

POST-WAR MARGINALIZATION AND WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Gendered literature, including scholarly articles, novels and poems, have consistently drawn attention to the fact that gender issues (especially women's role and plights) during the 30 month Nigerian civil war (July 1967 – January 1970) have been under-reported and neglected in the academic firmament while enthroning masculinity of the war. Literature is replete with the fact that women's economic roles during the war were both complementary and supplementary, as sustained the men in the war fronts. However, patriarchy-based economic marginalization has continued to envelop Nigerian women fifty years after war. This literature-based paper is poised to examine post-war marginalization and women entrepreneurship in Nigeria. Predicated upon social resilience theory, the paper attempts to unmask the significant role of women entrepreneurship as a panacea for post-war gender marginalization. It also examines challenges of women entrepreneurship and demands for successful women entrepreneurship. Far-reaching recommendations are also discussed.

Keywords: Nigerian Civil War, post-war marginalization, social resilience, women entrepreneurship.

Introduction

Gendered literature, including scholarly articles, novels and poems, have consistently drawn attention to the fact that gender issues (especially women's role and plights) during the 30 month Nigerian Civil War (July 1967- January 1970) have been under-reported and neglected in the academic firmament while enthroning masculinity of the war. Literature is replete with the fact that women's economic roles during the war were both complementary and supplementary, as sustained the men in the war fronts. However, patriarchy-based economic marginalization has continued to envelop Nigerian women fifty years after war.

There is increased awareness and recognition that entrepreneurship is capable of giving women a facelift out of poverty and marginalization. However, women entrepreneurship in Nigeria is bedeviled by numerous factors.

Bajpai (2014) lamented that even though women around the globe constitute about 50 percent and 40 percent of the global population and workforce respectively, they are largely marginalized to the extent that they only own about 1 percent of (lie world's wealth, are highly unemployed, and experience unnecessary barriers that limit their ability to fully participate in the economy. The author noted specifically that women in Africa suffer these setbacks mainly because the continent is poor, underdeveloped, and ravaged by civil war and gender discrimination. These foregoing issues suitably mimic Nigerian situation. Against this backdrop, this literature-based paper is poised to examine Post-war marginalization and women entrepreneurship in Nigeria. Predicated upon social resilience theory, the paper attempts to

unmask the significant role of women entrepreneurship as a panacea for post-War gender marginalization. It also examines challenges of women entrepreneurship and demands of successful women entrepreneurship. Included in these demands are far-reaching recommendations (or successful women entrepreneurship).

Contextualizing Post-War Marginalization

In a simple term, marginalization is the act or process of keeping somebody or group of persons away from the centre of attention, influence or power. From time immemorial, women have been often sidelined and consigned to subservient positions. Almost, all societies in the world are patriarchal or male-dominated. It does not matter if women have the highest population, but what matters is that men constitute the leader and women the led. This practice is dominant in all culture of the world. Obviously, patriarchy is at the heart of women marginalization and subjugation in societies of the world. Thus, Mill (2006) asserted that the public discrimination against women is a manifestation of the desire for dominance, male dominance in particular. Adebayo (2014) added that over the ages and in many societies, inequity between women and men has been part and parcel of a seemingly accepted male-dominated culture. Olujimi (2009) observed that the prejudice against women has been an age-long situation. It is a complex historical process, which requires detailed study before one can conceive of a viable strategy to improve and sustain the status of women in society (Prakash, 2003).

Marginalization of women manifests in almost all aspects of life, including family, education, religion, social life, culture, health, work, politics, agriculture etc. Ajani (2008) observed that Nigeria women are often marginalized in their access to economic, political and social resources compared to men, rendering them relatively poorer than their male counterparts. From the workplace to the home, women continue to suffer all forms of degradation and deprivation. Women were seen by male factory workers as a threat to their employment; with the employment of women as wage earners, men were quick to perceive them as a rival group and made use of economic, legal and ideological weapons to eliminate or reduce their competition (Hacker, 1972; Adebayo, 2013a).

