

Gender and Entrepreneurship in Tourism: An Analysis of Tourism Graduates' Entrepreneurial Profile

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Abstract | This paper aims to compare the entrepreneurial profile of female and male tourism graduates in Portugal, namely in what concerns their motivations to start a new business. The concepts of 'necessity' and 'opportunity' entrepreneurship are used. There is a higher proportion of male entrepreneurs than female entrepreneurs. Men are also more likely to be opportunity entrepreneurs than women. Moreover, there is an association between being an opportunity entrepreneur and an employer, whereas the proportion of necessity entrepreneurs is higher among independent workers. Salaries of opportunity entrepreneurs are also higher. There is also a positive relation between being an opportunity entrepreneur and one's level of education.

However, if the desire to start one's own business is analysed, the proportion of men and women who would like to start their own business is very similar. Moreover, family life and having children seems to have a significant impact on men and women's desire to start their own business.

Keywords | Entrepreneurship; gender; tourism graduates; Portugal; necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship.

Resumo | Este artigo pretende comparar o perfil empreendedor dos diplomados e diplomadas em Turismo em Portugal, em particular as suas motivações para criar o seu próprio negócio. Os conceitos de empreendedorismo por "necessidade" e "oportunidade" são utilizados. Há uma maior proporção de diplomados empreendedores do que de diplomadas empreendedoras. Para além disso, os homens revelam maior tendência para serem empreendedores por oportunidade do que as mulheres. Há ainda uma associação entre ser empreendedor por oportunidade e ser empregador, enquanto a proporção de empreendedores por necessidade é maior junto dos trabalhadores independentes. Há ainda uma relação positiva entre ser empreendedor por oportunidade e as habilitações.

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Apesar destas diferenças, a vontade de criar o próprio emprego/empresa é muito semelhante para os homens e mulheres inquiridos. Verifica-se, contudo, que a vida familiar e o facto de ter filhos afeta de forma significativa e diferenciada os desejos de homens e mulheres no que concerne a vontade de criar o seu próprio negócio.

Palavras-chave | Empreendedorismo; género; diplomados em Turismo; Portugal; empreendedorismo por necessidade e oportunidade.

Introduction

Entrepreneurship is increasingly popular (Heilman and Chen, 2003). It is regarded as critical for a country's economy, since it boosts growth, efficiency and equity (Guasch *et al.*, 2002). Particularly graduate entrepreneurship is seen as a crucial source of competitiveness and economic development (Nabi *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, tourism is seen as a field with high potential to 'stimulate entrepreneurship, new firm formation, employment growth and regeneration of local economies' (Franchetti and Page, 2009: 107). It is thus important to analyse tourism graduates' entrepreneurial activity.

The majority of entrepreneurs in most countries are still men (Allen *et al.*, 2008). This gender gap is the result of several factors, such as parents, peers, education, media and work experience, which generate conflicting expectations for women concerning their roles (Brush *et al.*, 2004). However, women are one of the fastest growing entrepreneurial populations worldwide (Brush *et al.*, 2009). Therefore it is important to compare the business profiles of men and women, namely the motivators that underlie the businesses they start.

The aim of this study is thus to compare the entrepreneurial profile of female and male tourism graduates in Portugal, namely in terms of entrepreneurial motivations, which are split into either necessity or opportunity-based. 'Necessity entrepreneurship' is the result of lack of employment opportunities, while 'opportunity entrepreneurship' stems from the desire to grasp business opportunities (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004).

Therefore, the first section synthesizes literature on gender and entrepreneurship. The traditional male-based definition of 'entrepreneur' is questioned and literature on women's entrepreneurship in the tourism sector is reviewed. Then entrepreneurship in Portugal is analysed, as well as the entrepreneurial profile of the Portuguese population. The comparison between male and female entrepreneurship is followed by a presentation of motivations to start a new business presented by several authors.

