitted the theorized constructs and of dimensionality and discriminant validity. The final scale items were determined based on the highest factor loading from the best fit model (Table 1). Although the model fit analysis showed significant chi-square [ $\chi^2(83) = 168.213$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ], other fit indices indicated that the items had good fit [comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.973, goodness of fit (GFI) = 0.949, normed-fit index (NFI) = 0.948, AGFI = 0.926, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.05]. The estimated correlation between SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict is 0.15, indicating discriminant validity. Kline (2015), for instance, suggests that a correlation between two constructs that is higher than 0.90 represents a lack of discriminant validity; the lower the correlation value, therefore, the better the discriminant validity.

After the initial CFA model was found to fit the data well, a series of additional CFAs were conducted to compare the hypothesized model fit to alternate competing models. Four models were examined, comprising: the hypothesized model consisting of two factors (SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict); a second-order model in which one-factor affects these two factors (SRE-to-ERD conflict and ERD-to-SRE conflict); a unidimensional model in which all the SRE-to-ERD-conflict and ERD-to-SRE-conflict items are loaded on a single factor; and a bifactor model in which two sets of latent factors (a general factor and specific types of role conflict) affect each SRE-to-ERD-conflict and ERD-to-SRE-conflict item. After comparing all the fit indices (Table 2), it was determined that the two factors model fit the data best.

### 3.5 Scales' criterion validity

The criterion validity of the SREs and ERDs conflict scales items developed in this study were assessed in relation to entrepreneurial success while controlling for work and family conflict. Accordingly, in Section 3.5.1, hypotheses on the relationship between

Final scale items	Factor Loading	$\alpha$
<i>SRE-to-ERD conflict</i>		0.91
You cancel your business schedules to socialize	0.79	
You are afraid to talk about your business and yourself	0.66	
You cannot expand the business because of your social obligations	0.63	
As a woman in business, you are afraid of being labeled a “bad woman”	0.66	
You feel guilty doing business because you can not visit with people (extended family)	0.71	
You can not behave like a businessperson because of religious obligations	0.76	
You are afraid to compete in matters important to your business	0.77	
You can not expand your business because you have to share the income with relatives	0.79	
You are not proud of doing business because people do not value women in business	0.66	
<i>ERD-to-SRE Conflict</i>		0.87
You cannot fulfill religious obligations because of your business obligations	0.45	
You cannot live up to the expected behavior because you are on the lookout for opportunities	0.6	
You cannot enjoy social events because you think too much about business	0.68	
You cannot share your income with relatives because you want to expand the business	0.83	
You do not have time to socialize because your business keeps you busy	0.79	
You cannot abide by the norms because you like to do things differently	0.77	

**Table 1.**  
Standardized factor loading for final items

entrepreneurial success SRE and ERD conflict are set out. Then, in Sections 3.5.1 and 3.5.2, details on how the data for testing this relation were collected and analyzed are provided. In Section 5.3.3, the results on criterion validity are presented.

*3.5.1 Hypotheses.* “Entrepreneurial success refers to facts considered as positive outcomes by the entrepreneur” (Fisher *et al.*, 2014, p. 488). Previous research, specifically studies grounded in rational economic theory, has emphasized financial success in explaining entrepreneurial success. However, the economic indicators of success do not fully capture what entrepreneurs themselves consider signs of success (Wach *et al.*, 2016). For example, most women entrepreneurs are attracted to entrepreneurship for gaining independence, self-actualization, family security and better opportunities for advancement (Srivastava, 2012).

The literature on entrepreneurial motivation also suggests that for women entrepreneurs, success is linked to motivation for starting a business (Lee and Stearns, 2012). Entrepreneurs may also keep alive a financially underperforming company because the business is fulfilling a non-financial expectation or conversely forgo a profitable business because the firm does not enable them to achieve personal goals (Wach *et al.*, 2016). Jennings and McDougald (2007) have also encouraged researchers to include non-economic indicators of business success when examining the outcomes of the work and family interface.