In spite of their immense contribution to development in the various sectors of the society, African women remain strikingly marginalized and subordinated across generations, groups, and societies. They are marginalized in marriage, employment and even in education (Osuji, 2004; Alade, 2013). This is done in order to ensure that (the womenfolk remain subjected to the whims and caprices of men. Women are also marginalized in terms of agricultural activities. Even though women contribute tremendously to agriculture and food production, they are deeply denied access to benefit from agricultural incentives and innovation became deeply rooted patriarchy and marginalization by men (Gusim, 2012). Ajani (2008) revealed that women contribute significantly to food production, processing and marketing, while men control farm decisions and productive resources. It is further argued that in many countries, the diminishing capacity of agriculture to provide for household subsistence increased the workload shouldered by women as men withdrew their labour from agriculture (IFAD, 1993).

In clear terms, post-War marginalization of Nigerian women manifests in income poverty, unpaid jobs or informal employment, occupational marginalization, underrepresentation in political and appointive positions, denial of access to quality education, denial of access to land, denial of access to agricultural facilities and subsidies, denial of access to credit facilities, and non-inclusive of women in decision making, among others. Patriarchal arrangements inform these dimensions of women marginalization in an attempt to keep women perpetually subservient to men. As Adebayo (2013b) noted, Nigerian society is basically patriarchal and women's place within the scheme is decidedly subordinate.

Contextualizing Entrepreneurship

The concept of entrepreneurship has been variously defined. Entrepreneurship refers to the willingness and ability of an individual or a group to develop or establish and run an enterprise successfully. In this case, the individual or persons become self-employed and can employ others. Entrepreneurship simply means creating business outfits and becoming an employer of labour. Ikeme and Onu (2007) saw entrepreneurship as the use of human courage to seek investment opportunities and establish a profit-oriented enterprise. Aina and Salako (2008) described entrepreneurship as the willingness and ability of an individual to seek out investment opportunities and take advantage of scarce resources to exploit the opportunities profitably. It is the process of creating something new with value by devoting the necessary time and efforts, assuming the accompanying financial social risks at the end receiving resulting reward.

Schumpeter (1954) sees entrepreneurship as synonymous with innovation, creativity and risk-taking. An entrepreneur is the person who risks time, effort and money to start and operate a business (Udeh, 1990). Entrepreneurs are people with entrepreneurial spirit, and they are likely to have knowledge and skills required in business (Falkang and Alberti, 2000). Entrepreneurs are creative and innovative, and they have the ability to see opportunities when others cannot see them. They have the tenacity to take risks in order to successfully establish and run their businesses. Clear examples of successful entrepreneurs in Nigeria include Michael Adenuga of globacom Nigeria, Aliko Dangote of Dangote Group of Company, Dr. Innocent Chukwuma of Innoson Group of Companies, and Onyishi Maduka of Peace Mass Transit. In the United States of America, we have entrepreneurs like Bill Gate, Oprah Winfrey etc.

Salami (2011) has identified two types of entrepreneurship: opportunity-based entrepreneurship (OBE) and necessity-based entrepreneurship (NBE). OBE occurs when an entrepreneur perceives a business opportunity and chooses to pursue it. Citing Ernst and Young (2009), Anyadike, Emeh, and Ukah, (2012) reported that majority of entrepreneurs saw economic slowdown as the perfect time to pursue new market opportunities. In addition, economists, academics and industry lenders agree that recession tends to favour the naturally innovative temperament of entrepreneurs. On the other hand, NRF, occurs when an entrepreneur is left with no other viable option to earn a living. It is borne not as a choice but compulsion which makes him or her choose entrepreneurship as a career. An example is the Nigerian Civil War of 1967-1970 when the economic embargo introduced by Federal Government forced the secessionist Biafra to develop fuel pump from coconut and palm oil (Anyadike *et al.*, 2012).

Generally, entrepreneurships are vital to the economy of a nation with respect to economic development and poverty reduction. Galbraith (2008) argued that the economy of developing nations can be improved through entrepreneurship development. According to Inegbenebor and Igbenomwanihia (2011), entrepreneurship is important for economic development: it creates jobs or generates employment, eases fiscal burden, provides competition, increases productivity through innovation, facilitates the transfer/adaptation of technology, stimulates growth in those sectors which supplies it with inputs, reinvigorates large-scale enterprises and public enterprises, encourages and sustains economic dynamism that enables an economy to adjust successfully in a rapidly changing global economy, and enables people to use their potentials and energies to create wealth, independence, and status for themselves and the society at large.