In the next section the methodology adopted in the empirical study underlying this research is presented, the sample is briefly characterised and the core concepts used are defined. The concepts of 'necessity entrepreneurship' and 'opportunity entrepreneurship' are essential for this study and are thus accounted for.

In the following sections the results of the study are analysed and discussed. Firstly the proportion of graduates that decided to start their own business or employment is revealed and their motivations therefore are examined. The motivations for male and female graduates are compared.

It is also analysed whether the situation in employment, salary and the level of education are related with either 'opportunity' or 'necessity' entrepreneurship, in order to find out if motivations to start a business are related with the outcomes of such an initiative. Then male and female graduates' desire to start their own business is compared, and the importance of opportunity and necessity-based motivators is analysed. The impact of children on the desire to start one's own business is accounted for, and the results for men and women are compared.

Finally, a cluster analysis is performed in order to identify groups of graduates with different entrepreneurial profiles and hierarchical positions and whether gender is an important variable in the formation of these clusters.

1. Gender and entrepreneurship

Men are more likely to be involved in entrepreneurial activity than women in most countries (Allen *et al.*, 2008). According to Kerfoot and Miller (2010), there seems to be overwhelming evidence for what appears to be women's reluctance to participate in entrepreneurship and self-employment. However, while diverse theories have been presented to explain women's lower levels of entrepreneurship, the traditional definition of 'entrepreneurship' has been comparatively less challenged (Kerfoot and Miller, 2010). Social studies of women entrepreneurs 'implicitly reproduce male experience as a preferred normative value' (Bruni *et al.*, 2004: 256), while female notions about what constitutes entrepreneurship are 'neglected' or 'seen as different from the norm' (Peeters and Ateljevic, 2009).

For a long time, and until the early 1990s, the knowledge about entrepreneurship only reported male experiences of entrepreneurship and their businesses; thus 'the characteristics and expected behaviours for entrepreneurs were "male" in nature' (Brush *et al.*, 2004: 31). On the other hand, women were historically socialized not to pursue entrepreneurial careers, while their participation in some economic sectors, such as health care and education, has led to occupational segregation and a gap in salaries (Brush *et al.*, 2004). Thus, the characteristics that entrepreneurship is thought to require are stereotypically associated with men rather than women: strong leadership qualities, competitiveness, confidence (Kerfoot and Miller, 2010), as well as ambition and risk taking (Burns and Harrison, 1996). There is such an embedment

of masculinity in entrepreneurship, that 'male' and 'entrepreneur' have become synonymous (Bruni *et al.*, 2004).

But is female entrepreneurship significantly different from male entrepreneurship? According to Sundin and Holmquist (cited in Holmquist, n.d.), the differences between men and women as entrepreneurs fade if they are compared within the same lines of business, in which case the similarities surpass the differences. However female entrepreneurs are still at an intersection between the reproductive life-cycle and the entrepreneurial project. Reproduction and familial care are still represented as a mainly female responsibility, namely one which should be the priority in women's lives. Hence, the implicit sub-text is that 'women are not trustworthy entrepreneurs' (Bruni *et al.*, 2004). On the contrary, in the representations of male entrepreneurs, the 'private' sphere is made invisible and does not interfere with the entrepreneurial project (Bruni *et al.*, 2004). Moreover it can still be observed that, as entrepreneurs, women tend to manage smaller firms and concentrate in less-profitable sectors (World Bank, 2011).

The OECD (1998) highlighted the importance of female entrepreneurship for the global economy, namely their importance in small-sized enterprises. However, Ehlers and Main (1998) maintain that strategies to boost entrepreneurship that specifically target low-income women increase their peripheralisation and economic vulnerability.