Models	$X^2$	<i>df</i>	GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	AIC
1 Hypothesized model	168.213	83	0.949	0.926	0.97	0.95	0.05	242
2 Second-order model	472.058	117	0.9	0.854	0.907	0.881	0.086	580
3 Unidimensional model	380.5	75	0.9	0.84	0.9	0.88	0.1	471
4 Bifactor model	286.59	75	0.903	0.844	0.932	0.911	0.083	377

**Table 2.**  
Fit indices: model comparison

**Note:** AIC = akaike information criterion

---

Therefore, entrepreneurial success is a multidimensional construct that is best captured by more than financial and economic indicators (Fisher *et al.*, 2014). Wach *et al.* (2016) developed various indicators of success which include firm performance, workplace relationships, personal fulfillment, community impact and personal financial rewards. The multidimensional success factors were further categorized as subjective financial success and subjective personal success by Dijkhuizen *et al.* (2016). Subjective financial success is related to income and finance, whereas subjective personal success, centered around personal development and other non-financial goals of the entrepreneur (Dej, 2010).

According to Dej (2010), success indicators can be grouped into financial, linked to money and personal success which is non-financial. Therefore, subjective financial success includes firm performance (e.g. turnover) and personal financial rewards (family income). The subjective non-financial success is workplace relationships (e.g. strong customer relationship), community impact (e.g. social recognition) and personal fulfillment (e.g. personal development). This paper thus contributes to the literature on subjective entrepreneurial success by using a multidimensional construct of success.

Studies to date have produced mixed results on the relationship between work and family conflict and job performance in paid employment. Some (Ahmad, 2008; Wang and Tsai, 2014) have found a significant negative relationship, while others (Patel *et al.*, 2006) have found a non-significant relationship. For self-employment, Jennings and McDougald (2007) argued that work and family conflict could directly affect business performance. Besides, Shelton (2006) has discussed that work and family conflict affects venture performance indirectly. Shelton *et al.* (2008) found that a difficulty in managing work-family conflict negatively influences business performance. Moreover, Kim and Ling (2001) found that entrepreneurial success negatively related to work and family conflict.

As most extant studies support a relationship between work and family conflict and performance, the following hypotheses can be posited:

*H1.* F-to-W conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

*H2.* W-to-F conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

In the W-to-F conflict literature, the notion is that role conflict negatively affects performance. The scale measurement result (Table 1) suggested that women entrepreneurs in SSA experience conflict between their SREs and ERDs as they try to meet business role demands and live up to the expectations in society. Hence, it could be expected that in addition to the effect of work and family conflict on entrepreneurial performance, SRE and ERD conflict affects entrepreneurial performance. This means that the following hypotheses can be posited:

*H3.* SRE-to-ERD conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

*H4.* ERD-to-SRE conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success.

*H5.* SRE-to-ERD and ERD-to-SRE conflicts contribute to variances in entrepreneurial performance on top of F-to-W and W-to-F conflicts.

An additional survey was conducted to test the above hypothesis. Out of the 500 initial participants, 390 agreed to participate and provided their detailed contact information. Those 390 participants were contacted again for the second survey (first week of December 2016) to fill in the questionnaire in the paper that addressed variables of entrepreneurial performance. By mid-January 2017, data on entrepreneurial performance had been collected from 350 of the participants who had completed the first survey. The same procedure was

---

followed for managing the data (Section 3.1.2). Ultimately, 307 completed questionnaires were used for the criterion validity analysis.

### 3.5.2 Measures

3.5.2.1 SREs and ERD conflict. To measure the SRE-and-ERD-conflict scale items developed in this study were used (Table 1). The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  scores were 0.90 for the nine items representing the SRE-to-ERD conflict and 0.85 for the nine items representing the ERD-to-SRE conflict.

3.5.2.2 Work and family role conflict. Work and family role conflict was measured using the Work-Family Conflict Scale developed by Carlson *et al.* (2000). This scale measures six dimensions of work-family conflict using three items for each. The dimensions are time-based work interference with family, time-based family interference with work, strain-based work interference with family, strain-based family interference with work, behavior-based work interference with family and behavior-based family interference with work. Some items were re-worded to fit the entrepreneurs' context. For example, "my business keeps me from my family activities more than I would like." The items were measured on a five-point Likert-direction scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (5). The Cronbach's  $\alpha$ , in this case, was 0.90 for the nine items representing WF conflict and 0.91 for the nine items representing FW conflict.

3.5.2.3 Entrepreneurial success. Entrepreneurial success was measured according to items of subjective success outlined in Dej (2011), Fisher *et al.* (2014) and Wach *et al.* (2016). These are: "firm performance" (e.g. profitability); "workplace relationships" (e.g. strong customer relationships); "personal fulfillment" (e.g. work-life balance); "social impact" (e.g. social recognition); and "personal financial rewards" (e.g. capacity to buy). For each of these five factors, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they had reached the stated criteria. Each answer was measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "totally not achieved" (1) to "totally achieved" (5). To select the final items for this study, a validation study was conducted using CFA for model-fit.

