Motivation, Growth and Gender in the Dutch Creative Industries

The Multi-Dimensionality of Motivation in Relation to Growth Intentions of Netherlands-based Architects

Natalia Bajczi

Erasmus University Rotterdam

Cultural Economics and Entrepreneurship

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Abstract

MOTIVATION, GROWTH AND GENDER IN THE DUTCH CREATIVE
INDUSTRIES

The research topic of this thesis is the multi-dimensional motivational factors of entrepreneurial architects based in the Netherlands in relation to growth motivations and gender. The objective of the research was to gain an in-depth understanding of multi-dimensional motivational factors of Dutch architects, and identify which factors motivate them to grow their firm. The researcher conducts a qualitative phenomenological research. The main findings identify three pairs of multi-dimensional motivations, namely freedom and flexibility, value realization and sustainability, and creative independence coupled with authority problems. In conclusion, the entrepreneurial narrative of Dutch architects showed striking similarities across genders, as the sex of architects does not affect motivations to grow. Value-realization is an overarching motivation, which drives Dutch architects and inspires them to establish ideal circumstances to be able to design and construct buildings, which reflect and materialize one's personal and artistic principles.

Keywords: *Gender, motivation, cultural entrepreneurship, creative industries, architecture, The Netherlands*

1. Introduction

At the start of the research process, while this study's focus was yet to be defined, or had yet to emerge, so to speak, the researcher already had an outlook on what was problematic in the field of cultural entrepreneurship. While entrepreneurship among women is becoming increasingly widespread internationally, it was challenging to find publications on entrepreneurship in the creative and the cultural industries, especially ones that also concerned gender. And although numerous publications were identified in the broader respect of gender and entrepreneurial motives (Segal et al. 2005; Amit & Muller, 1994; Verheul et al. 2006; Hisrich & Brush, 1985, Fischer et al. 1993), it was concerning that only a few dealt with well-defined segments of the economy. Furthermore, most of these papers aim to evaluate motivational factors based on the opportunity–necessity dichotomy (e.g. Humbert & Drew, 2010; DeMartino & Barbato, 2002). Newer publications argue that studying something so immensely complex as motivation is oversimplified when the opportunity–necessity dimensions are employed, therefore this dichotomy is rather limited (Hughes, 2003; Giacomin et al. 2011; Dawson and Henley; 2012; Stephan et al. 2015).

The researcher found the newest progress on the field regarding the presumed oversimplification through the push–pull dichotomy noteworthy. Moreover, the entrepreneurial motivation of women, in particular, was also a field of interest, on which several publications were identified (Langowitz & Minniti, 2007; Buttner & Moore, 1997; Okafor & Amalu, 2010). Yet none of these papers concerned the cultural industries specifically. Notwithstanding entrepreneurship is becoming an increasingly popular employment choice among women internationally. And various studies report a growth in the number of female-led businesses since the 2008 economic crisis (e.g. The Federation of Small Businesses, 2016; Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2017; European Commission, 2014; US Department of Commerce Economics and Statistics Administration, 2010). In the Netherlands, in 2012 the percentage of women entrepreneurs in the total active labor force was 11%, compared to 18% participation by men, while the sectoral presence of women in arts, entertainment and recreation showed a significantly stronger presence of 31% (European Commission, 2014). Furthermore, while the ratio of men in architecture is

still much higher than of women, the percentage of men is gradually yet continuously declining in the Netherlands, from 95% to an estimated 78% over the last 12 years (Bureau Architectenregister, 2015).

However, what particularly piqued the researcher's interest were the differences between what motivated men and women to get into entrepreneurship and grow their businesses based on previous research. There is no consensus on whether women are pushed or pulled into entrepreneurship, or if gender relates to motivations or growth incentives at all. Are there any motivational factors that which inspire women to a different extent than men? And if yes, why is that so? And how do these factors influence growth motivations? Since no previous empirical research was found that focused on the creative industries in respect of gender, motivation, and growth incentives, the researcher was driven to study what might inspire people differently, while sharing passion and interests in a smaller segment of the cultural sector, namely architecture.

1.1. Motivation for the study

As previously mentioned, reports from across Europe, UK and the US show an increase in the number of entrepreneurs since the financial crisis. And while the number of women-owned businesses is rising, research concerning gender in entrepreneurship and motivational differences across fields is lagging behind. Consequently, several distinct problems in the area inspired this study.

One problem is the lack of empirical research about the motivations of entrepreneurs in the creative and cultural industries, which also encloses motivational relations to gender in cultural entrepreneurship. Thus, there is little known about what motivates entrepreneurs across genders to start their businesses in the creative sector. Likewise, the literature on the motivations of cultural entrepreneurs is mostly theoretical (e.g. Klamer, 2011; Swedberg, 2006) and not empirical. Thus theories on motives have not been tested.

Another issue is—as mentioned above—that existing research on entrepreneurship and gender only seldom differentiates between sectors, and their participants are from

across all ages and countries, while researchers should create and clarify distinctions and consider the different priorities people have within sectors. Moreover, only a limited number of publications on entrepreneurial motivations study defined sectors (e.g. DeMartino et al 2009). Many researchers often employ national or international empirical data like GEM or the American Characteristics of Business Owners (hereinafter referred to: CBO) survey, and therefore do not focus on one particular segment of the economy (e.g. Dawson & Henley, 2012; Minniti & Nardone, 2007; Fairlie & Robb, 2009), but on all sectors on a country level (Humbert & Drew, 2010).

The push–pull dichotomy tends to dominate existing research on entrepreneurs' motivational factors; thus it restricts motivations to be either push or pull. Moreover, some researchers argue that this practice does not allow the examination of motives in their complexity. Hence, they call for a multi-dimensional structure for studying motivation, which would not separate motivations into two opposites, and consequently allow studying a combination of factors, as multiple factors might motivate one individual to differing extents (Arias & Penas, 2010; Bhola et at, 2006; Giacomin et al. 2011; Hughes, 2003).

Another issue is that empirical research on gender and entrepreneurship may not include men participants in their studies, (Belcourt et al. 1991; Hisrich & Brush, 1991) therefore it does not allow the comparative studying of gender-related issues in the field (Fischer et al., 1993). According to Bruni, Gherardi, and Poggio—prominent researchers in the area with numerous cited publications—, a further problem with the research of gender and entrepreneurship is that studies compare men to women in a way that establishes masculine traits and motivations as the norm. This creates an androcentric entrepreneurial standard and creates barriers for women, instead of studying women with a heuristic method (2005, p.31). Bruni et al. elaborate that in the past predominantly masculine traits and attributes were valued. Therefore, women entrepreneurs are validated on male 'terms', which poses as gender-blind, but only covers up the existence of masculinity. Therefore, Bruni et al. argue that entrepreneurship should be studied in a gender-conscious comparative approach, study subtexts of past publications and consider the politics of knowledge when conducting research (2004; 2005).

In summary, the key issues, which convey the research problem, are the gap in existing research on gender and entrepreneurship and the lack of empirical studies on motivation in the cultural and creative industries. Moreover, the ambiguity of the push–pull opposition and the gendered approach of researchers to entrepreneurship led to the need for this study.

1.2. Deficiencies in the literature

1.2.1. Push and pull motivations and gender

Most publications in the field employ the push-pull division, also called the necessity–opportunity dichotomy to study, compare, and contrast the motivations of entrepreneurs across genders. The push and pull duality is the most widely used and longest-standing instrument to compare men and women entrepreneurs. Thus, researchers use them extensively in diverse contexts (Stoner & Fry 1982; Stephan et al. 2015).

Many empirical studies use the push and pull approach, and The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (hereinafter referred to: GEM) also employs it along with the EU Flash Eurobarometers (hereinafter referred to: Eurobarometers), and studies by the American Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics. These institutions conduct large-scale studies, therefore their data is population representative. Because of this representative quality, researchers often employ data from GEM and the Eurobarometers. However, due to the large scale of these studies, and the fact that they are internationally conducted, questions posed to the participants are simplified. Also, answers are coined for participants; therefore, partakers cannot give in-depth answers, so these quantitative surveys are unable to capture complex entrepreneurial motivations. And so the opportunity necessity dimension limit empirical studies built on the data gathered by GEM, Eurobarometers, or their American counterparts.

The categorization of motivational factors in a positive and a negative set restricts researchers from looking into the complexities of motivation, while leaving considerable space for ambiguity. This is due to the issue that it may not be clear

whether e.g. 'financial motives' should be considered as part of the push or pull factor. As it may be either or both, depending on the person and the context, as one may wish to grow and increase profitability, or one may have started out of necessity after a financial crisis. However, the combination of both may also be probable (Dawson & Henley, 2012; Giacomin et al. 2011).

As previously mentioned, now many researchers agree that the push–pull opposition is considerably constrained and call for more complex ways of analyzing motivational differences (Stephan, et al. 2015; Dawson and Henley, 2011; Giacomin et al. 2011; Kirkwood, 2009). The field is progressing, and more studies are turning towards multidimensional ways to assess motivation. However, more advancement is needed on the field, as suggested by a 2015 report by the Entrepreneurship Research Centre, which evaluated some of the major publications in the field of entrepreneurial motivation between 2008-2013. Stephan et al. found that still, over 65% of papers employ the push–pull opposition (2015).

Some authors further argue that while the dichotomy laid a good foundation for academics in the past, it possesses some inherent problems, since motivational theory recognizes that motivation is the result of opposing forces, to 'approach' and 'avoid' certain behavior (Elliot, 2008; Stephan et al. 2015). Accordingly, both push and pull factors can be at play. Therefore, the push–pull dichotomy is problematic due to motivational theory itself as "approach and avoidance motivation is at work simultaneously as no goal has only positive effects" (Stephan et al. 2015).

1.2.2. Multi-dimensional motivations and gender

Beyond the push and pull duality researchers employ different types of motivational factors to capture what motivates entrepreneurs to start and grow a business. Many typologies exist next to the widely used duality. However, several key ones have developed across studies, and even though they might have different labels, these critical dimensions match across countries. These motivations are non-inclusive, and studies using them feature several motivational dimensions. These aspects include independence, status, financial gain, challenge, family, and societal values (Benzing

& Chu 2009; Edelman et al. 2010; Jayawarna et al. 2011; Renko et al. 2012; Reynolds & Curtin 2008). As research suggests, even across countries a continuousness exists in the key factors. However, their importance may vary from country to country (Giacomin et al. 2011; Lukes and Stephan, 2012).

Nevertheless, as put forward by Stephan et al., there is a consistency through studies. Thus, it is proposed that seven dimensions are sufficient to measure motivation, which are: achievement, challenge & learning; independence & autonomy; income security & financial success; recognition & status; family & roles; dissatisfaction; and community & social motivations (Stephan et al. 2015). Although many studies use the multi-dimensional approach to research gender attitudes and entrepreneurship in small sample sized studies (e.g. Gorgievski et al. 2011), no studies to date implemented this method to comparatively investigate the creative and cultural sectors.

1.2.3. Growth intention and gender

Publications on growth intentions represent another key segment of the relevant literature. While growth motivation is a motivational factor by itself, it is also linked to multi-dimensional motivational factors. Accordingly, it should be studied in connection with them, as different multi-dimensional motivational factors combined may lead to growth motivation. However, they may also overlap (Stephan et al. 2015). Therefore, it makes sense to study growth motivations in relation to other factors.

Studies on growth motivation regarding sex and entrepreneurship have shown different and contradictory results. According to several studies across the field, women and men measure success differently; therefore, women attach fewer added value to growth compared to men (Buttner and Moore 1997; DeMartino and Barbato, 2003; Cliff, 1998; Fischer et al 1993). Fischer also found that due to the aforementioned reasons, women's companies apt to be smaller (1992), while Cliff points out that women also prefer slow-paced growth (1998). Nevertheless, according to Cliff, women are equally as probable to possess positive growth intentions as men. Though, as stated in studies conducted by Estrin et al., women were less likely to report motivations to grow (2013). Similarly, Hart et al. found that women displayed caution and took fewer risks when it came to growth ambitions (2010). Contrasting to

that, a large-scale meta-analysis on the topic concludes that there are no significant connections between gender and growth motivations (Levie & Autio, 2013).

Stephan et al. argue that while several papers investigate growth motivations about gender, only a very few examine the relation of complex entrepreneurial motivations in connection with motivations to grow (2015). Therefore, the researchers call for more studies, which investigate how the relationship between different motivational factors affects growth motivations across genders.