Social Resilience Theory

According to the American Psychological Centre (2013), resilience is ordinary and not extraordinary. Resilience simply means the ability to recover quickly from problems or setbacks. Strands of resilience include ecological, economic, political, cultural, and social resilience, among others. Ecological resilience, for instance, is the capacity of an ecosystem to respond to a perturbation or disturbance by resisting damage and recovering quickly. Such perturbations and disturbances can include stochastic events such as fires, flooding, windstorms, insect population explosions, and human activities such as deforestation and the introduction of exotic plant or animal species. (Folke, Carpenter, Walker, Scheffer, Elmqvist, Gunderson, Moiling, 2004).

Resilience is attentive to traditional, locally based capacities. There are multiple levels of resilience: personal, familial/household, community, organizational, local nongovernment, government, and corporate. Each has different mechanisms for communicating and perpetuating resilience. Social memory is the repository of inherent resilience and is sustained in local networks, not formal documents and plans (Adgcr, Hughes, Folke, Carpenter, and Rockstrom, 2005). Recovery after repeated battering by hurricanes and oil spills, even before interventions, demonstrates the existence of local inherent resilience that resides in the marginalized human communities (Hurley, Jenkins, Laska, and Davis, 2007; Colten, 2011). Social memory retains the basic ingredients that humans draw on for launching adaptations. Government and corporate plans depend on formal procedures.

Kaplan, Turner, Norman, & Stillson (1996:158) defined "resilience as the capacity to maintain competent functioning in the face of major life stressors". Citing Gannezy (1994), Saleebey (1996:298) opined that "resilience means the skills, abilities, knowledge, and insight that accumulate over time as people struggle to ... adversity and meet challenges. It is an ongoing and developing fund of energy and skill that can be used in current struggles". An interesting definition offered in Goldstein (1907:30) is that resilience is the "self-righting tendencies" of the person, which means "both the capacity to be bent without breaking and the capacity, once bent, to spring back".

Quoting Egeland, Carlson, & Sroufe (1993), Sonn & Fisher (1998:458) described resilience as "the capacity for successful adaptation, positive functioning or competence ...

despite high-risk status, chronic stress, or following prolonged or severe trauma". The capacity of an individual to cope during difficulty is central to their resilience. Pearlin and Schooler (1982:109) defined coping as "the thing that people do to avoid being harmed by life strain". These authors conducted 2300 interviews in the urbanized Chicago area and through content analysis of these interviews identified three main types of coping that serve distinct functions, viz: responses that change the situation out of which strainful experience arises; responses that control the meaning of the strain fill experience after it occurs but before the emergence of stress; and responses that function more for the control of the stress itself after it has emerged.

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Social resilience involves the timely capacity of individuals and groups-family, community, country, and enterprise-to be more generative during times of stability and to adapt, reorganize, and grow in response to disruption. Developed by Laurie Leitch and Loree Sutton, social resilience theory (SRT) targets collective capacity building in order to amplify resilience within and across social systems. SRT is a collective, skills-based approach to improving individual and group well-being and resilience. It harnesses the tension between current realities and emerging futures, and promotes capacity for individual stability and generativity. The core values of SRT are to: promote survival, respect, engagement, dignity, and livelihood; build capacity for creativity and generativity at all levels; exercise prevention and invest during non-crises; enhance human and social capital; maintain on-going assessment and action; and engage stakeholders at all levels. Fundamentally, SR strategies build on the natural capacity of humans for resilience and target collective capacity-building and actions (www.thresholdglobalworks.com).

There are four patterns of resilience: dispositional (one having a sense of autonomy, self-worth, good health etc.); relational (one's role in society and in their relationships); situational (one's ability to solve problems, make goals, and take action); and philosophical (one's belief that there is good in all situations and that self-development is important). Other factors that seem to be related include: having motivation; using time in positive ways; family support and expectations; and school and learning environment facilities, technology use, and leadership, among others. The importance of knowledge, education and training in promoting resilience has been documented by Waxman, Gray, and Padron (2003).