The CFA covered 17 entrepreneurial success measures and comprised five factors. The fit of the items per factor was confirmed through CFA. Although the  $\chi^2$  result was significant [ $\chi^2$  (241) = 473.666,  $p < 0.01$ ], other fit indices indicated that the items had good fit (CFI = 0.931, GFI = 0.886, NFI = 0.869, AGFI = 0.858, RMSEA = 0.056). The final factor loadings and Cronbach's  $\alpha$ s are presented in Table 3.

The above-validated success indicators were categorized into two factors: subjective financial success and subjective non-financial success following Dej (2010) and Dijkhuizen *et al.* (2016). The subjective financial success includes firm performance and personal financial rewards. Subjective non-financial success is workplace relationships, personal fulfillment and social impact.

The fit of the two factors model to the data was tested using CFA. The fit statistics indices results are CFI = 0.985, AGFI = 0.956, NFI = 0.965 and RMSEA = 0.046. According to Hooper *et al.* (2008), CFI  $\geq$  0.95, AGFI  $>$  0.90, NFI  $\geq$  0.95 and RMSEA  $\leq$  0.06 are recognized as indicative of good fit. Therefore, the proposed two-factor model fit to the data.

3.5.2.4 Control variables. Business age, business size and education were controlled. Younger firms are less profitable, less competitive and more likely to fail than older firms (Robb and Watson, 2012). Studies have also indicated that human capital, such as education and experience, positively and significantly influence business performance (Robb and Watson, 2012). Business age was measured by the number of years since the firm was established; size was measured by the number of employees and education was measured by the level of education attained by the respondents.

GM	Final scale items	Factor loading	$\alpha$
	<i>Firm performance (FP)</i>		0.88
	Firm profitability	0.77	
	Turnover	0.71	
	Innovation (e.g. new products, services or methods)	0.78	
	Growth in the number of employees	0.78	
	<i>Workplace relationship</i>		0.75
	Strong customer relationships	0.77	
	Employee satisfaction	0.73	
	Supportive firm culture (e.g. strong firm values and positive attitudes)	0.72	
	<i>Personal fulfillment</i>		0.82
	Work-life balance	0.83	
	Own decision-making	0.82	
	Propagate own vision	0.81	
	Personal relationships and maintain networks	0.82	
	<i>Social impact</i>		0.85
	Social recognition (e.g. reputation)	0.81	
	Social responsibility toward employees	0.84	
	Participation in public activities (e.g. sponsor of social events)	0.81	
	<i>Personal financial rewards</i>		0.86
	Personal financial security	0.84	
	Ability to afford	0.83	
	High income for your family	0.79	

**Table 3.** Standardized factor loadings for final scale items

*3.5.3 Criterion validity analysis.* The final general relationship among the study variables was computed using Pearson correlation coefficients. Then, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the hypothesis (Section 5). Model 1 includes control variables; in Model 2, work and family conflict variables were added to see the change in the dependent variables; in Model 3, SREs and ERDs conflict variables were added to see if SREs and ERDs can contribute to the variance in the dependent variables. The results are presented in the following section.

#### 4. Results

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables used in the analysis. The result shows that the means are fairly centered on the five-point Likert scale. The F-to-W conflict was found to be significantly negatively correlated with both financial and non-financial success, with value  $-0.470$  and  $-0.520$ , respectively. While W-to-F conflict is significantly positively related to financial success with a value of  $0.322$ , but the relationship with non-financial success is negative ( $-0.151$ ) non-significant. Therefore, *H1* (i.e. F-to-W conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success) is confirmed and *H2* (i.e. W-to-F conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success) is not significant, but the relationship is different from zero.

This shows that the interface of family roles with entrepreneurial roles negatively affect both financial and non-financial success. This may be due to the unmet family role demands create work-family imbalance, result in a lower interest to stay at work and reduced work performance (Kumari, 2012). Besides, due to gender role expectations, women may feel guilt for not meeting family role demands and the lack of work-family balance. As a result, their