1.3. Purpose of the proposed study

In summary, the purpose of this qualitative study is to explore the multi-dimensional motivations across genders and seek to understand their relationship in connection to growth intentions of cultural entrepreneurs—architects in particular—in The Netherlands. At this stage in the research, 'multi-dimensional motivations' are defined with the help of a publication, which reviews recent studies' evidence, conducted by the British Enterprise Research Centre. The study puts forward seven key motivational factors next to opportunity and necessity motivations. These factors were established based on the assessment of 27 studies on motivation for entrepreneurship. The authors claim these dimensions capture multi-dimensional motivations "in sufficient breadth and depth" (p.4). The seven dimensions as mentioned previously are achievement, challenge & learning; independence & autonomy; income security & financial success; recognition & status; family & roles; dissatisfaction; and community & social motivations (Stephan et al. 2015). Multi-dimensional motivations are motivational factors, which exist next to the push-and-pull dichotomy. However, these multi-dimensional factors are not defined and divided along the necessity–opportunity oppositions, instead they are studied on their own terms (e.g. a factor can be both push and pull simultaneously), and in relation to other elements. While principally the same seven key factors emerged throughout numerous publications on motivation, one may keep in mind that publications might use different names to describe the same underlying phenomena. Yet, researchers argue that the critical dimensions they convey are applicable to various fields. Another fundamental concept, which should be defined early on, is 'cultural entrepreneurship,'

the definition of which employed in this research, is coined by Swedberg as "the carrying out of a novel combination that results in something new and appreciated in the cultural sphere" (2006. p.260).

1.4. Central question and associated sub-questions

The central research question and the associated sub-questions of this study are:

CQ: What are the key multi-dimensional motivational factors in relation to growth motivations of Netherlands-based architects across genders?

Q1: What multi-dimensional factors motivate architects to start their firm?

Q2: What motivates architects to grow their firm?

Q3: What is the relationship between multi-dimensional motivational factors and growth motivations?

2. Literature Review

In this section, the most relevant publications on the field to date are summarized and synthesized. The papers revolve around four major themes, which have emerged in the literature throughout the research process. The researcher decided to organize key publications on each theme paper-by-paper, analyzing each and summarizing key takeaways at the end of sections. Also, at the end of the chapter, a table featuring all main concepts is presented to provide a clear overview.

The rationale behind the literature review's structure and length is to provide a solid foundation, identify all previous gaps unaddressed by researchers in the past, and give rationale for this study. The literature review prepares and guides the reader towards the significance and relevance of the key issues on the field to date. Therefore, the literature review lays the groundwork for research, yet also provides 'guiding posts' after gathering and analyzing the data. At first glimpse the literature review might seem extensive or lengthy compared to other chapters of the paper; however, the

researcher found the whole of the literature review not only useful but also necessary as it guided her and allowed her to execute a non-biased, well-founded and relevant study.

The first topic discussed in this section is gendering. This theme includes publications that examine gendering practices in social settings and entrepreneurship research. Then, the literature on push and pull motivational factors across genders are presented, and the ambiguity of the push and pull dichotomy in research is reviewed. Subsequently, publications on the multi-dimensional motivational factors of entrepreneurs are reviewed with gender differences in mind. Next, papers on motivations to grow and their connection to gender are discussed and studied. Lastly, the section is concluded with presenting the relevance of the chapter to this research.

2.1. Gendering in Research on Entrepreneurs and Cultural Entrepreneurs

It was decided to include publications on gendering and entrepreneurship early on in the research, so these papers were not only thought provoking but also useful for having provided guidance. Owing to papers on how sub-texts and collective practices produce and reproduce the social construct of gender, the researcher was able to stay conscious of these practices throughout the research. These publications led this study to make an effort and avoid the use of gender-specific subtexts and narratives while conducting interviews, and it allowed the researcher to study the replies of participants in a similarly conscious manner. Also, it is understood that these publications enabled the study to impose a deconstructing look at the topic from a critical perspective, while they also motivated the researcher to strive for an impartial and open-minded approach towards gender.

Studies claim that while entrepreneurship is perceived as a gender-neutral concept, in reality quite the opposite is true. Bruni et al.—researchers with numerous publications to their names on the field—conduct deconstructive discourse analysis on gender and entrepreneurship, claiming that masculinity and entrepreneurship are intertwined by academics (2004). Similar to this publication is Ogbor's paper on ideology in

entrepreneurship studies. Ogbor too carries out a discourse analysis of entrepreneurship research; he takes a critical stance on the topic and argues that the classics on entrepreneurship feature Schumpeterian masculinity; and this archetype has influenced research and researchers significantly (2000).

Bruni et al. discuss gendering through establishing parallels and play with words using Foucault's neology of 'governmentality' and entrepreneurial mentality (2004). The authors do this in reference to Foucault's work and follow his footsteps. It is argued that dominant groups defy subgroups into existence, which they propose is also the case in entrepreneurship research. Both Bruni et al. and Ogbor agree that traits that characterize entrepreneurs are associated with masculinity and create an androcentric male character as the archetype of the entrepreneur. And since one creates knowledge through discourse, both publications conduct a discourse analysis, as they reason that studying the ongoing academic conversation about women in entrepreneurship is informative, as it enables one to understand the practices and extent of gendering.

Both papers argue that gender subtexts are apparent across literature and they reflect subjective implications of researchers and exhibit a bias towards female entrepreneurs. The authors dissect and deconstruct texts and study the emergent sub-texts, which tend to marginalize women further and construct their expectations and entry towards entrepreneurship. Accordingly, Bruni et al. argue that researchers position women entrepreneurs in relation to their reproductive life cycle, while men are rarely asked about their private lives, which implicitly implies that taking care of the family is women's responsibility and priority (2004). Similarly, Ogbor argues that studies on the field show that loan officers tend to discriminate against women and accentuate their stereotypically female characteristics. Thus, female loan applicants with equally and objectively as competitive prospects as their men counterparts are considered higher risk (2000). Consequently, systematically discriminative practices constrain women entrepreneurs to "female entrepreneurship ghettos"—a term coined by Bruni et al. (2005).

As Bruni et al. summarize on the discourse analysis concerning of women's entrepreneurial motivation, the subtexts of papers pose implications that "female

entrepreneurship ghettos" niches where women entrepreneurs are prevalent, are validated by academic texts (2004, p.265). Such subtext further implies that women's skills are inherently connected to their gender and thus to their natural abilities, and substantiates their economic segregation while suggesting that their activities are less economically valuable. The authors argue that studies narrate women entrepreneurs into existence as newfound resources for the economy after crises, as predominantly female-occupied fields employ their specialized knowledge (2004).

The above-mentioned publications agree that male experience is established as normative; therefore, the on-going discourse renders the androcentric nature of research on entrepreneurship invisible, while simultaneously creating the male experiences as a standard to which they compare women. However, Ogbor advances his argument one step further, as he adds that gendered practices maintain a divide, and thus enable discrimination through conformity (2000).

Another relevant paper on the topic is an ethnographic study conducted across small Italian firms by Bruni et al. (2005). The study finds that across firms people define into existence the androcentric entrepreneurial image through activities, while gender is also reproduced across the symbolic spaces of work and home. Entrepreneurs—also on a company level—implement symbolic activities to place their personal and professional identity in line with the masculine entrepreneurial persona. Also, entrepreneurs who took part in the ethnography fulfilled their roles in relation to the corresponding performance of androcentric entrepreneurial expectations (p.426). However, interestingly, in two of the studied firms, entrepreneurs exhibited behavior alternative to the hegemonic masculinity of entrepreneurship and established themselves in defiance of that image, creating their own entrepreneurial identities as an alternative. Hence, masculinity in the field is apparent but entrepreneurship does not necessarily have to be androcentric, as there are other possibilities to explore.

Consequently, it can be seen that similar findings emerged across studies as researchers found the concept of entrepreneurship gendered, in which masculine traits are overwhelmingly preferred over feminine ones, and therefore concluded that discourse on the topic is gender-biased, and renders entrepreneurial masculinity

invisible (Bruni et al. 2004; Ogbor 2000). However, when an entrepreneur defines oneself in relation to the masculinized-standard, he/she may choose to do so in a way that positions their entrepreneurial persona in opposition to it, creating an alternative form of entrepreneurship (Bruni et al. 2005).

Initially, the findings of these studies may seem radical and far-reaching, and one may experience hardship capturing the abstract nature of some of them. Hence, when initially studying these publications, the researcher found them challenging and approached them with skepticism. However, further down the road, gender subtexts were perceived and comprehended in their effects, in their wider significance, such as in policy making or invalidating female experiences. And as it was mentioned before, studying publications on gendering allowed broadening the theoretical background of this study. Learning about gendering also allowed the inspection of the topic from an exciting yet critical point of view. In summary, it is understood that research practices and narratives continuously produce and reproduce gender in academic discourse and social practices. Furthermore, with the institutionalization of gendered studies, the policy is affected, which leads to the obstruction of female entry into the field (Bruni, et al. 2000).

2.2. Push and Pull Motivational Factors, Their Ambiguity and Gender

This chapter has a crucial role in understanding why the push and pull dichotomy may be an oversimplification of entrepreneurial motivations. Throughout the research process, the matter of ambiguity regarding push and pull factors kept reappearing. Thus, it is imperative to include it in the literature review, so the reader understands what steered this study away from using the push–pull dichotomy, and what led the research towards studying motivations in a multi-dimensional way. Learning about the ambiguous nature and problems regarding the opportunity–necessity duality gave reason to distance this study from it. Thus, motivations beyond the dichotomy were examined, as the researcher understood, that there is no need to attach either the "push" or "pull" label exclusively to a motivational factor.

As mentioned in the introduction, numerous key publications, like studies by the GEM and CBO, employ this dichotomy. However, the problem with the push and pull

motivational duality is that it's non-inclusive; thus, an entrepreneur would be defined by only one of the two. Moreover, historically, women have been frequently characterized by necessity entrepreneurship (e.g. Ohran and Scott, 2001; Hisrich and Brush, 1985; Hughes, 2002; Taylor and Newcomer, 2005; Wagner, 2005). However, some studies found that pull factors predominate in women (Buttner and Moore, 1997), while other researchers argue that in the case of both genders necessity entrepreneurship is more prevalent (Gilad and Levine, 1986; Segal et al., 2005).

These various findings leave space for more questions and ambiguity. Along the opportunity-necessity dichotomy, research shows that financial motives are more important to men than women.

For men, financial motivations serve as a positive motivational factor, as they desire a bigger income, which is considered a 'pull' factor. While for women economic motives mean that they are in need of a bigger income, which is considered a 'push' factor (Taylor and Newcomer, 2005; Humbert and Drew, 2010).

On the other hand, studies show women's key motivation to enter entrepreneurship is due to family obligations, as they want more flexibility and seek to find a better balance between work and family life. Thus, in women's case, independence-seeking and family-motivated reasons come first. Women choose entrepreneurship as a 'lifestyle choice', meaning that getting into entrepreneurship allows them to build a balance between their personal and professional lives. Hence, it is often considered as a 'pull motivation,' (DeMartino, Barbato, 2002; Buttner, 1993; Brush, 1992).

Conversely, large-scale studies use simplified survey questions with pre-written answers, while employing the push-and-pull dichotomy; consequently, they obstruct one from gaining a better understanding of the complex motivational puzzle of entrepreneurs.

However, other researchers point toward the possibility that in reality, motivation may not be this excluding, simplified duality, but combinations of multiple factors instead (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Giacomin et al. 2011; Hughes, 2003; Stephan et al. 2015).

Hence, individuals may be pushed and pulled into entrepreneurship at the same time by a multitude of motivations, for example by the combination of family and financial factors, due to needing more family flexibility, but also desiring higher income. Furthermore, one motivational factor may provide both push and pull reasons. As an example, an individual may want more independence due to dissatisfaction at work and problems with authority, while simultaneously the same person could strive for more creative and intellectual freedom in a job.

Similarly, Dawson and Henley have doubts regards the distinction between push and pull motivations; they deem it oversimplified and hypothesize that motivation is more complicated than the dichotomy allows one to perceive, and therefore one individual may possess more than one motivation (2012).

Dawson and Henley conduct data analysis based on the British Quarterly Labour Force Surveys from over the 1999–2001 periods to learn about the possible combination of push and pull factors, concerns regarding such distinctions, and differences between men and women (2012). The researchers find the push–pull distinctions highly ambiguous and conclude that more motivational factors could contain push motivations. Therefore, a higher percentage of business owners would count as necessity entrepreneurs when more factors are considered (e.g. when family obligations are considered as 'push' instead of 'pull' motivation). Thus, with the inclusion of other motivational factors, which may contain 'push' elements, the overall percentage of entrepreneurs motivated primarily by push factors rises from 13% to 48%.