1.1. Women's entrepreneurship in Tourism

Female entrepreneurship in the tourism sector has been rather neglected as a field of study (Peeters and Ateljevic, 2009). Women's employment opportunities and the segregation of occupations are the major focus of research on women's situation in the tourism sector (Costa *et al.*, 2011; Jordan, 1997; Purcell, 1996), as well as the gender pay gap (Campos-Soria *et al.*, 2009; Santos and Varejão, 2006;

Thrane, 2008) and work-family-conflict (Brownell, 1998; Carvalho *et al.*, 2011; Magnini, 2010).

According to Peeters and Ateljevic (2009), most studies on women's entrepreneurship in the tourism sector study women entrepreneurs in positions that can be considered as an extension of their traditional domestic roles, e.g. in the accommodation sector (Lynch, 1998; Harris *et al.*, 2007; Li, 2003, cited in Peeters and Ateljevic, 2009), in rural or agritourism (Bensemam and Hall, 2010). Women empowerment and community development through small-scale female entrepreneurship is another field of research that has been under analysis. It is thus important to enlarge the scope of research on women's entrepreneurship in tourism, namely in order to analyse the entrepreneurial activity of those women who have the tools and the skills to challenge the typical roles that they have been traditionally assigned in the industry. Therefore this study will focus on both male and female graduates' entrepreneurial activity.

1.2. Entrepreneurship – the Portuguese context

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004), Portugal has one of the lowest entrepreneurship rates not only within the European Union (EU), but also within a wider range of countries that were analysed.

This report presents several reasons for the low entrepreneurial activity in Portugal, namely the insufficient financial support for entrepreneurship, including insufficient access to private sector capital. While government financial support is thought to be adequate, it is applied ineffectively and there is insufficient dissemination of information on the different financial sources available. Time-consuming bureaucracy also results in inefficiency. Despite the increase in professional and physical infrastructure (e.g. science parks and business incubators), these are mostly concentrated in Lisbon and Porto, and not spread evenly over the country.

Moreover the educational system in Portugal neither prepares students to take advantage of business opportunities nor promotes creative and innovative thinking among them. Besides, national culture is perceived not to encourage risk-taking or individual responsibilities. Therefore Portuguese culture is very non-entrepreneurial (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004). These findings are in line with the Hofstede model of cultural dimensions, according to which Portugal has a cultural profile that does not favour entrepreneurship (cited in Silva *et al.*, 2009).

Portugal has more male than female entrepreneurs, as well all the other countries analysed in the GEM 2004. Still, the proportion of female entrepreneurs in Portugal (48%) surpasses the average proportion for GEM countries (38%). While male entrepreneurs stem from higher income brackets, women come from all income brackets (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004). Given that the access to financial resources is one of the major determinants of business success, the fact that women have less resources may lead to lower success rates.

1.3. Motivations to start a new business

Kirkwood (2009) identified four key drivers of entrepreneurial activity in the scholar literature: a desire for independence; monetary motivations; work-related motivations (e.g. unemployment, redundancy or lack of career prospects); and family-related motivations. Whereas the first two motivations can be classified as pull factors, the latter two are more often labelled in the literature as push factors (Kirkwood, 2009). Unlike the other categories of motivators, it was in relation to family motivators that results between men and women proved to be statistically significant, given that women were more motivated or pushed by these factors than men (cf. studies mentioned in (Kirkwood, 2009).

Nowadays, two other concepts have gathered the support from researchers in this field: 'necessity entrepreneurship' (push) and 'opportunity entrepre-

neurship' (pull). These concepts are extensively used in the *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor* (GEM) and were first introduced by Reynolds (2002). Whereas the lack of employment or suitable employment opportunities underlie 'necessity entrepreneurship, the desire to benefit from business and market opportunities underlies 'opportunity entrepreneurship' (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004).

Previous research has suggested that women may be more motivated by push factors than by pull factors (Clain, 2000; Orhan and Scott, 2001 cited in Kirkwood, 2009), and those findings are confirmed by Allen *et al.* (2008), according to whom men's rate of opportunity entrepreneurship is higher than that of women, whereas there is no gender gap regarding necessity entrepreneurship. However, not all studies confirm this. According to Amit and Muller (1995, cited in Kirkwood, 2009) women were more often pulled into entrepreneurship than pushed into it.