Categories	M	SD	Non-		SREs-to-ERDs	ERDs-to-SREs	W-to-F	F-to-W	Education	Business	
			financial success	financial success						age	Size
Financial success	3.5	0.73									
Non-financial success	3.6	0.65	0.523**								
SREs-to-ERDs	2.5	0.64	-0.482**	-0.384**							
ERDs-to-SREs	2.8	0.34	0.382**	-0.204**	0.261**						
W-to-F	2.7	0.67	0.302**	-0.151	0.593**	0.261**					
F-to-W	2.7	0.74	-0.470**	-0.320**	0.438**	0.294**	0.647**				
Education	2.49	0.91	0.297**	0.314**	-0.221**	-0.238**	-0.303**	-0.293**			
Business age	7	4.3	0.514**	0.507**	-0.877**	0.048**	-0.354**	-0.423**	0.304**		
Business Size	13	12	0.489**	0.392**	-0.395**	-0.509**	-0.580**	-0.585**	0.288**	0.338**	

**Table 4.** Mean (M), standard deviation (SD) and correlations among the study variables ( $n = 307$ )

**Note:** \*\*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed)

non-financial success such as personal fulfillment and social recognition are adversely affected. However, women undertaking business activities while they are in their family roles positively contribute to their revenue, income and profit. However, this negatively affects the non-financial success (i.e. personal fulfillment from having sufficient time for family and doing household chores), which may due to the time constraint that entrepreneurial roles impose on family role demands.

The SRE-to-ERD conflict was significantly negatively correlated with both financial and non-financial success, with value  $-0.482$  and  $-0.387$ , respectively. While ERD-to-SRE conflict is significantly and positively correlated with financial success, with a value of  $0.382$ , but negatively and significantly correlated with non-financial success with a value of  $-0.204$ . Therefore, *H3* (i.e. SRE-to-ERD conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success) is fully confirmed, while 4 (i.e. ERD-to-SRE conflict is negatively related to financial and non-financial success) is partially confirmed.

Like the family interface with work, the SRE interface with ERDs conflict negatively affects both financial and non-financial success. For example, when women entrepreneurs are afraid to compete in matters important to their business, due to the gender stereotype, they can lose revenue and profit (i.e. financial success) and lose a strong customer network (i.e. non-financial success). Besides, women are generally socialized to be less confident in their ability to succeed (Lester, 2008). They are also less optimistic, have less self-confidence. Hence, when women entrepreneurs portray these attributes while they are in the entrepreneurial role, their success in doing business adversely be affected. This is because studies show a positive relation between these personality traits and entrepreneurial success (Hachana et al., 2018). When the ERDs conflict with the SRE, the effect on financial success such as an increase in income is positive but affects non-financial success such as social recognitions negatively. For instance, when women are on the constant lookout for opportunities, income from their business can be increased (i.e. financial success) but they may fail to live up to the expected behavior in their society loss and lack personal fulfillment due to lack of social recognition.

Hierarchical multiple linear regressions were conducted to investigate the unique contribution of SRE and ERD conflict (Table 5). Adding the SREs-to-ERDs conflict Model 3

significantly increased the variance in both financial and non-financial success, but the addition of ERDs-to-SREs conflict to the model did not significantly change the variance in both financial and non-financial success but the coefficient is not significantly different from zero. Thus, *H5*, SRE-to-ERD and ERD-to-SRE conflicts contribute to variances in entrepreneurial performance on top of F-to-W and W-to-F conflicts is confirmed. The result indicates that, like that of work and family conflict, the conflict between SREs and ERDs affects the entrepreneurial performance of women entrepreneurs.

## 5. Concluding remarks

In this paper, items for measuring role conflict between SREs and ERDs among women entrepreneurs in Ethiopia were developed and validated. The scale was composed of new items developed specifically for this paper from a literature review of SREs in the SSA context, ERDs and a case study. Content adequacy and subsequently confirmatory factor analyzes were performed on the items. This yielded 15 items with two sub-scales that measuring two different dimensions of SRE and ERD conflict: SRE-to-ERD conflict (9 items) and ERD-to-SRE (6 items) conflict. Each scale showed discriminant validity and internal consistency, thus confirming the bidirectional nature of the role conflict (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985; Carlson *et al.*, 2000; Paulin *et al.*, 2017).

The criterion validity of the ERD-to-SRE conflict and SRE-to-ERD conflict scales was investigated in relation to subjective financial and non-financial success. The scale for SRE-to-ERD conflict was significantly negatively correlated with financial and non-financial success. This is in line with most of the previous studies on the relationship between role conflict and job success (Ahmad, 2008; Wang and Tsai, 2014).