Scholars (Adger, 2000; Adger et al., 2005; Smit and Wandcill, 2006) are of the opinion that community members exhibit coping mechanisms through a set of adaptations and adjustments that enable groups to endure disruptive events. Social resilience strategy focuses on the ability of people who are affected by common (environmental) problems or setbacks to ignore these setbacks and continue to enhance their survival or sustenance. Thus, SRS takes

into special consideration the strengths of the people to adapt to the circumstances they find themselves. Rather than magnifying the problems, SRS dwells richly in magnifying the strengths of the people in any given circumstance. It promotes strength-focused perspective rather than problem-focused (pathogenic) perspective

The strengths perspective focuses on the strengths and capacities of clients, rather than the problems of clients (Saleebey, 1997c). Strengths can be described as "the capacity to cope with difficulties, to maintain functioning in the face of stress, to bounce back in the face of significant trauma, to use external challenges as a stimulus for growth, and to use social supports as a source of resilience" (McQuaide & Ehrenreich, 1997:203). Saleeby (1997b: 51-52) has identified several groups of strengths, including: "what people have learned about themselves, others and their world; personal qualities, traits, and virtues that people possess; what people know about the world around them; the talents that people have; cultural and personal stories and lore; pride; and the community". .

Various authors have identified key principles of the strengths perspective. The first principle is that "every individual, group, family, and community has strengths" (Saleebey, 1997a:12). Fundamentally, this principle presupposes that while people may have problems, they have strengths and abilities and a capacity for growth and change and with much to teach others (Kisthardt, 1997; Weick et al., 1989).

Another key principle is that "trauma and abuse, illness and struggle may be injurious but they may also be sources of challenge and opportunity" (Saleebey, 1997b: 13). This argument is identical to Antonovsky's (1979) that stressors are ubiquitous and not necessarily destructive but even promotive and also picks up on the notion of thriving (Ickovics and Park, 1998). Weick and Chamberlain (1997:45) argued that a people's problems should not occupy centre stage, but should rather take the role of "minor characters with small roles"; and explained "although some problems are too critical to be ignored, they need to be consigned to a position secondary to the person's strengths once a crisis has passed" (p. 44).

Significantly, another principle is that "by placing an emphasis on the already realized positive capacities of an individual, the individual will be more likely to continue development along the lines of those strengths" (Weick, Rapp, Sullivan, A; Kisthardt, 1989:353). The strengths perspective does not argue against addressing problems. Rather it argues that by highlighting the strengths that a person with a problem has already demonstrated there is a greater likelihood that the person will not only maintain those strengths but also develop new strengths. In this process of developing strengths, the problem frequently disappears. By contrast, highlighting the problems of a person with strengths tends to result in a weakening of the person's confidence and a deterioration of those existing strengths.

A critical key principle of strength (as it concerns the Niger Delta region) is that "every environment is full of resources" (Saleebey, 1997a:15). Saleeby argues that, even in the poorest of communities, there are resources and that these resources are frequently unrecognized and untapped (see also Kisthardt, 1997). While he is neither arguing that communities should be seen as equally rich in resources nor advocating that community work be abandoned, he is arguing that, in the meantime, clients can draw on resources in the community that may have previously been overlooked. In some ways, this principle is akin to the belief in the growth

potential of people or community; no matter how barren a community may feel or appear to be, it still has resources which can be of mutual benefit to its members. The case of the Niger Delta region is not lack of resources but over-exploitation of the environment to the impoverishment of the people. With increasing environmental degradation in the region, the survival of the people is threatened.

Lastly, a worthy principle of strength is that "people do the best they can" to survive (Weick et al., 1989:353). According to the strengths perspective there is no one correct way for people to live or grow. Each person, family or community will find their own best way that works for them. The role expected of development agencies and the government is to help the people do their best to survive and enhance their livelihood.

Rural areas of the Niger Delta region are resilient communities because in the face of the obvious continued environmental degradation, they have continued to survive and adapt. Thomas Wilbanks defines resilient communities as those locales and regions that maintain four key elements that enable: the ability to anticipate disruptive events, the capability to respond to them effectively, and the mechanisms to recover from them equitably and efficiently, and take steps to reduce vulnerabilities to future events (Wilbanks, 2008). In a nutshell, Wilbanks' four elements of community resilience include: anticipation, reduced vulnerability, response, and recovery. Similarly, Nigerian women have been resilient in surviving the woes of the Nigerian Civil War fifty years after. This has only been possible by the spirit of entrepreneurship.