In the OECD opportunity entrepreneurs (80%) outnumber necessity entrepreneurs. In spite of the fact the proportion of opportunity entrepreneurs is smaller in Portugal (75%), it is above the average of non-OECD countries (65%) (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004).

2. Methodology and sample

This study aims to analyse the entrepreneurial profile of tourism graduates and identifying gender differences. The empirical study underlying the present research was based on two surveys, one directed at

male and female graduates in tourism studies, and the other targeting male and female students enrolled in higher education degrees in this field. The aim of targeting both enrolled students and graduates was to compare the actual employment situation of those already graduated, with the expectations towards the labour market of those who were still pursuing their studies. However, the data used in the present study only concern the results obtained for graduates.

All Portuguese institutions with degrees in the subareas 'Hospitality' and 'Tourism and Leisure'¹ were contacted, so that their current students and former graduates would fill in the questionnaires. The levels of education taken into account were: Bachelor², *Licenciatura*³, Post-graduation, Master and Doctorate.

There were 3,017 respondents that participated in the study (1,692 graduates and 1,325 enrolled students). After a consistency analysis, 2,684 surveys were considered valid (1,419 from graduates and from 1,265 enrolled students). The convenience sample used included 990 women (69.8%) and 429 men (30.2%). This predominance of women reflects the unequal gender distribution in the population of tourism graduates, since only 35.7% of graduates in the year 2008/09 were men (GPEARI-MCTES, 2011). Half of the participants are 28 years old or younger and their average age is 29⁴ ($M=28.87$, $SD=6.27$, 95% IC [28.50; 29.24]). The software SPSS was used for the univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical data analysis.

The questions regarding entrepreneurship were mostly based on the study of Marques (s/d), which concerns the entry of recent graduates into the labour market, as well as on the GEM report (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004), which splits entrepreneurship into necessity and opportunity-based, as mentioned above.

The entrepreneurial profile of tourism graduates is analysed in the following sections. The share of male and female entrepreneurs is analysed, as well as their motivations to start a new business. The willingness to start their own business is analysed for those graduates who have not yet started their own business.

¹ Subareas of the National Classification of Fields of Education and Training.

² *Bacharelato*, a three-year degree that ceased to exist with the Bologna process in higher education.

³ Before the Bologna process it was a five-year degree. Now it is a three-year degree. Nonetheless, the vast majority graduates surveyed still hold a five-year *Licenciatura*, since the first Bologna graduates only finished their degrees very recently.

⁴ The variable *age*, $KS(1098)=0.129$, $p<.001$, does not follow a normal distribution. The prevalence of young ages is confirmed by the positively skewed distribution of graduates' age (Pestana and Gageiro, 2008).

3. Entrepreneurship and the motivations underlying it

Only 12.9% of the surveyed graduates have created their own employment or business. There is a sharp gender gap concerning this variable: whereas 21.4% of men have already created their own employment or business, only 10.0% of women have done so. These differences are statistically significant ($\chi^2(1)=24.736, p<.001$).

However, not only is the proportion of entrepreneurs different among men and women, but also the motives underlying their decision to launch their own business. Tourism graduates were asked for the reason why they created their own employment or business. They were given several options, from which they could choose one. There was also an open answer, where they could fill in any other motive not included in the default answers. The response options were adapted from other studies (Marques, *s/d*; Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004) and were then grouped in two categories for data analysis and interpretation.

Thus 'opportunity entrepreneurs' encompassed those who selected one of the following answers:

- *I want to be independent;*
- *It is a good way of improving economically;*
- *There is a lack of enterprises in the area in which I invested;*
- *Personal/professional fulfilment* (added subsequently given the high number of open responses).