Furthermore, a significantly higher proportion of women than men cited family obligations as their primary motives for getting into entrepreneurship, 23% women but only a staggeringly low 2.5% of men have indicated this as their main reason. The study's findings also show that over half of all female participants (55%) reported family commitments or the need for independence as motivators, while circa 29% of men quoted these factors as motivating factors, which is a noteworthy difference.

Consequently, family commitment and freedom do not belong evidently to push or pull categories, yet they have a more complicated relationship along the dichotomy.

However, survey studies cannot appropriately answer where they belong; thus, the issue needs more contextualization and qualitative studies (Dawson and Henley, 2012). Furthermore, common combinations of push and pull motivations suggest that there is a need for practices beyond the duality. The study points towards some popular combinations, which prove that push and pull motivations may both be in play at the same time. Such a combination is family obligations and independence, and authors argue that family responsibilities could serve as a push factor, which has an influence on the need for independence.

However, the study of Dawson and Henley has several limitations. Firstly, due to its quantitative nature, the survey allows ambiguity since the answers are not in-depth. The pre-written survey format may obstruct respondents from telling their perceptions and elaborate their motivations with their own words. A further limitation in the study is the possible bias of retrospective data, or "self-justification bias" as the authors refer to it. This bias might have influenced the participants. The researchers argue that due to the self-justification bias respondents may be prone to remembering past events in an excessively positive manner, thus they would over report pull-motives and surpass push-motives (p.712).

Clearly, additional research is necessary on the field, which may allow ambiguity to be explored and develop questionnaire items in a way that helps to resolve issues with vagueness, thus creating a deeper understanding of factors. A further conclusion made by the authors is that there is a clear need to better identify and clarify individual entrepreneurial motivations and study them in depth (p. 714).

Giacomin et al. authored a publication with similar findings, debating the push–pull dichotomy's ambiguity (2001). The paper studies the socio-economic characteristics' impact on entrepreneurs' motivation along the push-and-pull opposition. A quantitative analysis is conducted based on data provided by 538 participants. The study's findings confirm that entrepreneurs have encountered either or both push and pull factors throughout their career.

Hence, these results also suggest that a clearly dualistic opposition does not necessarily exist, and that entrepreneurial motivation is inherently more complicated than a single-axis necessity–opportunity opposition. Thus, the results suggest that aligning entrepreneurial motivation along with a push–pull dichotomy, which simplifies the motivational puzzle, is inadequate and possibly wrong (Giacomin et al., 2011, p.26).

The same study by Giacomin et al. also finds that age has an impact on entrepreneurial motivations. Thus, younger people were motivated simultaneously by push and pull factors, as they strived both for social recognition along with autonomy and a higher income, which further underlines that the same individual can be driven by both factors concurrently. On the contrary, older entrepreneurs' primary motivation was to get out of unemployment, which means they were located on the necessity side of the dichotomy.

Another key finding by Giacomin et al. is that gender has an impact on new venture creation due to wanting to get out of unemployment, and interestingly, men are motivated by this factor to a significantly larger extent than women are (2011). The authors assert that this might be due to cultural conditioning and traditionally giving men the role of the breadwinner. And while more women are necessity entrepreneurs in general, men may be driven toward entrepreneurship to avoid the negative stigma that comes with unemployment (p.23).

A further take-away from this study is that the socio-economic circumstances of the founder influence the positioning of their enterprise on the debated dichotomy, since "these characteristics determine the position of the founder in the professional sphere, as well as the resources that he objectively possesses and those that he can subjectively mobilize" (Giacomin et al. 2011, p.10). Therefore, the authors call for more research, which may enable policymakers to tailor policies to various entrepreneurial sub-profiles. Like in the previous publication, the limitation of this study also lies in its quantitative nature, as qualitative data and in-depth analysis could shed more light on the coexisting nature of motivations and their connections.

In conclusion, more research is needed, and the framework of research on entrepreneurial motivations should not be limited to the ambiguous opportunity–necessity distinction in order to open new research directions, since motivation is a combination of multiple factors (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Giacomin et al. 2011; Hughes, 2003; Stephan et al. 2015). Key researchers of the field find that the push–pull dichotomy is ambiguous and oversimplified, thus potentially inaccurate (Dawson and Henley, 2012; Giacomin et al. 2011). And as the dichotomy and motivational factors beyond it cannot be investigated in-depth with quantitative surveys, the field is in need of more qualitative research. Furthermore, more appropriate policy making with in-depth knowledge of entrepreneurial subtypes would enable legislators to provide proper help to entrepreneurs.

2.3. Multi-dimensional Types of Motivations and Gender

This section discusses papers beyond the push-and-pull dichotomy and their findings in regards to gender. In the introduction, the seven multi-dimensional types of motivations were defined as coined by Stephan et al. (2015). However, the aim of this section was to look at findings in connection to gender and various multi-dimensional motivations, instead of simply listing the factors and providing an explanation of each. The researcher decided to take this approach in order to learn more about connections between motivational factors and their relation to the whole picture, instead of firmly separating topics and looking at each dimension in isolation.

The multi-dimensional approach is relatively new, and challenging to locate publications on, since papers featuring such motivations may include from only a few to up to several dimensions. And since many are exploratory in nature, the specific factors that emerged throughout the research, might only be clarified in the results section of the publication. On the other hand, when quantitative data is employed, a paper's title might be more generic and overarching, and researchers may use large-scale panel studies, from the US Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics or the British Household Panel Survey.

A relevant study is by McGowan et al., looking at female entrepreneurs from across various trades—including the creative industries in Northern Ireland. The researchers conduct exploratory qualitative research through in-depth interviews; the sample includes 14 women who embarked on an entrepreneurial journey (2011). The paper argues that while some women get into entrepreneurship for reasons comparable to their male counterparts (e.g. increase income, autonomy), most of them start their businesses as they are in need of higher flexibility due to childcare obligations. Thus, the authors propose that these women were inspired to get into entrepreneurship to establish a better work–life balance, and be able to tend to family and domestic duties while still earning an income.

The findings emphasize that freedom, work flexibility, and enterprise ownership were the key motivational factors for women, which is partially due to their need of attending to household duties and balancing their personal and professional life simultaneously. However, McGowan et al. also report on 'demotivating factors,' which discouraged women or negatively affected them when starting their businesses. These include the guilt associated with spending a lot of time with work. Thus, the mothers felt at fault and feelings of guilt when they were unable to spend the desired amount of time with their children. Their senses of guilt created tension and affected them negatively throughout setting up and running their businesses.

A limitation of the research is that it employs a non-representative, small sample. Thus, the generalizability of findings is questionable. Also, the study did not make it clear how the participants were selected and collected. Hence it is not obvious whether they share commonalities, e.g. come from the same sector, and while the sampling technique was labeled 'convenience sample,' the author did not give any further information.

In summary, the study shows that unlike men, who are motivated by independence and financial incentives, women are drawn to entrepreneurship in search for an ideal equilibrium between work and family duties, and a condition of the right balance is independence and flexibility in one's work.

Another publication concerning gender and various motivational factors is by DeMartino and Barbato. The researchers study entrepreneurs who graduated from the same MBA program in a renowned business school in the United States over the same period, providing a strong common background to their research participants (2002). Therefore, the sample consisted of considerably similar individuals, who obtained the same degree from the same university. The researchers conduct a quantitative study to learn which motivational factors affect men and women differently.

DeMartino and Barbato's findings show that women possessed a higher ratio of family-related motivators, while they were less driven by wealth creation and societal advancement. Women ranked the importance of family-related factors (e.g. family-friendly policies) twice as high as their male counterparts. And while the participants had similar personal and professional profiles, the study reveals some significant differences between genders. Results show that less than third of the women (29%) regarded wealth creation as a motivating factor, compared to over three-quarters (76%) of men. Likewise, slightly higher than one-fifth (23%) of all female participants considered career advancement as a motivator, compared to 43% of male participants.

However, disparities between genders became more apparent when participants were compared based on marital status and whether or not they had dependents in the household. This comparison showed noteworthy differences between the similar demographics. Accordingly, when married women with dependents were compared to married men with dependents, the result showed that women ranked the importance of career flexibility, family-friendly policies, and being able to attend family related obligations significantly higher than their male counterparts (p.823). Furthermore, according to the results, men who were married with dependents ranked advancement and wealth creation considerably higher than women of the same demographic.

Nevertheless, these differences lessened when married and single participants with no children were compared across the genders. Though, when people of the same sex were compared, based on their dependents' status, results displayed that married women with dependents ranked flexibility and other lifestyle related motivators

higher that married and single women without dependents. While on the contrary, when men were compared on the same basis, having dependents have not changed their motivations significantly. Thus, the data suggest that development of the dependents' status does not affect male entrepreneurs, while it results in a meaningful change across females.

A limitation of DeMartino and Barbato's study, similarly to the one discussed earlier by Dawson and Henley (2012), rests upon its retrospective self-reporting data bias, since participants may have reported past events in an overly positive manner due to self-justification.

In summary, even despite the fact that similar demographics were compared across genders, some significant differences emerge. Women entrepreneurs value flexibility combined with being able to balance their career with their family obligations, while for men these factors are the least important motivators. On the other hand, men regard the combination of higher earnings and societal advancement as the key motivating factors, which were the least prominent among women. This further highlights that women are getting into entrepreneurship to be able to create a healthy life-work balance, while financial and status gains motivate men primarily.

Furthermore, DeMartino and Barbato argue that additional studies in which entrepreneurs with similar backgrounds are compared would prove beneficial to advance what we know about entrepreneurial motivations across genders. Therefore, a future research topic they propose for consideration is how various motivational factors affect entrepreneurs across genders.

Another study, which features results relevant to gender and multi-dimensional motivations, is by Jayawarna et al. (2011). This quantitative large-scale study is based on British Household Panel surveys throughout the course of 18 years, from 1991 to 2008. And while the study is not solely about women entrepreneurs, authors argue that women's entrepreneurial capacity is reduced due to gendering the entrepreneurial persona. Thus, entry into the field is further obstructed as a result of the social expectation of tending to family and household duties.

Jayawarna et al. assert that the number of women entrepreneurs—even though it is gradually growing—is still significantly lower compared to the number of male entrepreneurs in Britain. And up to this day, new business creation rates are considerably lower among women, which are potentially due to gendered social practices (p.24). Furthermore, findings suggest that in the UK women are discouraged from entrepreneurial action due to primary care and household responsibilities; therefore, their economic potentials are obstructed (p.24). When inspecting the motivational factors of women entrepreneurs who were young mothers, data shows that entrepreneurial women's primary motivation was to gain flexibility, and autonomy in work, which is a result of having to attend family-related duties.

Jayawarna et al. (2011) work with data from secondary sources, taken from large-scale, longitudinal panel surveys conducted annually in Britain, thus it is nationally representative, even though the researchers did not construct the survey questions themselves, which can be considered a potential limitation.

From this study it can be apparent that work flexibility and independence are key motivators for women in the UK, as they strive to create a work-life balance, and attend family and childcare duties. Thus, in this case women are driven by various motivational factors, namely independence, need for flexibility and family-related motivations.

Reynolds and Curtin also report similar findings. The researchers use quantitative data from the US-based Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics to assess business creation and characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs. The study is extensive—comparable to Jayawarna's—, therefore exhibits similar types of data limitations due to its large scale and the lack of tailor-made survey questions. The data is obtained from 1214 nascent entrepreneurs (2008). Concerning gender differences, the researchers observed that women and men differ regarding motivational factors. Comparable in the studies presented above, they conclude that women rank autonomy and flexibility higher as motivational factors, while for men, the combination of status and wealth creation is imperative.

Another motivational factor along the multi-dimensional scope that has relevance concerning gender is the community and social motivational factor, in the form of social entrepreneurship. Studies on not-for-profit firm creation with socially conscious goals in mind have interesting implications regarding gender differences.

Levie and Hart study social entrepreneurs in the UK (2011). The researchers aim to figure out potential disagreements between the public sector and third sector entrepreneurs, regarding aspirations and socio-economic factors. The study uses quantitative data from the GEM Surveys, and regression analysis to unveil dissimilarities between male and female entrepreneurs. Findings reveal that women in the case of becoming entrepreneurs show a higher chance of choosing the third sector than the business area. Hence, even though in general women are less likely to get into entrepreneurship, when they do, the probability that they get into social entrepreneurship is higher. The authors propose that this might be because women are driven to contribute to their local community and use entrepreneurship as a tool to improve the socio-economic circumstances of their community and address local issues through social entrepreneurship.