Women Entrepreneurship as a Panacea for Post-War Gender Marginalization

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor reported that one in eleven (8.9%) women is involved in entrepreneurship across the globe, and the rate of women entrepreneurship is steadily increasing in sub-Saharan Africa (Reynolds, May, and Camp, 2002). According to Tambunan (2009), there are three categories of women entrepreneurs according to how they started their businesses: chance, forced and created. The chance category includes women who do not have any clear objective or goal in their mind at the time of initiating business; forced entrepreneurship or category refers to women who are constrained by circumstances to start business; and women entrepreneurs are motivated or encouraged by others belong to the category of created entrepreneurs.

Women entrepreneurs are women that participate in total entrepreneurial activities, and take the risks involved in combining resources in a unique way to take opportunity identified in their immediate environment through production of goods and services (Mordi & Okafor, 2010). Women entrepreneurs are women, who innovate, imitate or adopt a business activity (Nawanz, 2010). They can play a significant role in fostering economic and social development, particularly in the small business sector (Ahmed, 2011).

Several studies have documented the barriers bedeviling entrepreneurship. They include: inadequate access to factors of production and trade, lack of credit facilities, lack of training opportunities and skill acquisition, limited access to appropriate production technologies and social services (Saito, 1994; Ikeduru, 2002), repressive and/or discriminatory cultural beliefs and traditions (Zakaria, 2001; Okafor and Amain,

2010), lack of education or training (Malkias, 2011); absence of or inadequate infrastructural facilities like access road, power/electricity etc; inadequate working capital;

socio-economic factors like policy reversals, high and double taxations, difficulty in procuring business approvals, high inflation and unstable exchange rates, political factors such as corruption and favouritism in awarding contracts (Onwubiko,2011), constrained access to local and international markets, and severe infrastructure deficits (mainly of power and electricity) (Agbeze, 2012).

Women entrepreneurs need credits to start or run their business activity due to lack of capital (Ibru, 2009; Kuzilwa, 2005). However, they do not have easy access to credit for their entrepreneurial activity in developing countries (Ibru, 2009; Iganiga. 2008; Iheduru, 2002; Kuzilwa, 2005; Lakwo, 2007; May, 2007; Okpukpara, 2009). Consequently, women entrepreneurs lack the ability to save for their future needs and expansion of their businesses (Akanji, 2006; Mkpado & Arene, 2007).

Nigerian women constitute a significant segment of the entire population, but they are largely illiterate. As a result of inadequate education or training, Nigerian women usually have slim chances of successfully establishing and running entrepreneurial activities. Importantly, training offers learning opportunities for individuals to improve their skills, attitudes and efforts (Branan, 2008; Cheston & Kuhn, 2002; Shane, 2003), and do well in their businesses. In fact, training is a very important micro-finance factor as it would provide the skills and experience needed for their business activity (Akanji, 2006, Cheston & Kuhn, 2002; Kuzilwa, 2005). Importantly too, skills training and education have positive impact on entrepreneurial performance (Akanji, 2006; Cheston & Kuhn, 2002; Kuzilwa, 2005). However, most of women entrepreneurs have lack of education and training opportunities, especially in developing countries (Ibru, 2009).

In spite of several severe challenges, some women entrepreneurs in Africa have been highly successful. Few of them, according to Bajpai (2014), include Ngina Kenyatta (the widow of Kenya's first president, Jomo Kenyatta; with an estimated net worth of \$1 billion as declared by Ventures magazine); Folorunso Alakija (the richest black woman in the world with an estimated net worth of a staggering \$3.2 billion); Hajia Bola Shagaya (a Nigerian millionaire with an estimated net worth of \$600 million); Mamphela Ramphele (a South African investor with an estimated net worth of \$90.9 million according to Mining Weekly); Bridget Radebe (a South Africa millionaire with an estimated net worth of \$100 million); and Bethlehem Tlalum Alemu (an Ethiopian entrepreneur with an estimated net worth of at least \$1 million). These women can serve as a source of motivation and guide to other emerging women entrepreneurs (Bowen and Hisrich, 1986).