The 'necessity entrepreneurs' were those who selected the following options:

- *I could not find a job in my field of study;*
- *I wanted to help my family* (added subsequently after the analysis of open responses).

After the analysis of the results, it was concluded that 83.7% of the graduates who have already created their own employment or business can be considered 'opportunity entrepreneurs', whereas

only 14.2% are 'necessity entrepreneurs'. Thus this percentage of opportunity entrepreneurs is greater than the one calculated for Portugal and the OECD by GEM (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004). This can be explained by the fact that in this sample all individuals have completed a higher education degree, and are thus more educated than the average entrepreneur. According to the GEM report, the higher the education level attained, the higher the probability of being an entrepreneur (Nova Fórum & SPI, 2004).

Comparing the results obtained in the present study with the ones obtained by Marques (*s/d*), necessity entrepreneurship seems to be much more significant in that study (34% of entrepreneurs), which included graduates from various fields, than in the present study (14.2%), which only included tourism graduates. In Marques (*s/d*) the main reason pointed out for having created one's own employment or business was not having been able to find a job in one's field of study.

The fact that opportunity entrepreneurship is more marked among tourism graduates is a positive sign, which may be the result of two factors. On the one hand, there might be better opportunities for starting a business in the tourism context than in other contexts; on the other hand, tourism graduates might be better prepared to identify and seize business opportunities, given the fact that tourism degrees are more business-oriented than many other degrees. According to Pitcher and Purcell (1998) business students were the only ones that believed they had substantially developed 'enterprise' or 'business' skills during the course of their studies. However, it should be taken into account that the present study involved not only recent tourism graduates, but also those with more work experience, in contrast with the study carried out by Marques (*s/d*), which only involved recent graduates. Therefore the tourism graduates surveyed are more experienced and have had more time to develop the skills that allow them to identify business and market opportunities.

Kirkwood (2009) stated that push factors influence women more than men to start their own business. In the sample of individuals analysed in this study, necessity entrepreneurship is also more visible among female tourism graduates than among male tourism graduates. In fact, the percentage of female necessity entrepreneurs (20.8%) more than doubles that of male necessity entrepreneurs (9.5%). Thus, women are more likely to start their own business or employment due to difficulties in finding a suitable job. The women surveyed have indeed less advantageous employment situations, as was confirmed in previous studies with the same data (Costa *et al.*, 2012).

4. Motivations for entrepreneurship, situation in employment, salary and level of education

Those who have already created their own business or employment were split into three groups: employers, independent workers and own-account workers. Own-account workers who have already created their business would be either those who gave up that business to become employees or those who keep their business as a secondary activity. The differences between these groups in terms of the motivation to have started this business/employment are analysed in Table 1.

The results suggest that employers are more likely to be motivated by opportunities, rather than

pushed by necessity, in contrast with independent workers. The attraction for opportunities may be connected with the availability of more resources to invest and to hire employees, while being pushed by necessity might mean that one lacks the resources to grow one's businesses and employ at least one paid employee.

The salaries of necessity and opportunity entrepreneurs were also compared (Table 2).

It can be observed that the salaries of opportunity entrepreneurs are significantly higher than those of necessity entrepreneurs. Moreover, whereas the average salary of opportunity entrepreneurs is above the average for tourism graduates (940.33 Euros), the average salary of necessity entrepreneurs is below it.

Opportunity entrepreneurship seems to be a good path towards the improvement of one's economic situation. Thus opportunity entrepreneurship seems to be more bound to success than necessity entrepreneurship.

However it should be noted that the gender pay gap is even wider among opportunity entrepreneurs (22.2%), than among tourism graduates in general (16.8%). In contrast, the gender pay gap among necessity entrepreneurs is narrower (9.3%). This might be due to the fact that women have fewer resources to invest, are more constrained by family commitments (Kerfoot and Miller, 2010), and only have limited access to networks (Ibarra, 1997).