Similarly, Estrin et al. conduct research on social entrepreneurship, with the use of representative GEM data samples from 47 countries to learn more about social and business entrepreneurship across nations, and the demographics of individuals interested in pursuing them (2013). The study's findings further confirm the results of Levie and Hart (2011), as researchers find that relatively fewer women than men engage in either forms of entrepreneurship. However, when one only inspects the social sector of entrepreneurship, it can be seen that women participate in relatively higher numbers than men. However, Estrin et al. do not propose why such a difference may exist (2013).

To summarize this subchapter, publications underline that various multi-dimensional influences and their combinations drive one towards entrepreneurship. The main takeaway is that among men, the combinations of societal and economic gains are prevalent, while improved work–life balance and family-related responsibilities motivate women (McGowan et al. 2011; DeMartino & Barbato, 2002; Dawson & Henley, 2012; Jayawarna et al. 2011; Reynolds & Curtin, 2008). Moreover, both

Levie and Hart (2011) and Estrin et al. (2013) confirm that there's a higher probability for women to engage in social entrepreneurship compared to men, which could be a result of women being more driven by the community and social motivational factors.

Limitations of these studies suggest that more in-depth qualitative research would be useful to discover multi-dimensional motivational factors comprehensively and reveal underlying connections between them.

2.4. Growth Motivations and Gender

As previously mentioned in the introduction, growth motivations could be considered as a separate motivational dimension, as they emerge in connection with other motivational factors, and these may often overlap (Cliff, 1998). Thus, the researcher decided to dedicate a separate section to growth motivations, and study them in relation to other motives. Throughout this research learning about growth incentives in a relational context inspired the study to seek new connections between growth and other motivational factors in the cultural and creative industries.

In this section, publications that look at gender differences in growth motivations are discussed in relation to other factors. While some studies fail to establish a relationship between gender and growth motives (e.g. Levie and Autio, 2013), various papers find that women are less likely to possess positive growth intentions than men (Estrin et al., 2013; Reynolds and Curtin; 2008). Therefore, women's companies are apt to have a smaller size (Fischer 1992), and also grow at a slower pace (Cliff, 1998).

Furthermore, as discussed in the previous section, men and women are driven by various motivational factors, as men find economic advancement more important, while women are motivated by autonomy and work–life balance. However, these studies measure success quantitatively. Thus, women's success is not evaluated on their own terms, based on what motivated female participants in particular, but instead, their success is assessed on quantifiable factors, such as income and growth, which are more frequently the primary motivation of men.

However, findings across studies show that women keep their firms small on purpose (Goffee et al 1983; Lee-Gosselin et a., 1991), and possess moderate growth expectations (Belcourt et al. 1991), which is more in line with their key motivational factors. Consequently, women's definition of growth may be achieved on their own terms.

A relevant publication, which was found immensely informative on the topic, is a paper by Cliff that studies the gender differences concerning growth intentions; Cliff argues that the incentive to grow is related to various motivations (1998, p. 524). The researcher uses a qualitative method, and conducts structured personal interviews with open-ended questions at the end. The participants are small business owners from Canada; the sample contains 141 men and 88 women. The open questions were posed at the end of the interview when the interviewer wanted to find out information about participants' view on goals, aims, and success. Thus, participants were able to communicate their ideas and opinions in depth, which allowed the researcher to 'dig deeper' and establish new and meaningful connections.

The results suggest that women possessed fewer resources to grow. Moreover, men valued growth significantly more than women, while women did not measure success by growth or current firm size. Nonetheless, an interesting finding surfaced, as there was no difference found in the probability of having positive growth intentions. Thus, men and women were equally likely to possess positive growth intentions, which Cliff found surprising, and called for more research and further exploration of the topic (1998).

Furthermore, Cliff proposes that while women are just as likely to have growth incentives, they prefer slow-paced expansion to achieve a manageable firm in which they are comfortable with handling employees and tasks, and women consider personal factors—like attending to family and marital relationships—more when making growth decisions than business factors. Thus, the research suggests that significantly more women than men establish a "maximum business size threshold," which they are reluctant to overstep. Thus, women are consciously limiting the growth of their companies, as for them, growth does not necessarily mean success

(p.532). As Cliff argues, women create a trade-off situation, in which they trade the growth of their business to more, personally important factors.

On the other hand, men aim to expand in a more risky and fast-paced way, and unlike women, are less likely to show signs of concern about accelerated expansion, while women found this approach unsustainable, overly risky, and time-consuming. Overall, circa 85% of female participants expressed no interest in business growth due to having achieved a maximum size threshold, while significantly fewer men (only 36%), reported stopping growth because of the same reason (p.587).

A shortcoming of this study is that the concept of "maximum business size threshold" is not clarified, and is conceived based on answers provided by interviewees who declared that they did not want to grow (p.358). Thus, the question whether all entrepreneurs have such a limit remains. The paper also calls for further research on the field to establish more connections between gender, business size and motivations to grow (p.539).

In a nutshell, women tend to avoid risky fast-paced growth, as they do not measure their success by it; therefore, expanding their firms just for the sake of growth does not drive them. Along similar lines, they consciously limit the size of their companies, to a size they can comfortably manage. On the contrary, men are less likely to establish a maximum business threshold, and are driven by growth since it serves as a measure of success to them.

2.5. Summary

The literature review reveals contemporary issues about gendering, entrepreneurial motives, and growth incentives. In this section a summary table can be found below, which sums up the key concepts and ideas introduced in this chapter. While reading the chapter one may keep in mind that most of these studies discuss entrepreneurship in more general terms, and not cultural entrepreneurship in particular. Therefore, fundamental differences between entrepreneurs and cultural entrepreneurs may influence the outcome if these studies were repeated in the creative sector, since

cultural entrepreneurs are driven by different factors than entrepreneurs with commercial interests at heart (Swedberg, 2006). Although the field of cultural entrepreneurship lacks empirical studies, these papers created a sound basis for exploration and steered the researcher towards employing an exploratory qualitative design in this research.

Table 1. Literature review summary (Bajczi, 2018)

Chapter	Concept/ideas	Authors
2.1.	Androcentric entrepreneurial image obstructs women from entering entrepreneurship	Bruni et al. 2004; Ogbor 2000; Jayawarna et al. 2011
	Female entrepreneurship ghettos	Bruni et al. 2005
2.2.	Necessity entrepreneurship—historically women are characterized by it	Ohran and Scott, 2001; Hisrich and Brush, 1985; Hughes, 2002; Taylor and Newcomer, 2005; Wagner, 2005
	Pull factors predominate in women	Gilad and Levine, 1986; Segal et al., 2005
	Push factors prevail in both genders	Buttner and Moore, 1997
	Women are pulled in by flexibility and life-work balance	DeMartino, Barbato, 2002; Buttner, 1993; Brush, 1992
	Motivation is a combination of multiple factors	Dawson and Henley, 2012; Giacomin et al. 2011; Hughes, 2003; Stephan et al. 2015
	Push and pull motivations are ambiguous and oversimplified, motivation is more complicated than the dichotomy allows	Dawson and Henley 2012; Giacomin et al. 2001
2.3.	The seven multi-dimensional types of motivations	Stephan et al. 2015
	Women: Many motivations at play, freedom and flexibility needed for balancing family with personal and professional life	McGowan et al. 2011; Jayawarna et al. 2011.
	Women rank freedom and flexibility higher as motivational factors and seek work-life balance. For men, the combination of status and wealth creation is important	Jayawarna et al. (2011). Reynolds and Curtin 2008, DeMartino and Barbato, 2002
	Relatively more women in social entrepreneurship, they care about community more	Levie and Hart 2011; Estrin et al. 2013
2.4.	Growth and multi-dimensional motivations overlap	Cliff, 1998
	No relationship between gender and growth	Levie and Autio, 2013
	Women are less likely to possess positive growth intentions than men	Estrin et al. 2013; Reynolds and Curtin, 2008
	Women's companies are apt to have a smaller size	Fischer, 1992
	Women's companies grow at slower pace	Cliff, 1998
	Women keep their firms small on purpose	Goffee et al 1983; Lee-Gosselin et al. 1991
	Women have moderate growth expectations	Belcourt et al. 1991
	Women have a "maximum business size threshold"	Cliff, 1998

2.5.	Cultural entrepreneurs are driven by different factors than entrepreneurs with commercial interests	Swedberg, 2006

3. Methods

In this section, the characteristics of qualitative research are discussed, and the rationale for having chosen a qualitative study design is elaborated. Next, the researcher's role in the research process and ethical considerations that have surfaced throughout the research are considered. Subsequently, it is clarified how data was collected, where and what sampling techniques were employed. Subsequently, the methods of data analysis are presented, main themes are proposed, and their reliability, validity, and limitations are examined. Then, the chapter concludes with a summary of the research experience, which guides the reader towards the Results section.

3.1. The Essence Qualitative Research

Qualitative research possesses a particular set of basic features. It is exploratory, where the investigation takes place in the natural setting of the participants, so when researchers conduct interviews, they can observe participants in their natural context and allows them to better understand the subject's fundamental opinions, beliefs and motivations. This participant observation may create added value throughout the process, as information can be obtained from the non-verbal behavior and environment of the studied individuals (Creswell, 2013). In the qualitative research process the researchers serve as instruments of data collection; they design interviews, study participants, collect data and evaluate it themselves. Hence, with this methodology, the researchers get deeply involved in the field while gathering information.

Furthermore, in qualitative methods, researchers regularly gather data from multiple sources, then organize and analyze it with a bottom-up approach. Thus, themes emerge through analysis, which are then arranged and rearranged, allowing new topics and categories to emerge inductively throughout the research. Subsequently, the researchers look for more evidence that could support each theme, which is a

deductive process, and this back and forth relationship characterizes qualitative analysis (Creswell, 2013; Marshall and Rossman, 2011). Likewise, a qualitative study is emergent in nature, as themes in connection to the central issues develop after the researchers enter the field, and new themes, relationships, and ideas may continuously keep surfacing during the research process (Creswell, 2013, p. 492). Another key characteristic of qualitative research is that it focuses on participants' understanding and experience of an issue, and not hypotheses and assumptions put forward by the researcher (Hatch, 2002).

Studies employing qualitative methods attempt to create an overview of the issue at hand while taking into consideration various experiences and accounts. Thus, the aim of the research is to create an understanding of the 'bigger picture' (Creswell, 2013, p. 498). Creswell and Brown call this a 'holistic account' and add that graphic representation of the data visualizes the process and central research concepts and can aid the understanding of a comprehensive qualitative report significantly (1992).

It is imperative that the researcher stays reflective throughout the process, and discusses any influences that may potentially affect his/her interpretation of the data. Accordingly, the researcher has to exercise reflexivity and give an account of his/her background and experiences. This procedure is done not only to clarify potential bias, but also to gain an understanding of how the researcher's personal experiences might have influenced the research direction (Creswell, 2013, p. 498).

3.2. Why qualitative research?

It was decided to choose a qualitative phenomenological research design due to the apparent gap in the field. A phenomenological approach was chosen in order to gain a deeper insight into the participants' entrepreneurial and growth motivations.

As it was proposed in the introduction, and pointed out by numerous researchers, studies about gender and entrepreneurship often rely on quantitative data from structured surveys like the GEM. Therefore, the field gets widely criticized, since quantitative methods do not allow participants to elaborate their motivations in-depth, and instead, just group them in pre-defined categories and themes, which hinders

progress on the field (Belcourt et al. 1991; Brush 1992; Stevenson 1990). Consequently, as the field lacks in-depth studies, researchers call for more detailed qualitative research on gender and entrepreneurship.

Moreover, a qualitative phenomenological design is appropriate when studying marginalized social groups, like minorities. Qualitative methodology is also widespread in feminist research and gender studies; thus, women can freely explain an elaborate their personal experiences (Bryman, 2015). Furthermore, cultural entrepreneurship has not yet been studied widely in the context of gender, multi-dimensional motivations, and growth. Thus, it made sense to implement qualitative research due to its exploratory nature and potential to generate theory. Also, it was presumed that the emergence of previously unprecedented motivational factors might be possible due to the differences between the motivations of cultural and business-oriented entrepreneurs.

3.3. The Researcher's Role and Ethical Considerations

As mentioned above, it is necessary that the researcher gives details of her background in relation to research sites and participants to inform the reader about how her personal bias might shape the direction of the study. The researcher has a background in the arts and heritage, and professional experience in the art world and cultural policy research. Furthermore, the researcher is actively involved in gender politics and equality. She possesses a longstanding curiosity towards architecture. She did not have any personal or professional field experience before conducting this research, however. Furthermore, the researcher also did not have personal connections with sites or participants before this study. Entry to the field was gained through the BNA, The Dutch Bureau of Architecture. In the primary stages of the research, their database was implemented to find Rotterdam-based architects who had their own firms. Regarding ethical issues, the researcher granted anonymity to the participants to establish trust. Thus, interviewees would give in-depth personal accounts of their experiences. Therefore, it was decided to protect their privacy and conceal their names, apart from a business economist who was interviewed for data triangulation purposes.