Several factors predispose women to go into entrepreneurship. These include the desire for economic freedom or independence, massive unemployment, need to create wealth, tired of working as salary-based employee, desire to become decision maker on the business, desire to, explore business opportunities, ambition, innovation, pleasure for

work and benefiting from the free time, desire for profit making, motivation from family members, ability to do both business and family affairs, demonstration of strengths and ability to start business, easy market opportunity, and society's value for work or business, among others (ILO, 2003; Erogul and McCrohan, 2008; Gadar & Yunus, 2009; Gnanadhas and Jesurjan, 2011).

Women entrepreneurs are motivated by push and pull factors. Push factors are to get money to cover the basic needs of the family, to increase the level of her income and contribute to her family, to make herself busy and be away from home and neighbours' conflicts and disagreements. On the other side pull factors are to: do something to manage, improve her societal reputation, balance work and household contacts, and use income from charity organizations, (ILO, 2002). Other push factors include death of husband, financial problem in the family, and problems associated with financial issues, low income, and low educational background. On the other hand, formal education and wealthy family background act as pull factors, (Coughlin & Thomas, 2002). For Chelliah and Lee (n.d.), push factors are factors such as insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with a salaried job, difficulty in finding work and a need for flexible work schedule because of the responsibility of the family; and pull factors are the factors associated to the independence, fulfillment, entrepreneurial chive and desire for wealth, social status and power. Pull factors encourage women to start business and push factors force women to start business (Mordi & Okafor, 2010). In all, economic desires occupy the centre stage for entrepreneurial activity.

Women entrepreneurship is a panacea to the marginalization women encounter in Nigeria. Women entrepreneurs are usually respected by their husbands and the society. In fact, they become the pride or delight of the families and societies. Observation and experience have shown that men value their wives more when they work and earn a living than when they are idle and lazy around. Women entrepreneurs complement their husbands' efforts in catering for the family. As a result, women entrepreneurs have a sense of pride and are confident in participating in decision making in their families and societies. On the other, a situation where a woman is unemployed can easily spark off conflict in the house and make the woman become increasingly dependent on the husband.

Women entrepreneurship contributes to poverty reduction among women. According to Wujung and Mbella (2014), poverty is reflected in developing countries in various forms including low nutritional status, low level of education, decline in spending on social services by the government, high percentage of household income spent on food, high infant mortality rate, low level of savings, low level of investment, low absorption capacity, poor stage of quality and quantity of infrastructural development and low level of productivity. Being self-employed or employed by entrepreneurs helps one to combat these faces of poverty effectively.

Women entrepreneurship is responsible for wealth creation and economic empowerment. Increasing poverty and unemployment among women can be abated through entrepreneurship. Scholars (Ezegbe, Eskay, and Anyanwu, 2013) have documented the relationship between poverty, unemployment and entrepreneurship.

The emergence of women capitalists who control power and influence in the society is possible through entrepreneurship. In fact, entrepreneurship enables women to spot and accumulate the factors of production necessary for new ventures to be created.

Maximal or effective representation in political and appointive positions can be when women work and generate income for their needs, including political needs. From extant literature has shown that Nigerian women are deeply underrepresented in political and appointive positions (see Epelle and Oriakhi, 2003; Unumeri, 2003; Olufemi, 2006; Omotola,

2007; Aibieyi and Uhumwuangho, 2008; Agbalajobi, 2010; Akiyode-Afolabi, 2010; Aluko, 2011; Ajibade, Ocheni, and Adefemi, 2012; Muoghalu & Abrifor, 2012; Nwanegbo, and Odigbo, 2012; Asaju and Adagba, 2013; Idike, 2013; Okoronkwo-Chukwu, 2013; Ngara & Ayabam, 2013; Inokoba and Zibima, 2014; Ugwuegede, 2014). As at 2010, Akiyode-Afolabi (2010) submits that Nigerian women's overall political representation and participation in government is still at 8%, and this has not significantly changed in recent times. Aluko (2011:41) avers that the under-representation of women in decision-making and implementation processes undermines the fundamental concept of democracy which assumes that participation and representation in all areas and levels of public life will be equally available to women and men". Women entrepreneurship will inevitably promote equitable participation of women in politics and government.