The hierarchical multiple linear regression analyzes also confirmed the unique contribution of SRE-to-ERD conflict in the variance of both financial and non-financial entrepreneurial success. The results show that interference of SRE with ERDs negatively affects entrepreneurial success. This may be because the socio-cultural factors in the SSA context do not favor women in economic activities and women respond to SREs leaving their business behind. Jennings and McDougald (2007) also indicate that women entrepreneurs tend to be more responsive to their family roles than their business roles, which negatively affects venture performance. This may be because women who violate normative role expectations such as full-time motherhood “not only face others’ judgments but also their own feelings of ambivalence and guilt” (Craig, 2007, p. 182). Similarly, Hailemariam *et al.* (2019) found that gender role expectations in Ethiopia restricts women when they also have to perform the role of entrepreneur.

Categories	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>	Bus. age	Size	Edu	F-to-W	W-to-F	ER
<i>Financial success</i>								
Model 1	0.429**	0.184**	0.329**	0.281**	0.188*			
Model 2	0.488**	0.238**	0.342**	0.268**	0.134	-0.589**	0.155	
Model 3	0.543**	0.293**	0.208**	0.198**	0.099	-0.588**	0.169	0.16
<i>Non-financial success</i>								
Model 1	0.519**	0.269**	0.423**	0.138	0.19**			
Model 2	0.535*	0.286**	0.120	0.120	0.138	-0.325**	-0.100	
Model 3	0.545*	0.297**	0.116	0.175*	0.142	-0.268**	-0.105	0.03
<b>Notes:</b> **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (two-tailed); *correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (two-tailed)								

**Table 5.** Linear regression analysis of the five dimensions of entrepreneurial performance

However, the scale for ERD-to-SRE conflict was significantly positively correlated with financial success but the relationship with non-financial success is negative and significant. The result shows that when entrepreneurial demands interfere with SREs, women who respond to entrepreneurial roles have better financial return but cannot fulfill the SREs, hence negatively affect non-financial subjective success. According to the social role theory, individuals who fail to portray the socially expected role of their gender face social sanctions and disrupt their social interaction. As a result, although women are effective in entrepreneurship and get a better financial return, they can be devalued and lose social recognition for not favoring the social expectations and using stereotypically masculine approaches in their business. Thus, non-financial success such as work-life balance, social recognition, personal relationships and network-building as identified in this study can negatively be affected.

The findings in this study show the importance of SRE and ERD conflict in explaining subjective entrepreneurial success in addition to work-and-family-conflict. The literature on the role conflict of women entrepreneurs in SSA would therefore benefit from incorporating SRE and ERD conflicts. The SRE and ERD conflict scales developed for the current study can also be used in programs that aim to address women's economic empowerment through enterprise development in developing countries to trace the potential challenges of role conflict. Our findings show a significant relationship between SRE-to-ERD conflict and subjective financial and non-financial success. Hence, if women entrepreneurs are enabled to address SREs, they have a better chance of surviving and growing their business. Although not significant as with SRE-to-ERDs conflict in terms of its unique contribution in explaining success the relationship between ERDs-to-SREs conflict and subjective entrepreneurial success are important. Hence, further study in a different context may prove this relationship.

One of the limitations of the research reported in this paper is that a subsample of the respondents used to measure SRE and ERD conflict was also used for the criterion validity measures, whereas a different sample would have been better for validity. To minimize the limitations associated with this, different SSA countries were considered in determining the scope and constructing the scales. Because of financial limitations, however, the scales were tested in a single country, Ethiopia, mainly among formally registered women entrepreneurs in major cities. Hence, to examine the generalizability of the findings of this paper about the reliability and validity of the scale and its cross-cultural stability, future research is needed to test and analyze the SRE and ERD conflict scale in other countries and among women entrepreneurs in different countries.

Despite these limitations, the work has contributed to the knowledge of role conflict for women entrepreneurs by adding the concept of SREs and ERDs conflict to the existing work-and-family-conflict literature. The literature on role conflict especially among women entrepreneurs in SSA should, therefore, incorporate SRE and ERD conflict measures to the existing work-and-family-conflict scale items. It also contributed to the literature of gender and entrepreneurship, by showing how the prevailing discourse and assumptions about what entrepreneurship create perceived role conflicts with the gender-based SREs, by providing items for measuring this role conflict and examining its effect on women entrepreneurs' success. Furthermore, the paper contributes to a more nuanced understanding of the nature of female entrepreneurship in SSA by measuring and accounting for the management of conflict between different societal roles. Finally, this paper suggests that programs aiming to empower women through enterprise development can benefit from addressing the negative consequences of SREs and strengthening the ability of society and women to cope with these and ultimately change expectations of roles, that are ultimately socially constructed.