Accordingly, there is a possibility that the researcher's system of beliefs steered the outcomes in alignment with historical liberal feminist theory, as the researcher's bias would cause her to navigate the research towards themes that create conclusions in line with feminism. As summarized by Fischer et al., who created a theoretical overview on gender, sex, and entrepreneurship, historical liberal feminist theory originates from historical liberal political thought. This theory is based on the belief of "equality of all beings" and defines humans as "rational and self-interest seeking agents" (1993, p. 154). The liberal feminist theory asserts that in professional aspects women would "equalize" themselves if they possessed equal chances, and therefore differences between men and women would "diminish or disappear" (1993, p.154).

3.4. Data Collection

Initially, Rotterdam was chosen as the site of the study due to its outstanding architectural landscape and abundance and proximity of universities and academies teaching the subject on a Master's level. However, later the site and sample characteristics had to be altered, as difficulties were apparent with reaching the desired number and gender-ratio of participants. Initially, the researcher set out to interview entrepreneurs who have established their firms for five years or less. This was deemed appropriate since the study aspired to gain insight into processes of motivational factors at play in regards to growth intentions, and also to somewhat lessen the recall bias, as participants may remember positive factors better, or may not admit negative ones in retrospect (Cassar, 2007). However, the site and sample characteristics had to be modified early on, as it significantly limited the number of entrepreneurs who qualified. Thus, the maximum number of years potential participants' firm was founded was changed from 5 to 10 years or less.

Likewise, it was also decided to expand the site setting of the research to whole of The Netherlands, and the researcher started implementing snowball sampling to find more interviewees. Throughout the research, an interview guide was constructed, and interviews were conducted face-to-face and on the phone as well when financial or time constraints did not allow meeting interviewees in person.

In the beginning, twenty-five interviews were planned. And while this number was accomplished, at the end the researcher wasn't able to use five of them due to technological and circumstantial issues during recording—the windy weather rendered three recordings nearly impossible to comprehend, yet the researcher only realized this issue upon listening to the recordings much later. Furthermore, two participants had to be disqualified, since it turned out during the interviews that they set up their companies more than ten years ago.

The initially used sampling technique employed in this study is a stratified representative sample, as the researcher wanted to create an illustrative sample of architects based on gender. Therefore, Eurostat data was used to establish the women to men ratio in the arts and entertainment sector in the Netherlands, where the sectoral presence of females is 31% compared to 69% male presence (European Commission, 2014). However, this proved problematic from more than one aspect. As not only data on the men-to-women ratio could not be found on Netherlands-based entrepreneurs in architecture (only men-to-women sectoral presence in architecture, but the presence of entrepreneurs in not measured by the BNA), the researcher also had difficulties reaching the suggested number of interviews while limiting the site and sticking to the 31–69% ratio. And as proposed by Thomson, the recommended number of interviews is twenty to thirty cases, as at that point it is probable that the researcher has reached saturation, so no new themes are likely to emerge (2011). Therefore, in need of more interviews, existing participants were being asked whether they knew other entrepreneurial architects who would be interested in this research.

Thus, the sampling technique shifted to purposive snowball sampling and convenience sampling as the study followed up on the interviewees' leads, while also interviewing participants who were reached through the BNA's database. In the end, the number of interviews conducted was deemed satisfactory, the originally proposed 30-70% ratio achieved, and saturation was reached, which became evident when the same themes kept re-emerging.

Table 2. Personal background and context of participants

ID	Gender	Age	Status	Children	Foundation	Corporate	Employees
AA	Male	25-35	Relationship	2	2007-10'	Yes	1-3
BB	Male	36-45	Married	3	2011-14'	Yes	1-3
CC	Male	36-45	Married	2	2011-14'	Yes	1-3
DD	Male	25-35	Single	0	2007-10'	No	1-3
EE	Male	25-35	Relationship	0	2015-17'	Yes	1-3
FF	Male	46-55	Married	2	2007-10'	Yes	0
GG	Male	36-45	Married	2	2007-10'	Yes	0
HH	Male	36-45	Relationship	2	2007-10'	Yes	1-3
II	Female	36-45	Married	1	2015-17'	Yes	0
JJ	Female	36-45	Single	0	2015-17'	Yes	0
KK	Female	25-35	Relationship	0	2015-17'	No	0
LL	Female	36-45	Married	2	2007-10'	No	1-3
MM	Female	36-45	Married	2	2007-10'	Yes	1-3
NN	Male	36-45	Married	3	2007-10'	Yes	1-3
OO	Male	36-45	Single	0	2015-17'	Yes	1-3
PP	Female	25-35	Relationship	0	2015-17'	Yes	1-3
QQ	Male	46-55	Married	2	2007-10'	Yes	4-7
RR	Male	36-45	Married	2	2011-14'	Yes	1-3
SS	Male	36-45	Married	2	2011-14'	Yes	1-3
VV	Male	46-55	Married	0	2011-14'	Yes	0

The data was collected over the course of two months. Architects' contact details were obtained through the BNA's official site. Subsequently, a polite, yet convincing email was designed in which the research topic and the researcher were introduced concisely. Information on how to design open-ended interview questions was collected (e.g. Bryman, 2015) and a discussion guide created. With the aid of the discussion guide, the researcher aimed to address central themes and processes about growth, motivation, and gender. Face-to-face interviews were recorded on two devices simultaneously, with the aim to eliminate potential complications with recording devices. The phone interviews were recorded with ACR Call Recorder, an application designed to record phone calls. Notes were also taken throughout interviews and active listening was practiced.

3.5. Data Analysis and Interpretation

After data collection the interviews were transcribed. Subsequently, the data was analyzed with NVivo. Information on the use of NVivo was gathered from online sources, and the researcher learned to use the software for qualitative data analysis.

The analysis was done with software due to the scope and extent of the qualitative data gathered through interviews with twenty architects, and a twenty-first with a business economist for data triangulation purposes. After the interviews had been transcribed and imported into NVivo, a threefold data analysis was employed as used in qualitative research. Throughout the study, the researcher's personal experiences with interviewees were used as a basis for interpreting their replies. Firstly, the interviews were reread to get a general sense of the whole and create themes as they emerged through open coding. Then the interviews were read another time and relationships were established between topics. Next, categories were set up with axial coding. Then relations between groups of themes were established with the use of selective coding. Subsequently, NVivo-based tools and queries were implemented to visualize and analyze interrelated issues. It is also important to mention that NVivo employs various tools for visualization, which can be displayed while coding. Therefore, color codes were established for each group of themes. Thus, the researcher was able to see on the side of the screen how certain issues overlapped or followed one another during the interviews. In the initial phase text, search and word frequency queries were conducted to get a better sense of the whole of the data. Then NVivo's hierarchy chart and diagrams creation tools were also applied. Subsequently, after initial connections were explored in the data, the researcher employed more complex tools, such as matrix coding, and coding comparison to test potential relationships and check whether initial observations were valid.

Next, process drawings and figures were drafted to elaborate the development of the research, and to seek out new connections between themes. The planned outcome of this study is a complex interconnected picture of ideas described in a narrative report. The narrative approach and visualization of data allow the readers to comprehend the study in its complexity and provide the researcher assistance throughout the development and proposal of theory.

3.6. Validity, Reliability, and Limitations

To enable the reader to assess the validity and reliability of the data, the researcher's bias was previously clarified in this chapter. Furthermore, interview with a field expert was also conducted for data triangulation purposes. Moreover, the researcher spent a prolonged time on the field.

A limitation of this study is that difficulties were experienced when recruiting interviewees since participants with rather particular backgrounds were required. Therefore, it took significantly more time to gather data than expected. Furthermore, the transcription of interviews was lengthy, and data analysis was a laborious process. The researcher also had to learn to use NVivo to code the data due to the scale of the study, and analysis was challenging and time-consuming. Furthermore, certain interviews could not be used, since recordings were damaged due to several reasons, (e.g. some recordings were unintelligible because of loud background noises). Also, the phone-based recording device failed in two instances.

Another limitation is that in qualitative research, data is always prone to the bias of both participants and researchers. And as this study uses a small group of participants from a particular country, it is questionable whether their experience is representative to what other architects experience around the world, or to what other entrepreneurs encounter in the creative and cultural industries.

4. Findings

The key findings are structured based on the main themes that emerged throughout data analysis. A visual representation of the major themes was also created and integrated into a process model to provide concise oversight of the data as a whole. The researcher intended to organize these themes in a narrative; however, certain topics and issues overlap. Therefore, the presentation of the results is not entirely in a linear manner.

First, in this section the researcher discusses how architects first embarked on their entrepreneurial journey, and then connects their starting circumstances and motivational factors. Next, motivations are presented regarding challenges that architects must to encounter while running their own companies. Then, growth

motivations are discussed, and the main reasons behind growth incentives are proposed. Lastly, a process model is presented and explained.

4.1. The Process of Becoming an Entrepreneur

In this section the journey of becoming an entrepreneurial architect is detailed. First, each step is discussed from starting circumstances coupled with multi-dimensional motivational factors, through the stage of learning and challenges to growth motivations. The course of development is also demonstrated in section 4.2. where the process models are explained and contextualized.

4.1.1. Starting circumstances

After graduation, architects ideally want to get a position at a company to get corporate experience and evolve professionally (for visual representation of one's progression refer to Fig. 1 Process Model 1, p.51). They are young and motivated, but soon enough face the reality of working for a corporation, and not having the last word on how a project would turn out. They experience creative clashes in this environment due to having their personal architectural vision and values. They feel that to create work to their highest possible standard they need autonomy and flexibility in their job. Thus, they begin seeking more freedom and often start doing personal projects on the side.

> "*But working for a boss is difficult; I couldn't give in all that I wanted to and show my creativity. For a while, I only did technical drawings, and even when I had a bit more freedom, I felt locked up. I felt the boundaries of the project, and it bothered me that the projects lacked creativity, and I couldn't lose myself in them.*" (Participant AA, personal communication, 2017, May 7)

Architects mention the need for happiness to design great buildings, and while none of them describes the corporate experience as a particularly negative one, at a point architects feel that they have matured and learned enough, so it is time to move on. Their ideas of happiness also require freedom, which was not in line with corporate values. Consequently, they experience hardships due to feeling 'between boundaries' at their jobs. Starting their firm is also the result of continuously seeking new

challenges and wanting to become better 'craftsmen' and more experienced professionals. And after having spent years working for others, they feel driven to move on, as they cannot fulfill their vision and create designs in line with their values.

"I worked together with a lot of people and learned so many new things, so many great colleagues too, and I really like working with people, so it was actually pretty great, but at some point, I knew too well what to do. Like in a way I grew too much, and then I didn't enjoy things that much anymore, so I grew too close to the office, and because of that, decided that I need to change. So I needed a change in my work environment too, that was another reason why I left." (Participant PP, personal communication, 2017, May 21)

When it seems that they cannot progress further in a corporate environment, they feel like it's time to leave and move on. Architects found their own company in order to realize the architectural and personal values and vision. Accordingly, they want to create the prerequisites for the ideal work environment, in which they can excel at their job to the best of their ability while becoming more skilled architects in the process.

"I've had enough of working for others, and I did realize that working for myself would be simply more gratifying. I wanted to get into my personal projects, the ones I've been thinking about for all those years, I wanted to make buildings that reflect me personally and professionally, because as part of a company what you do is executing the ideas of your bosses." (Participant II, personal communication, 2017, May 18)

In several cases, their experience in a corporation is coupled with circumstances brought on by the financial crisis. And while most architects sought—and obtained—corporate experience before starting their own companies, a few participants decided to start their businesses right after university in the midst of the crisis as partly a result of not being able to find a job. What their narrative tells us is that they possess an entrepreneurial drive and want to run their firms eventually. However, the crisis accelerates this process considerably.

"I wanted to get experience as part of different companies for a couple of years, but I gave up on that eventually. It was a time when nobody really hired people for full time or anything, so I had chosen this path partially because of that. I mean I eventually wanted to have my own company

anyway, but I first wanted to see how others do, you know." (Participant RR, personal communication, 2017, May 21)

The crisis affected all participants, and architects working at corporations have seen their colleagues being let go, or they decided to leave as a result of seeing the office struggle, not seeing potential to progress there anymore. They contextualized the crisis and its aftermath together with its adversities as a chance and opportunity for starting their own companies—which they eventually wanted to set up either way. As it can be seen, participants frame their starting circumstances as a mix of motivations playing all at once, which is then sped up by the crisis. Therefore, architects do not start their business clearly out of necessity or opportunity, but rather take advantage of a difficult time like the economic crisis to fulfill their awaiting wish of going onto an entrepreneurial path. They do so since they desire more freedom and flexibility, want more creative independence while having authority problems, or seek value realization and build buildings to reflect their personal or artistic principles like sustainability or a form of beauty.