Demands of Successful Woman Entrepreneurship: Towards Recommendations and Conclusion

Successful entrepreneurship is dependent on a lot of factors. Entrepreneurial attributes such as motive of venturing into the business, business and innovative skills, education and networking ability are also vital elements to consider in entrepreneurial success. The right motive should be the first determinant before entering into a small business, both for male-run and female-run enterprises. Such motives include: money, achievement and learning opportunity (Mitchell, 2004). Similarly, Porter and Nagarajan (2005) added the need for business growth and social advancement as vital motives for successful entrepreneurship, especially female-run. Possession of adequate skills for entrepreneurial success is very crucial. Reavley and Lituchy (2008) supported this fact and suggested that entrepreneurial skills, networking to get market information, customer information, finance and strategic planning were the prerequisites for small business success of female-run enterprises.

Some level of education is another success indicator for entrepreneurship. Robinson and Malach (2004) suggested that classroom theoretical knowledge should be supported with practical business education/training through internships in small businesses. Ying (2008) suggested that self-drive, commitment and creativity are needed for business success. Role model, prior developments. Prior entrepreneurial skills, easy capital gain, helping hand from relatives and friend, and equipment help women entrepreneurs in their businesses (1LO, 2003).

Again, Lans, Hulsink, Baert and Mulder (2008) were of the view that entrepreneurial competence does not only depend on skill of writing business plan but also recognizing and acting on new opportunities; and that competence is not only acquired by birth but through education, training and work experience. Majumdar (2008) submitted that the value of training/knowledge given to entrepreneur varies from one venture to another, and that growth and performance of small businesses are influenced by the personality and abilities of the entrepreneurs. Ability to network (connections with outside parties providing finance and with social groups) is another characteristic of a successful woman entrepreneur.

Jill, Thomas, Lisa and Susan (2007) concluded that both physical capital and connection networks as well as training were necessary for entrepreneurial success. In a related study, Tata

and Prasad (2008) concluded that the performance of female-run micro-enterprises can be influenced by social capital, motivation and opportunity to engage in collaborative exchange; and that this is influenced by gender. This explains why micro-credit programs are vital in assisting poor women entrepreneurs (especially in developing countries) who lack access to credit and other opportunities. One of such programs is social networks in terms of trade unions, peer group formation and other cooperative societies. Entrepreneurs, especially women, also need efficient marketing skills to be able to sell their products or services rendered. This view was supported by Alex (2008) whose result showed that service industry's best marketing practice was promotion and that marketing initiatives were positively associated with service quality, lie concluded that effective marketing of small business services will produce great result.

Further on the characteristics of a successful entrepreneur, Idris and Mahmood (2003) suggested that being ambitious, self-confident and high-level of energy were the entrepreneurial characteristics. Also, successful entrepreneurs were expected to be less emotional, educated, and having previous entrepreneurial exposure and managerial occupation, and belong to women associations. Other characteristics that ensure success entrepreneurs include having previous entrepreneurial exposure (Roomi and Parrot, 2008), and training before entrepreneurial activity (Jill et al., 2007; • Kuzilwa, 2005; Reavley and Lituchy, 2008; Robinson and Malach, 2004; Wycklam and Wedley, 2003; Ying, 2008). In clear terms, Jill et al. (2007) and Reavley and Lituchy (2008) found that physical capital, training and social capital/connection networks are vital for entrepreneurial success.

Successful women entrepreneurship is achievable through overcoming these barriers (Mitchell, 2004; Reavley and Lituchy, 2008; Ying, 2008). Essentially, the government of a country is required to provide the enabling environment for entrepreneurship development in terms of favorable financial, economic, socio-cultural, legal policies and functional infrastructure (Coleman and Koli, 2008; Iganiga, 2008; Stephen and Wilton, 2006; William and Thawatchai, 2008). However, women entrepreneurs themselves have roles to play so as to complement government's effort in enterprise development. These include making good business decisions, having the right motive, making effort to acquire appropriate education or training, business experience or skills, ambition, innovation, self-confidence, high level of energy, being less emotional, market information, social networks, and so on.

Women entrepreneurship impacts positively on women empowerment, employment generation, wealth creation, poverty reduction, economic growth, national development, and enhancement of living conditions of women and their families. The potency of women entrepreneurship as a panacea to post-war marginalization of women is evident in the potentials already outlined. As asserted by Hillary Rodham Clinton, Ex Secretary of United States of America, "women can be the rock on which a freer, safer, more prosperous Africa is built. They just need the opportunity". Let us therefore give them the opportunity by revamping women entrepreneurship. In this, we all have a role to play.

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