1. This paper draws on the PhD study of [Hundera \(2019\)](#).

## References

- Adler, P.S. and Kwon, S.W. (2002), "Social capital: prospects for a new concept", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 27 No. 1, pp. 17-40.
- Ahmad, A. (2008), "Direct and indirect effects of work-family conflict on job performance", *The Journal of International Management Studies*, Vol. 3 No. 2, pp. 176-180.
- Ashforth, B.E., Kreiner, G.E. and Fugate, M. (2000), "All in a day's work: boundaries and micro role transitions", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 472-491.
- Azmat, F. and Fujimoto, Y. (2016), "Family embeddedness and entrepreneurship experience: a study of Indian migrant women entrepreneurs in Australia", *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, Vol. 28 Nos 9/10, pp. 630-656.
- Biddle, B.J. (1986), "Recent developments in role theory", *Annual Review of Sociology*, Vol. 12 No. 1, pp. 67-92.
- Carter, M.J. (2014), "Gender socialization and identity theory", *Social Sciences*, Vol. 3 No. 2, pp. 242-263.
- Carlson, D.S., Kacmar, K.M. and Williams, L.J. (2000), "Construction and initial validation of a multidimensional measure of work-family conflict", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 56 No. 2, pp. 249-276.
- Ciciolla, L., Curlee, A.S. and Luthar, S.S. (2017), "What women want: employment preference and adjustment among mothers", *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 38 No. 4, pp. 494-513.
- Chant, S. and Pedwell, C. (2008), "Women, gender and the informal economy: an assessment of ILO research and suggested ways forward".
- Chitsike, C. (2000), "Culture as a barrier to rural women's entrepreneurship: experience from Zimbabwe", *Gender and Development*, Vol. 8 No. 1, pp. 71-77.
- Craig, L. (2007), "How employed mothers in Australia find time for both market work and childcare", *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 69-87.
- Dawa, S. and Namatovu, R. (2015), "Social networks and growth of female-owned ventures: a sub-Saharan Africa perspective", *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 20 No. 2, p. 155.
- De Vita, L., Mari, M. and Poggesi, S. (2014), "Women entrepreneurs in and from developing countries: evidences from the literature", *European Management Journal*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 451-460.
- Dej, D. (2010), "Defining and measuring entrepreneurial success", *Entrepreneurship: A Psychological Approach*, pp. 89-102.
- Dej, D. (2011), "Exploring entrepreneur success from a work psychology perspective: the development and first validation of a new instrument", Doctoral dissertation.
- Della-Giusta, M. and Phillips, C. (2006), "Women entrepreneurs in the Gambia: challenges and opportunities", *Journal of International Development: The Journal of the Development Studies Association*, Vol. 18 No. 8, pp. 1051-1064.
- Dijkhuizen, J., Van Veldhoven, M. and Schalk, R. (2014), "Development and validation of the entrepreneurial job demands scale", *International Journal of Knowledge, Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 2, pp. 70-89.
- Dijkhuizen, J., Gorgievski, M., van Veldhoven, M. and Schalk, R. (2016), "Feeling successful as an entrepreneur: a job demands – resources approach", *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, Vol. 12 No. 2, pp. 555-573.
- Dierdorff, E.C. and Ellington, J.K. (2008), "It's the nature of the work: examining behavior-based sources of work-family conflict across occupations", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 93 No. 4, p. 883.
- Eagly, A.H. and Wood, W. (1991), "Explaining sex differences in social behavior: a meta-analytic perspective", *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp. 306-315.