Thus, entrepreneurial ventures are initially fuelled by multi-dimensional motivational factors, which are then coupled together with conditions inflicted by the crisis—and consequently accelerate the entrepreneurial evolution of architects.

"*I just decided to save my ideas and try them by myself. And then I tried to do it, in 2014, and everybody kept telling me that "You're nuts! You have a steady job! A set job!" and you know it was in the middle of the crisis, so everybody was asking me "What are you doing?" and one architecture firm after the other went bankrupt at that time, and then they said, "So you want to start one...?" And I said yeah because I think we can do it differently. And it actually went quite okay; the first year was a little bit difficult [.]*" (Participant CC, personal communication, 2017, May 16)

It is important to note that throughout this process not all architects want to become entrepreneurs from the start. However, they want to realize architectural values, learn, and challenge themselves constantly. Hence, entrepreneurship is not premeditated in all cases. Though, when it is not planned, it emerges naturally, as a logical next step, and while hardships are evident in the process towards value realization, motivational factors and personal growth gained through them make all difficulties worth it.

4.1.1.1. Deviation in starting circumstances

One mature participant from the '46–55' age group did not fit this narrative completely. He described that he had felt creative freedom and challenge at his former workplace as a senior architect; therefore, he never thought about leaving. However, this participant was let go when the crisis hit; thus, he realized that he had to create his job if he wanted to work in a similar position. He also did not think about entrepreneurship before, and he initially characterized his journey by necessity more than opportunity and emphasized hardships. Nevertheless, he used these conditions to his advantage and created the circumstances in which he presently enjoys working, and he also got into teaching at a university and elaborated how he appreciates his increased freedom, and 'would never go back.' Thus, one can observe that even the participant who clarified that he started his company out of necessity, fits the narrative to some extent.

4.1.1.2. Starting circumstances in relation to gender

The narrative across genders showed striking similarities for the most part. Both men and women mentioned freedom and flexibility, creative independence, and value realization as key motivations.

A key finding is that family-related factors were not registered between the primary motivational factors to start a company, nor was there a significant difference between sexes in this case. Participants emphasize the benefits of job flexibility as an entrepreneur, and explain that it allows them to spend more time with their children; they do not get into entrepreneurship primarily for the sake of the family, flexibility, or dependents. It is more of an added benefit of being an entrepreneur than a motivation by itself. Accordingly, gender seems to have no relation to freedom and flexibility as a motivational factor. Still, it allows the entrepreneurial parent to take care of child-related responsibilities during regular work hours. Therefore, the narrative shows that couples share childcare based on who has more freedom and flexibility and spending time with children is contextualized as a massive benefit, but not a motivation in itself.

4.1.2. Learning and challenges

Financial issues came up in the context of learning challenges (for visual representation of one's progression refer to Fig. 2 Process Model 2, p.54). Participants clarify on numerous occasions that they do not possess any financial motivations, and their underlying motivation rests upon their passion for architecture. In this context money only serves as a tool and necessity, something they must obtain to keep the company in business. Architects do not associate money with success or any form of validation.

"*My motivation is on the journey of creating something interesting and creative, and then if I want to make a living, I must run my business, then I have to think of the financial side of it too. So I didn't get into architecture for money; I'm doing it for the love of it. And while doing that, since it's a commercial world, you do have to earn some money. But from my perspective, it's that I want to do real quality stuff, and then ask for the price of that high quality that we deliver.*" (Participant HH, personal communication, 2017, May 8)

Participants emphasize that it was merely needed as the means to realize the ends, and none of the interviewees want to become wealthy for the sake of status or solely having money. Some participants even bring up financial issues while jokingly mentioning that, while they have no ambitions to become wealthy, it would not be a problem if it happened in the process of realizing their architectural vision.

"*So in that sense walking through the city and seeing my buildings there that I'm really proud of, that'd be a real definition of success for me. I think that's a lot more important than becoming super rich, I mean it wouldn't be a problem if it'd happen though. (Laughs)*" (Participant II, personal communication, 2017, May 18)

On a day-to-day basis, architects gain their sense of validation and success through other means, like their relationship with clients and passion for their jobs. And as money does not motivate them, they want enough to keep working and deliver high-quality projects for their clients. Fascinating accounts of that are illustrated below; one participant was motivated to get into entrepreneurship to be able to create better quality work in connection with his desire for continuous learning. Thus, he preferred

doing higher quality work for less money, over not being completely satisfied with his job while earning a higher hourly wage.

"*And then we were also hit by the crisis, 2008-2009 and my partner really were very keen on budgeting, how many hours can you spend on a project and these kinds of things. And it bothered me. I wanted to put on more hours than we had budgeted for each project . . . So we had a mid-size firm, but I was pretty expensive for clients so I thought, well, now I cost a 140 per hour, but if I'd do it for 90 euros or 100, I could spend more hours on my projects.*" (Participant BB, personal communication, 2017, May 10)

The participant veiled as KK demonstrates another characteristic: like other architects she puts her quality of work and good personal relations with clients above everything else. It was also observed that most participants behave this way. Furthermore, they are uncertain regarding how much they should charge clients, and they are not materialistic.

"*In my work, I really want clients to be happy, and I think that one can be a bit difficult for me because I work until I'm completely satisfied with something. So I don't just decide that I should e.g. put five hours in it, but I go for perfection. So I guess that's not really business-like because I can't really calculate hours, I just work until I'm completely happy with my work.*" (Participant KK, personal communication, 2017, May 1)

While other factors enjoy priority in their work, architects do know the importance of having a financially stable, 'healthy business.' In connection to these themes, participants often bring up and discuss stigma against the importance of the financial side of the firm in architecture. While at first this may seem opposing to not having financial motivations, this connection of themes was observed through many interviews, and architects further associate financial stability with other non-monetary elements. As further elaborated in the upcoming section dedicated to growth motivations, financial stability was the first stepping-stone towards getting bigger, more desired, diverse, and public projects, which was linked to value realization, not economic motives.

"*And I think it's underrated how important it is to have a healthy business financially, and of course that's one of the big challenges. But when you invest so much effort and energy in the projects you do and the buildings you create, it's important that your business is healthy and*

balanced from a financial point of view as well. I mean I think it's also important for success to be financially successful, but I think that's a "dirty word" in my profession you know." (Participant QQ, personal communication, 2017, May 3)

Participants also elaborate that they experience difficulties when talking to other architects, and voice their concern that money seems to be a 'taboo' in architecture. And while it is a prerequisite for running a successful business, it is not the objective. Nevertheless, having a stable income and a steady flow of projects is essential for staying in business, and evolving as a cultural entrepreneur.

"*I think in the architectural world it can be hard to connect, to speak to each other and discuss entrepreneurship. Or in my opinion, at least, nobody talks about numbers. It's like social media. You only show your best; you don't want to show your negative side. So it's difficult for me to talk about numbers with other architects. And when somebody comes to this office, they see the pictures and the models; they see everything but only from the outside.*" (Participant AA, personal communication, 2017, May 7)

In essence, architects are trying to balance the need for having a stable financial situation with their quest for superior quality and continued learning. Participants elaborate that they want to ask for the right price for the right effort. However, quality certainly comes before price.

4.1.2.1. Deviation regarding profitability

Regarding financial issues, out of all participants, only two men brought up wanting to raise the profitability of their firm beyond stability-related purposes. However, in correspondence with the rest of the narrative, these participants want increased profits to realize their artistic values and possess the financial prerequisites for getting into personal projects about which they are enthusiastic. Participant BB, who runs an architectural firm in renovation and restoration, wanted to realize a longstanding dream, adding that he never wants to stop working. He elaborated that when he gets closer to the age of retirement, he intends to get into renovating old buildings in the South of France, and also aims to restore one for himself.

4.1.2.2. Learning and challenges in relation to gender

Architects across genders showed more similarities than differences when talking about challenges, as most men and women discussed not having financial motivations. However, one difference has emerged, as males brought up the role of risks and risk-taking when talking about financial issues more often than females did. Men spoke of the risk involved in hiring people, and they also appeared keener to discuss taking risks strategically, while both women and men talked about minimizing uncertainty and creating stability through a steadier flow of projects. Although architects across genders all strived for stability, men seemed to think about it in a more analytical way, through assessing risks.

4.1.3. Growth motivations

"Well, as for as growing goes, I just want to grow a little bit to spread the risks, and the future is a little bit uncertain. So, it's not necessary to become a big office, but I just want to have more projects running in the long term, and disperse the risk. So yeah, maybe for having more projects, it is necessary to grow a little, to attract more clients." (Participant GG, personal communication, 2017, May 9)

The narrative about growth emerges early in the coding process. For one reason or another, all architects consider growing their companies, even if only slightly, with just hiring one employee. In the coding process, several types of growth motivations are documented. However, a few emerge more prominently than the rest. Motivations to grow often overlap one another or arise sequentially, leading towards increased enjoyment on the job and value realization as the underlying motivation.

"Ideally I want to be about twice as big as now, so that means 6-8 people working for me, yes. That'd make us less risky for business, and we have now ten partners, but when we have projects, some of them are discontinued, so when they stop that's a big change for us, we're just too small to simply get over it." (Participant OO, personal communication, 2017, May 20)

Typically, the narrative unfolds as follows: entrepreneurs desire a continual course of projects to attain steady cash flow. Then, when cash flow is achieved, they aspire to hire additional help to manage tasks more efficiently and focus more on the design process. They plan to delegate administrative tasks and acquisition to their employees so they can focus more on architecture. Architects aim to keep up private and smaller projects while seeking out new challenges. This way, the uncertainty is intended to be

reduced and risks minimized, so if one assignment is suspended or discontinued, it would not affect the company to a large extent.

> "*So then I said to myself, okay, you can do two things, I can do only smaller projects, or I create a more secure, steady office, so I could get more big projects. Because in the big projects there are the opportunities to do really sustainable big things, which have a great impact on society.*" (Participant CC, personal communication, 2017, May 16)

As the company grows, they can take on more diverse, significant and public projects. Participants want a variety of assignments to keep the work challenging and have a diverse mix of projects through which they can grow professionally and realize their values. Growing the firm is a prerequisite in a way, to show potential clients that the company is steady and established, and therefore can take on larger, challenging ventures. Participants argue that as a small business there are several constraints one has to face, and it's because of their size that small enterprises seldom get projects with high investment levels.

> "*I want to have more professional clients in the near future, that's another reason why I want to grow my company bigger! So I could take on some bigger, public projects. Public buildings are more like special objects, while housing projects are usually normalized, but public buildings are often something special.*" (Participant NN, personal communication, 2017, May 26)

Participants want moderate growth, just enough to move beyond the private sphere, to be able to realize their architectural values with more creative and financial freedom. As they point out, even though private projects are rewarding and enjoyable, private clients require a lot with relatively small levels of investment. Thus, the low level of financial investment limits the artistic expression of architects. Therefore, they are motivated to seek out bigger or public projects to challenge themselves and gain more creative independence in their work, so budget constraints would not limit them. In essence, their intention is to create the ideal circumstances for value realization, regardless of the particular values they believe in, such as artistic beauty, utility, environmental integration, or sustainability. Making an impact through contributing to a larger societal good was the essential drive behind architects' growth incentives.

> "*But a 10 to 20 people company would be big enough for all the projects I'd want to build, and if it's any bigger than that you become a manager. And then you don't have much to do with the actual design part, and that's the part that I actually enjoy now, that our company is small, and our projects are small so we are really doing everything ourselves, and we're close and personal with our designs.*" (Participant JJ, personal communication, 2017, May 12)

However, a concern regarding growth is finding the right balance while managing the firm and being able to stay engaged in the design process and oversee assignments. Thus, architects want moderate- or small-sized companies that would allow them to minimize their administrative tasks while maximizing their ability to tend to the creative processes. They also voice their concerns regarding their fears of turning into managers and running an office, which would separate them from the activities they enjoy the most.

"*But it's also nice when you don't have to deal with administration and other issues. Like, you go to work, you focus on your job, then you go home, and that's it. You can leave it all at the workplace, so it is different from how we are now*." (Participant TT, personal communication, 2017, May 11)

On the other hand, running a one-person company or a family business also keeps architects busy with errands and tasks unrelated to the actual design process. Thus, another reason for small- or moderate-growth is to gain more freedom and focus on design tasks instead of managing the company. An original insight on the issue by participant RR is presented below, with a quirky simile on the reasons for wanting to have a small, flexible company.