Concerning the relationship between motivations to start a new business and the level of education, it is observed that the higher the level of education

Table 1 | Type of entrepreneurship and situation in employment

	Own-account workers	Employers	Independent workers
Opportunity entrepreneurship	84.5%	92.9%	81.8%
Necessity entrepreneurship	15.5%	7.1%	18.2%

Source: own elaboration.

Table 2 | Type of entrepreneurship and average salary, by gender

	Male entrepreneurs	Female entrepreneurs
Opportunity entrepreneurship	€ 1508,73	€ 1174,18
Necessity entrepreneurship	€ 846,88	€ 768,00

Source: own elaboration.

is, the more likely women are to have started their own business or employment: 8.1% of women with a *licenciatura*; 10.7% of female postgraduates and 28.3% of masters and PhD holders⁵. The only exception concerns women with a bachelor degree, since it is the lowest degree under analysis, but it has 20% of female entrepreneurs. This might be explained by the fact that it is a degree that does not exist anymore and hence these women graduated a longer time ago and have had more time to gain experience and get into business. There is a statistical significant association ($\chi^2(3)=27,341$, $p<.001$) between the kind of degree obtained by female graduates and the creation of their own business or employment.

Although the association between the kind of degree obtained by male graduates and the creation of their own business or employment is not statistical significant ($\chi^2(3)=1,842$, $p=.606$), it is also observed that the higher the level of education, the more likely men are to have started their own business or employment, rising from 18.2% among men with a bachelor degree, 19.2% among men with a *licenciatura*, 23.5% among those with a postgraduation, to 30.0% among men with a Master or a PhD.

Moreover, necessity entrepreneurship decreases with the rise in women's level of education, as can be seen in Figure 1.

Concerning male graduates, necessity entrepreneurship only exists among those with a *licenciatura* degree (14.3%). Only opportunity entrepreneurship is observed among the remaining respondents with other kinds of degree.

5. Desire to start own business or employment

Among those who never created their own business or employment, 75.9% of male graduates and 73% of female graduates would like to do so. There is no statistically significant association between gender and the desire to create one's own employment/business ($\chi^2(1)=0,880$, $p=.348$).

It should be noted that whereas there is a statistically significant association concerning gender and actual business creation, there is no

⁵ Female masters and PhD holders were grouped for these analyses, given that only six female PhD holders were surveyed.

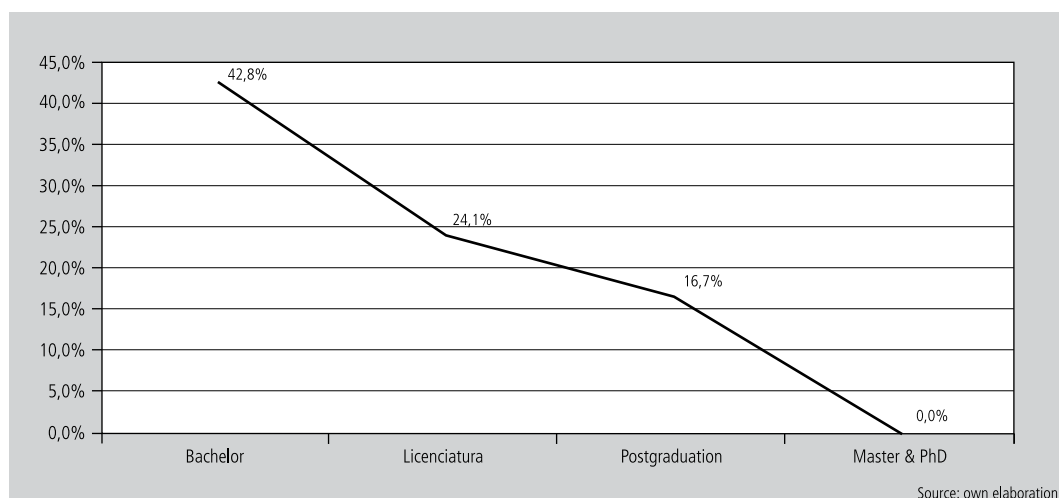


Figure 1 | Necessity entrepreneurship according to degree type (women).

such association concerning gender and the desire to start a business. This means that there is only a slight difference between men and women's desire to create their own business or employment, in contrast to the rather sharp difference between the percentage of men and women who effectively started a business of their own.