- Eagly, A.H. and Wood, W. (2013), "Nature–nurture debates: 25 years of challenges in understanding the psychology of gender", *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 340-357.
- Eagly, A.H. and Wood, W. (2016), "Social role theory of sex differences", *The Wiley Blackwell Encyclopedia of Gender and Sexuality Studies*, pp. 1-3.
- Eisenclaus, S.A. (2013), "Gender roles and expectations", *SAGE Open*, Vol. 3 No. 4, p. 2158244013506446.
- Fisher, R., Maritz, A. and Lobo, A. (2014), "Evaluating entrepreneurs' perception of success: development of a measurement scale", *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior and Research*, Vol. 20 No. 5, pp. 478-492.
- Greenhaus, J.H. and Beutell, N.J. (1985), "Sources of conflict between work and family roles", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 76-88.
- García, M.C.D. and Welter, F. (2013), "Gender identities and practices: interpreting women entrepreneurs' narratives", *International Small Business Journal: Researching Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 31 No. 4, pp. 384-404.
- Hachana, R., Berraies, S. and Ftiti, Z. (2018), "Identifying personality traits associated with entrepreneurial success: does gender matter?", *Journal of Innovation Economics and Management*, Vol. 27 No. 3, pp. 169-193.
- Hailemariam, M., Ghebrehiwet, S., Baul, T., Restivo, J.L., Shibre, T., Henderson, D.C., Girma, E., Fekadu, A., Teferra, S., Hanlon, C., Johnson, J.E. and Borba, C.P. (2019), "He can send her to her parents": the interaction between marriageability, gender and serious mental illness in rural Ethiopia", *BMC Psychiatry*, Vol. 19 No. 1, pp. 1-10.
- Hallward-Driemeier, M. and Gajigo, O. (2013), "Strengthening economic rights and women's occupational choice: the impact of reforming Ethiopia's family law", The World Bank.
- Heilman, M.E. and Okimoto, T.G. (2007), "Why are women penalized for success at male tasks? The implied communality deficit", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 92 No. 1, p. 81.
- Hechavarría, D.M. and Ingram, A.E. (2016), "The entrepreneurial gender divide: hegemonic masculinity, emphasized femininity and organizational forms", *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 8 No. 3, pp. 242-281.
- Hundera, M.B. (2019), "Role conflict, coping strategies and female entrepreneurial success in Sub-Saharan Africa", PhD Thesis, CentER, Center for Economic Research.
- Hundera, M.B., Duysters, G.M. and Naudé, W.A. (2019), "How do female entrepreneurs experience and cope with role conflict in sub-Saharan Africa? A case study from Ethiopia", *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, Vol. 38 Nos 1/2.
- Jennings, J.E. and McDougald, M.S. (2007), "Work-family interface experiences and coping strategies: implications for entrepreneurship research and practice", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 747-760.
- Kiggundu, M.N. (2002), "Entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship in Africa: what is known and what needs to be done", *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 7 No. 3, p. 239.
- Kim, J.L.S. and Ling, C.S. (2001), "Work-family conflict of women entrepreneurs in Singapore", *Women in Management Review*.
- Khayesi, J.N. and George, G. (2011), "When does the socio-cultural context matter? Communal orientation and entrepreneurs' resource accumulation efforts in Africa", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 84 No. 3, pp. 471-492.
- Kline, R.B. (2015), *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling*, Guilford publications, New York, NY.
- Koenig, A.M. and Eagly, A.H. (2014), "Evidence for the social role theory of stereotype content: observations of groups' roles shape stereotypes", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 107 No. 3, p. 371.
- Kuada, J. (2009), "Gender, social networks, and entrepreneurship in Ghana", *Journal of African Business*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 85-103.