"*I don't want a big firm with twenty or thirty or sixty or more employees. I wanted a small office so I can be personally involved with all my projects and that way you can get into the details. It's like having a good restaurant, the chef is in the kitchen, or he owns five restaurants and then becomes more of a manager, so that's kind of what you see now, but I look at my profession as craftsmanship. So that's why I chose this, and with having a small company you can be involved and invested, I want to be involved in designing, I want to be involved in detailing, I want to be at the building site and I want to smell the concrete*." (Participant RR, personal communication, 2017, May 21)

Thus, in essence, what motivates architects to grow is to establish a balance that would allow them to participate in the design processes and realize their vision to the best of their ability.

4.1.3.1. Deviation in growth motivation

Participant FF worked more than 20 years in the industry before starting his own firm. He had achieved considerable success during the last 10 years of running his company, and was glad to downsize in the recent years to gain more freedom and flexibility, and spend more time with his family. He was still running projects actively, but worked with only one other colleague and was reluctant to grow in the future. Instead, when

necessary, he would hire people part-time, while asserting his wish to keep his company small and manageable. He was highly selective with projects due to his reputation, and did not need to run a mid-size or larger company in order to signify stability. Therefore, he successfully created an ideal environment in which he could work to the highest quality standards.

4.1.3.2. Growth motivations in relation to gender

Findings suggest that both men and women desire growth to some extent. Thus, the sex of architects does not seem to affect motivations to grow. And even participants and couples with small children talk about wanting to become bigger eventually. However, these participants discuss that they currently enjoy flexibility. Thus, they do not want to pursue growth "actively" while the children are young, meaning that if opportunities came by, they would not turn down great projects. However, they also would not seek to grow the company purposefully.

4.2 Process Model

Figure 1. Process model of findings no.1 (refer to Appendix for full size version)
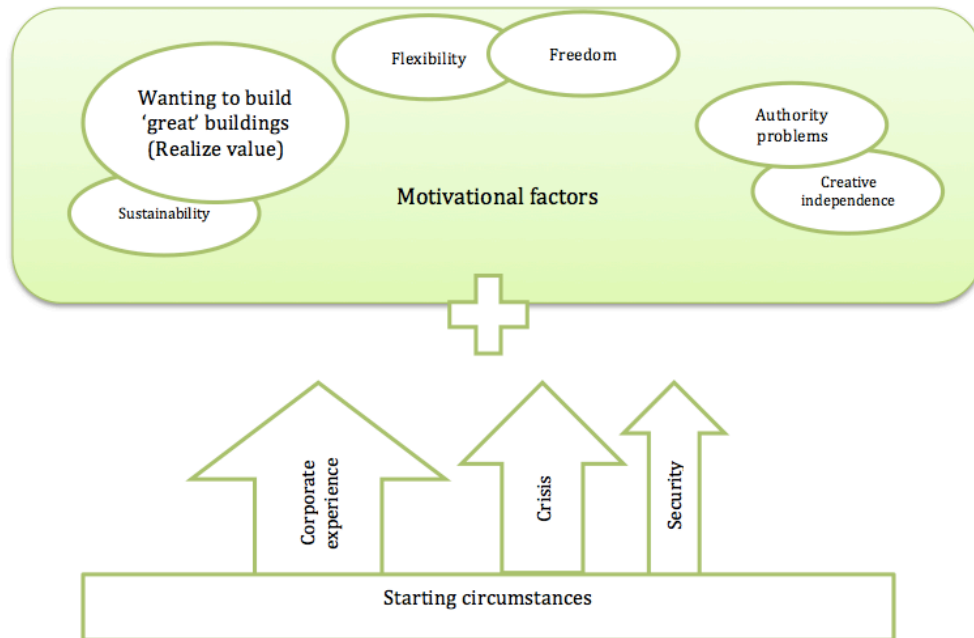
The interview data allowed us to construct a process model to obtain a deeper knowledge of motivational developments and understand the process. Figure 1. visualizes the path of entrepreneurial architects from the starting phase through several stages from firm creation through identifying key motivations to defining their personal success into existence.

The first step captures the starting circumstances of architects (Fig.1), which we then couple together with motivational factors, and these together drive participants towards firm creation (Fig.1). Then, as the next step of the process, the model demonstrates the next stage architects confront on the way of becoming entrepreneurs, in which they encounter the stage of 'Learning and challenges', where they study about new aspects of the trade (Fig.2). Subsequently, through the trials and experiences faced at the 'Learning and challenges' stage, participants find their personal vision of success, and start to follow a self-defined path towards it.

Among the initial conditions that had a significant influence on participants' decision to start their own companies there are three key circumstantial features: corporate experience, the financial crisis and financial security. As illustrated in Figure 1, the width of arrows representing each feature signifies a different prevalence of these driving factors among participants. The three arrows are non-exclusionary as more than one was reported to be at play simultaneously.

As it can be seen, the widest arrow on Figure 1 represents corporate experience, which was the most prevailing among architects. It was the most frequently mentioned starting circumstance, since many participants do not find corporate positions substantially satisfying. The context in which it is mentioned is neither clearly negative nor positive, however. Most architects describe the corporate experience as something they feel the need to have before creating their own firm, as they want to acquire more practical knowledge of the field. Architects also think that they eventually outgrow the company, and yearn for more creative and personal freedom than their corporate jobs could provide, whereas they are also in need of new challenges and experiences.

The second most frequently mentioned element is the economic crisis, which also influenced many architects towards starting their own companies. The crisis is rarely referred to by itself, and participants talk about it together with other circumstantial elements and motivational factors, as the crisis created conditions that allowed entrepreneurial motivations to surface. Also, the crisis as a starting circumstance is coupled with parallel factors which result in similar narratives among architects. Since upon being let go or struggling to realize personal values in the workplace throughout economically challenging times, their reaction to the situation is to establish their firm, with a 'now or never' sentiment.

Thus, they identify an opportunity in the midst of the crisis, despite knowing about the adverse surrounding circumstances and risks. Participants recall the times of funding their firms with excitement yet mentioning their struggles through the early days. They remember the initial stages fondly and with excitement, yet they do not over-idealize the past, recognizing how risky the entrepreneurial path is. This further

reflects on the opportunity–necessity ambiguity, as findings show that in an initially 'push' situation like the crisis, an opportunity was identified and positively approached, while participants faced the combination of the two dimensions simultaneously.

Lastly, financial security is mentioned as the third circumstantial factor in the starting phase. Participants talk about attaining financial stability through having saved enough during their corporate years, winning a competition, or gaining government grants for their project, which gave them the confidence to quit their jobs. With such financial security, participants can abandon the corporate path and create the ideal circumstances to focus on their personal projects and firm creation. As the figure shows, these circumstantial elements do not single-handedly provide the required incentive for firm foundation; instead they aid the creation of ideal conditions. But architects' actions are also fuelled by their motivational factors.

4.2.1. Three pairs of related motivational factors

Throughout analysis, three pairs or related motivational factors arose among participants: creative independence and problems with authority, flexibility and freedom, and value realization and sustainability.

A need for creative independence and problem with authority is registered among participants, as they are driven to create their own designs and see them materialize. Wanting to earn credit for their work also fuels these motivations. Interviewees report frustration regarding the lack of recognition in a former corporate environment, and feel that their seniors are often credited for their efforts.

The next motivational factors cited frequently are flexibility and freedom. This pair concerns the manner in which participants work, their schedule, hours, holidays. It also contains their need of higher-level decision making, such as having an influence on who to work for and work with—all that relates to their working environment.

Throughout the interviews, value realization and sustainability also emerge as motivational factors. While sustainability is a value in itself, the author establishes it

as a separate factor, as during interviews, participants often mention it next to cultural, aesthetical and creative values. Value realization refers to the drive to materialize a personally unique vision, a distinctive fingerprint-like feature of each architect, which is realized in one's architectural style. Hence participants' definition of "great building": a building through which they can fulfill their core values, which may be quite diverse, and could entail anything from innovation through modernism to client satisfaction. However, sustainability as a value is integrated into architectural style, and is a more clearly definable concept, as individuals who strive for designing sustainable buildings use circular and environmentally friendly building materials.

Figure 2. Process model of findings no.2 (refer to Appendix for full size version)
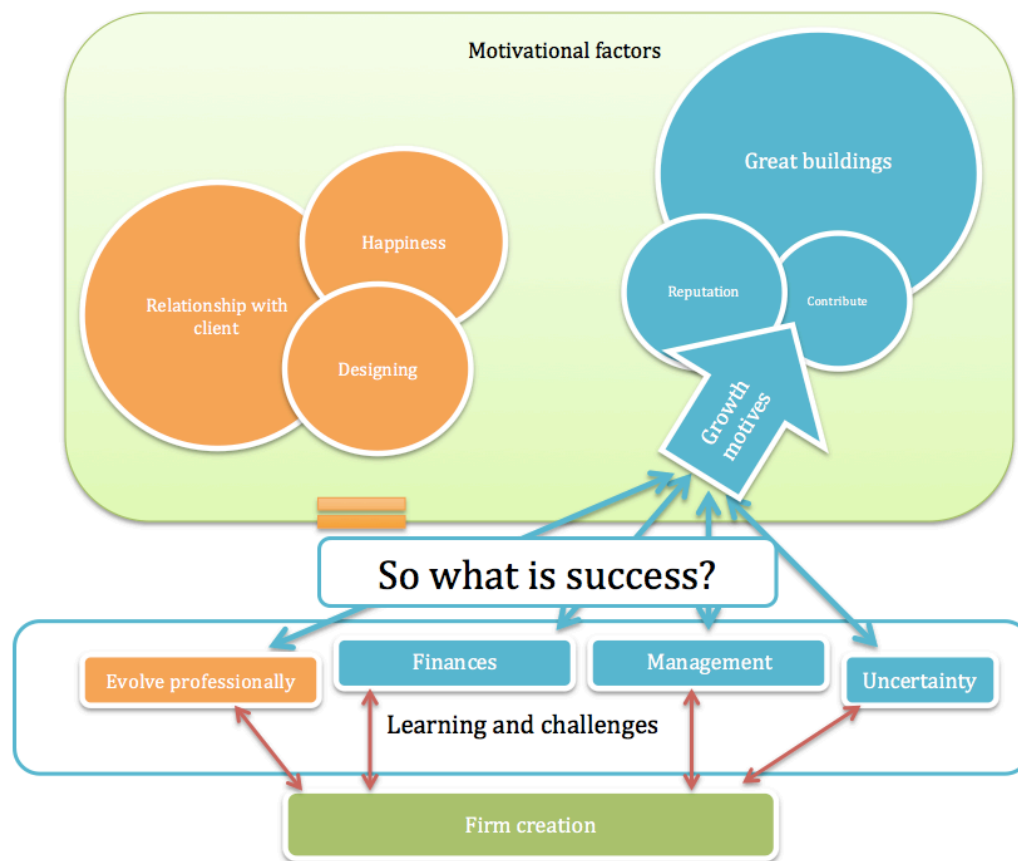
After firm creation newfound entrepreneurs find themselves in the stage of learning and challenges, as they are not solely architects anymore. They become their own accountants, acquisition managers, and supervisors. Therefore, they need to learn how to run a business efficiently, while facing these novel tasks. Although, above all, participants want to keep evolving professionally, perceiving themselves as craftsmen

who want to continuously improve themselves in their professions towards mastery. However, in order to be able to advance in their artistries, they need to create an ideal environment, which involves financial stability, reducing uncertainties, creating a stable managerial practice for the company while they can work as architects, and avoiding drifting into a managerial role. And on the way towards creating stability, growth serves as a tool.

Before going into more detail over what growth enables, one must understand architects' definition of success. The way success is defined by participants is twofold; on one hand it is equivalent to the contentment they gain from work itself through day-to-day tasks. Architects mention the importance of good relationships with clients, as their work is validated through these relations, thus the client's satisfaction is key to feel successful. Moreover, happiness and wellbeing are cited as other central elements of success, and apart from their clients' happiness, their family's, employees' and own happiness matters the most. Likewise, working on their designs and becoming better craftsmen in the process is also imperative to feeling successful.

On the other hand, success has a side most participants are yet to achieve, and that's what growth could also enable. Being successful could entail long-term accomplishments, including making contributions to society, increased reputation, and value realization in the form of building grand structures, such as museums, train stations or hotels. However, to attain this side of success, a smaller company is not adequate, as its size does not indicate stability, and projects with higher investment levels or prestigious public projects are given to mid-sized companies and up, since they are considered low-risk and stable.

Still, it's important to note that participants already experienced success through their everyday routine, as they were intrinsically motivated by designing buildings, and did not require outside recognition for happiness or satisfaction on the job. Accordingly, most architects do not see reputation, social or artistic awards, or even realizing aspiring projects as requirements for happiness and wellbeing. Interestingly, they only think of outside recognition as added positive and affirmative aspects on the way towards becoming better craftsmen.

Value realization, however, is a transcendent motivational factor that may encompass all other factors, and it appears in every stage of the process model, creating a cycle in itself. First, it's indicated on the process model as 'wanting to build great buildings alias value realization', then appears in the next stage as 'evolving professionally', then reappears in the following phase again as 'great buildings'.

The researcher defines value realization in the case of architects as personal and artistic principles being reflected and materialized through one's architectural work. Therefore, value realization could be interpreted as a continuous cycle, since it's driven by an aspiration towards reaching mastery in architecture, and not satisfied by merely erecting a building. Hence, for architects, this overarching motivation is an end by itself.

5. Discussion or declarations for debate

In terms of gendering and entrepreneurship, the findings of this study underline that in the Netherlands female entrepreneur architects do not experience being obstructed from entering the field. Gendering practices were not mentioned throughout the interviews, neither did participants bring up problems posed by an androcentric entrepreneurial image. In fact, both genders showed striking similarities for the most part. This result can be explained by the fact that The Netherlands ranks considerably higher on the Gender Equality Index, and as of today secures a place among the highest-rated countries in terms of gender equality (United Nations , 2012), while in the literature review key publications featured research data from the UK and the US.

Architects across genders both equally seek life–work balance; that's partially why flexibility and freedom motivate them toward firm creation and growth. The findings show that couples with dependents divide household and childcare duties based on which partner has more flexibility on a day-to-day basis. Thus, who takes care of family-related obligations is unrelated to gender, which could also be explained by gender equality in The Netherlands.

The findings show that diverse motivational factors are simultaneously at play in case of Dutch architects, which proves the existence of multi-dimensional motivational factors in case of cultural entrepreneurs in the creative industries. Among the three pairs of key motivating factors, parallels with the seven multi-dimensional types of motivations can be found—as proposed by Stephan et al. (2015). In fact, in some form all seven of them can be found among the factors which motivate Dutch architects in the process of firm creation and growth. Yet, interestingly, there is an added motivational dimension, which was not identified by any previous studies. Value realization seems to be a unique motivational factor on the field of cultural entrepreneurship, which suggests that the motivational puzzle of entrepreneurial architects and creative professionals alike differ from all other sectors.

This study's findings also demonstrate that growth incentives and multi-dimensional motivations overlap among Dutch architects. Yet, growth motives in their case are only a small part of the big picture, and never an end on itself. Both male and female architects consider growth incentives a tool, which enables them to attend to a more important drive, value realization. As discussed in the literature review, research indicates that women's companies tend to be smaller in size (Fischer, 1992), grow at a slower pace (Cliff, 1998) and they keep their firms small on purpose (Goffee et al. 1983; Lee-Gosselin et al. 1991). Yet, research findings show that among Dutch architects not only women, but men too have a 'maximum business size threshold'— as coined by Cliff (1998). Dutch architects do not want to become managers in their own firms, nor do they care primarily about money. Instead, they want an ideal size that enables them to do creative work while being independent. Participants across genders clarified that growth is only necessary to create improved circumstances, and an optimal environment for value creation. This demonstrates that cultural entrepreneurs are in fact driven by different factors than those with commercial interests at heart, which is in line with the theories of Swedberg (2006) and Klamer (2011).

This finding positions value realization above all other factors, suggesting that all other motivations are secondary to and dependent on value realization for creative and cultural entrepreneurs.

6. Conclusion

In this section the key conclusions are summarized in regards to the research questions. Subsequently the significance of the main points is explained. Lastly, the researcher frames main conclusions to connect them to the introduction and to the context which emerged from the data.

Q1: What multi-dimensional factors motivate architects to start their firm?

Architects across genders possess striking similarities. Multi-dimensional motivational factors coupled together with circumstances drive architects across genders towards starting their businesses in the cultural industries. The factors which motivated architects most were freedom and flexibility, creative independence and authority problems, and sustainability coupled with the overlapping and overarching motivation of value realization, since architects consider these ideal conditions, in which they can realize societal and artistic values through architecture. Therefore, value realization is positioned above other motivational factors, and makes it a principal motivational element in the process of becoming an entrepreneur in the cultural industries. Also, wanting to achieve continuous development professionally motivates architects of both genders, as they identify themselves as 'craftsmen,' so they continually strive for learning experiences and challenges through their job. Entrepreneurial architects create their firm as partly a response to corporate experiences and the financial crisis, as entrepreneurship unfolds as a logical next step towards realizing their personal architectural vision. Consequently, firm creation is fuelled by a combination of motivational drives, combined with circumstantial elements, yet fundamentally motivated by value realization.

Q2: What motivates architects to grow their firm?

Both men and women desire growth to some extent, and findings show that gender does not affect desire to grow. Architects are driven to expand their companies into small to mid-size businesses in order to decrease uncertainty and create stability and a

steady flow of assignments. They desire growth to signal stability towards clients and therefore acquire diverse and challenging projects (e.g. bigger/public/higher levels of investment), through which they can have more creative freedom and express their architectural ideas autonomously, without constraints, which is necessary for value realization. Architects want to establish a mid- or small size firm, which would ideally allow them to participate in the design processes and realize their vision to the best of their abilities, while they could also maintain creative role and avoid becoming a manager of their own company.

Q3: What is the relationship between multi-dimensional motivational factors and growth motivations?

The key underlying motivational factors are fundamentally the same for starting a firm and wanting to grow, namely value realization, sustainability, freedom and flexibility, creative independence and authority problems. While in the starting circumstances these motivations drive entrepreneurial architects towards firm creation, after having created a company, the next rational step directed by these factors in growing it moderately to create circumstances which fit architects personally and allow them to follow their desired routes towards self-defined success to grow their reputation, contribute to society at large, and realize great buildings. Essentially, the entrepreneurial journey of architects is a process towards generating ideal conditions for value realization.

In conclusion, entrepreneurial architects in the Dutch creative industries show striking similarities across genders, as for these creative workers, value realization is the key motivational factor which transcends all other incentives. Hence, starting a company and later growing it are both tools or apparatuses, which allows architects to create an optimal breeding ground for value realization, in order to materialize personal and artistic principles reflected through their architectural work.

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Appendix 1
Process Model
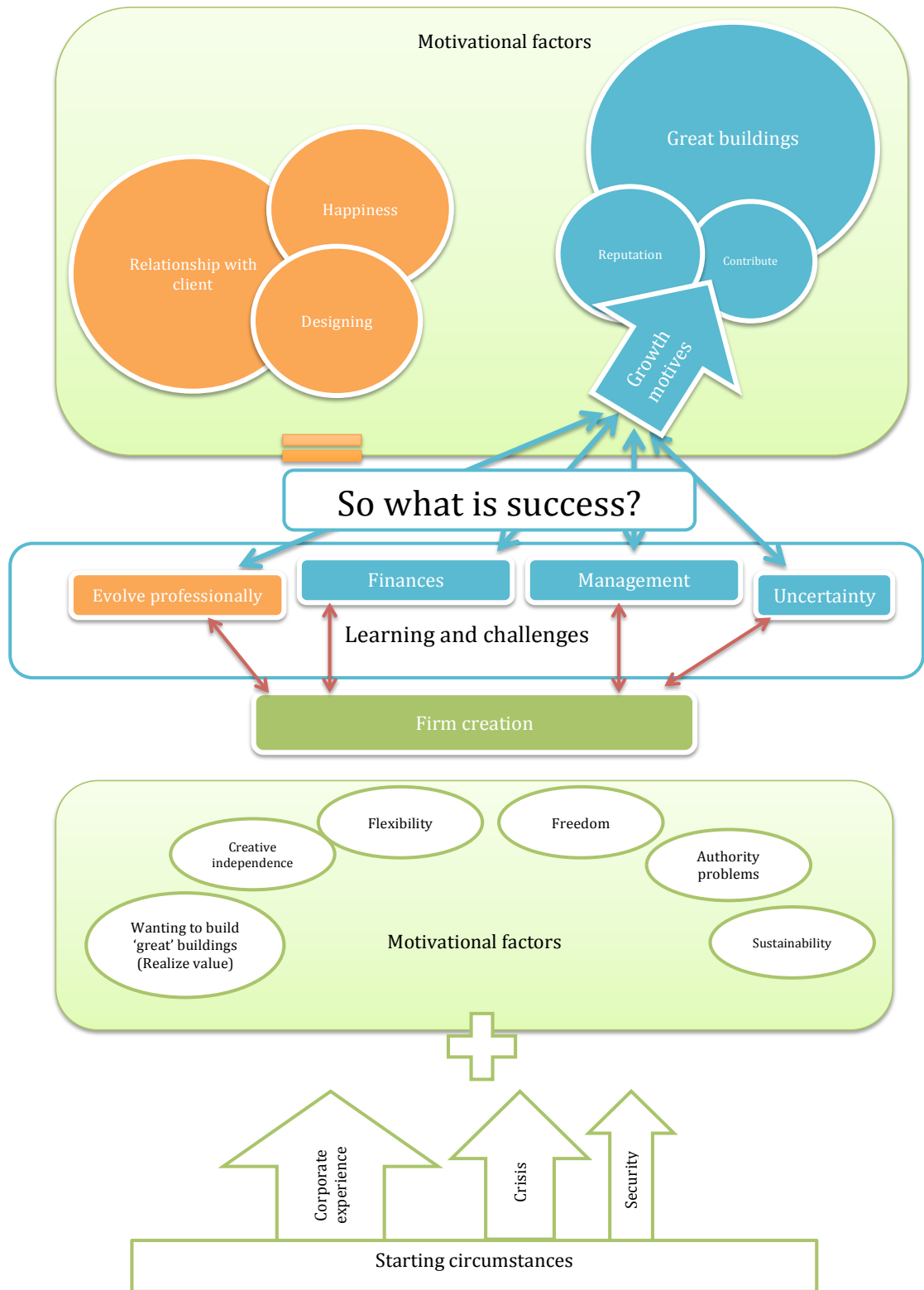
Interview guide

- Simple, easy short questions
- Empathy, warmth, attentiveness,
- Use active listening skills (repeating back, interesting, tell me more about x)
- Don't follow interview guide, follow respondent
- Best questions » elicit longest answers
- Tap into the experience and expertise of respondents
- Ask HOW, not WHY
- Develop probes » more developed and detailed answers to key questions
- Start with warm-up questions
- Logical flow of the interview » what would come naturally
- Last question: give closure

Personal information:

Age:
Gender:
Marital Status:
Number of dependents in the household:
Age of dependents:
Year of firm foundation:
Did you work in a corporate environment before?
(If yes) For how long?
Highest educational level attained:
What do you have a degree in?
Number of employees:

Motivational factors and gender differences

Pull factors	Push factors
Autonomy and independence	Dissatisfaction in the labour market
Personal satisfaction and achievement	Need for greater income
Dream of being an entrepreneur	Redundancy
Gap in the market	Unemployment
Looking for a challenge	Last resort
Rejecting stereotypical feminine identities	

What are the key motivational differences across genders when starting a business in the cultural and creative industries?

- **(From: gender, entrepreneurship and motivational differences in an Irish context)**

Question guide

1.

Queston: Tell me about your **story**! What **led** you to become an **entrepreneur**?
Figure out: Initial motivations, circumstances

2.

Q: At the time of setting up your company what **motivated** you the **most** about **becoming** an **entrepreneur**?
F: Motivations, drives

3.

Q: When it comes to **business**, what are the most important **values** for you?
F: business values » linked to » business intentions (e.g. relationships, growth, quality, efficiency, eco-consciousness)

4.

Q: How about your **personal** life? What **values** are important for you in your private life?
F: the relation of personal values to business values

5.

Q: When you started your **firm**, what was your **goal**? (E.g. financial/ lifestyle/ social/ intrinsic/ independence)
F: intention in the starting phase, what 'genre' of goal the participant had

6.

Q: How would you **define success**? What would make you feel successful?
F: motivation is closely related to definition of success, how do people define success, what is a measure of success for participants, what are their future aspirations, growth ambitions

+1

Q: Tell me about your **future ambitions**? Where do you want to go from here ideally? (Both personal and professional)
F: motivation and view of future, growth ambitions, do you have any employers now? Do you plan to have any?

Extra questions

What's the most important for you your job?

What's your favourite part in your job?

Have you always wanted to be entrepreneur?

How do you see yourself when you're old?

What was your favourite project so far?

What's your dream project?