- 
- Lee, S.S. and Stearns, T.M. (2012), "Critical success factors in the performance of female-owned businesses: a study of female entrepreneurs in Korea", *International Journal of Management*, Vol. 29 No. 1, p. 3.
- Lester, J. (2008), "Performing gender in the workplace: gender socialization, power, and identity among women faculty members", *Community College Review*, Vol. 35 No. 4, pp. 277-305.
- Levesque, R.J.R. (2011), "Sex roles and gender roles", in Levesque, R.J.R. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Adolescence*, Springer, New York, NY.
- Mazonde, N.B. and Carmichael, T. (2016), "The influence of culture on female entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe", *The Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, Vol. 8 No. 1, pp. 1-10.
- Medina, S. and Magnuson, S. (2009), "Motherhood in the 21st century: implications for counselors", *Journal of Counseling & Development*, Vol. 87 No. 1, pp. 90-96.
- Michel, J.S., Mitchelson, J.K., Kotrba, L.M., LeBreton, J.M. and Baltes, B.B. (2009), "A comparative test of work-family conflict models and critical examination of work-family linkages", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, Vol. 74 No. 2, pp. 199-218.
- Nagler, P. and Naudé, W. (2017), "Non-farm enterprises in rural sub-Saharan Africa: new empirical evidence", *Food Policy*, Vol. 67, pp. 175-219.
- Njeru, E.H. and Njoka, J.M. (2001), "Women entrepreneurs in Nairobi: the socio-cultural factors influencing their investment patterns", *Negotiating the Social Space*, pp. 141-174.
- Nooteboom, B. (2005), "Entrepreneurial roles along with a cycle of discovery".
- Ogbor, J.O. (2000), "Mythicizing and reification in entrepreneurial discourse: ideology-critique of entrepreneurial studies", *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 37 No. 5, pp. 605-635.
- Paulin, M., Lachance-Grzela, M. and McGee, S. (2017), "Bringing work home or bringing family to work: personal and relational consequences for working parents", *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 38 No. 4, pp. 463-476.
- Patel, C.J., Govender, V., Paruk, Z. and Ramgoon, S. (2006), "Working mothers: family-work conflict, job performance and family/work variables", *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, Vol. 32 No. 2, pp. 39-45.
- Prentice, D.A. and Carranza, E. (2002), "What women and men should be, shouldn't be, are allowed to be, and don't have to be: the contents of prescriptive gender stereotypes", *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, Vol. 26 No. 4, pp. 269-281.
- Robb, A.M. and Watson, J. (2012), "Gender differences in firm performance: evidence from new ventures in the United States", *Journal of Business Venturing*, Vol. 27 No. 5, pp. 544-558.
- Rudman, L.A. and Fairchild, K. (2004), "Reactions to counterstereotypic behavior: the role of backlash in cultural stereotype maintenance", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 87 No. 2, p. 157.
- Rudman, L.A., Moss-Racusin, C.A., Glick, P. and Phelan, J.E. (2012), "Reactions to vanguards: advances in backlash theory", *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 45, Academic Press, pp. 167-227.
- Shelton, L.M. (2006), "Female entrepreneurs, work-family conflict, and venture performance: new insights into the work-family interface", *Journal of Small Business Management*, Vol. 44 No. 2, pp. 285-297.
- Shelton, L.M., Danes, S.M. and Eisenman, M. (2008), "Role demands, difficulty in managing work-family conflict, and minority entrepreneurs", *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 13 No. 3, pp. 315-342.
- Skapa, B.C. (2005), "The small scale and informal enterprise sector in Zimbabwe: a policy frame work", Five Years Development Plan, Harare.
- Srivastava, S. (2012), "Motivational factors instrumental in the emergence of women entrepreneurship", *Aweshkar Research Journal*, Vol. 13 No. 1, pp. 70-76.

- 
- Timmons, J.A. (1978), "Characteristics and role demands of entrepreneurship", *American Journal of Small Business*, Vol. 3 No. 1, pp. 5-17.
- Voydanoff, P. (2005), "The differential salience of family and community demands and resources for family-to-work conflict and facilitation", *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, Vol. 26 No. 3, pp. 395-417.
- Vossenbergh, S. (2016), "Gender-aware women's entrepreneurship development for inclusive development in sub-Saharan Africa", INCLUDE knowledge platform on inclusive development policies.
- Wang, M.L. and Tsai, L.J. (2014), "Work-family conflict and job performance in nurses: the moderating effects of social support", *Journal of Nursing Research*, Vol. 22 No. 3, pp. 200-207.
- Wach, D., Stephan, U. and Gorgievski, M. (2016), "More than money: developing an integrative multi-factorial measure of entrepreneurial success", *International Small Business Journal: Researching Entrepreneurship*, Vol. 34 No. 8, pp. 1098-1121.
- Yang, T. and Aldrich, H.E. (2014), "Who's the boss? Explaining gender inequality in entrepreneurial teams", *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 79 No. 2, pp. 303-327.
- Zehnter, M.K., Olsen, J. and Kirchner, E. (2018), "Obituaries of female and male leaders from 1974 to 2016 suggest change in descriptive but stability of prescriptive gender stereotypes", *Frontiers in Psychology*, Vol. 9.

#### Further reading

- Eagly, A.H. and Wood, W. (2011), "Feminism and the evolution of sex differences and similarities", *Sex Roles*, Vol. 64 Nos 9/10, pp. 758-767.
- Greenhaus, J.H. and Powell, G.N. (2006), "When work and family are allies: a theory of work-family enrichment", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 31 No. 1, pp. 72-92.
- Wood, W. and Eagly, A.H. (2009), "Gender identity", *Handbook of Individual Differences in Social Behavior*, pp. 109-125.

#### Corresponding author

Hundera Mulu can be contacted at: [Boga3k@yahoo.com](mailto:Boga3k@yahoo.com)

---

For instructions on how to order reprints of this article, please visit our website:

[www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm](http://www.emeraldgrouppublishing.com/licensing/reprints.htm)

Or contact us for further details: [permissions@emeraldinsight.com](mailto:permissions@emeraldinsight.com)