The main reasons pointed out for those who stated that they would like to start their own business/employment correspond to the reasons mentioned by those who have already started it. Nevertheless, more women (4.4%) than men (2.3%) mention personal fulfilment. Again, more women mention difficulties to find a job (16.4%), as compared to men (14.7%).

The desire of female graduates to become entrepreneurs increases with the rise in the level of education. However, there is no statistically significant association between the level of education and the desire to create one's own business or employment ($\chi^2(3)=0,482, p=,923$).

The desire to start one's own business or employment has a statistically significant association with motherhood ($\chi^2(1)=9,219, p=,002$), but it does not have a statistically significant association with fatherhood ($\chi^2(1)=0,852, p<,356$). In fact, female graduates' desire to create their own business decreases from 75.8% when they are childless to 62.6% when they have children. This decrease is attenuated in men (from 76.8% to 70.4%).

The motivations mentioned for the desire to start one's own business are mostly related with opportunity entrepreneurship both for individuals with and without children. However, there are some discrepancies between men and women. Motivations related with necessity entrepreneurship are higher for women who have children (19%), and lower for childless women (17.2%). In contrast, necessity entrepreneurship is more visible among childless men (6.8%), than among those with children, since none of these mentions motivations related with necessity entrepreneurship (Table 3). The decrease in

Table 3 | Necessity and opportunity entrepreneurship according to having children, by gender

		Necessity	Opportunity
Men	Childless	6.8%	93.2%
	With children	0%	100%
Women	Childless	17.2%	82.8%
	With children	19.2%	80.8%

Source: own elaboration.

the willingness to start a new business for those who have children may be influenced by an increased perception of additional work load, uncertainty, responsibility or risk (Block and Koellinger, 2009).

6. Gender, vertical mobility and entrepreneurship – a cluster analysis

The previous analyses have showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between gender and entrepreneurship. However the question should be asked: to what extent is gender relevant in determining the entrepreneurial profile of tourism graduates? Are there other factors that more strongly than gender explain involvement in entrepreneurship?

Despite the fact that the sample only comprises highly-qualified individuals, the typical 'gender pyramid', i.e. the occupation of most top-level positions by men, can also be observed in it. This tendency is shown by the following results, which confirm that men prevail in higher-level positions:

- Management positions (45.3% of men vs. 38.4% of women, $\chi^2(1)=4.005, p=,045$, namely upper-management positions (17.4% vs. 10.1%, $\chi^2(1)=9.897, p=,002$);
- Leadership positions (29.4% vs. 14.8%, $\chi^2(1)=27.727, p<,001$);
- Supervision and coordination tasks (47% vs. 32.4%, $\chi^2(1)=18.733, p<,001$).

Moreover, having children further widens the gap between men and women in the positions mentioned above, as can be seen from the following results:

- Management positions (gender gap increases from 4.3%, for childless individuals, to 11.8%, for those with children) and upper-management positions (from 3% to 6.5%)
- Leadership positions (from 6.3% to 10.2%);
- Supervision and coordination tasks (from 3.9% to 23.8%).

Holding certain kinds of positions may predispose more individuals to start their own business, since they have access to a wider network of contacts that includes other entrepreneurs. Since the pattern of vertical segregation favours men, it is possible that it is the factor hidden behind gender which influences the involvement of men and women in entrepreneurial activity.

It was thus decided to perform a TwoStep⁶ cluster analysis with the aim of identifying groups of graduates with different entrepreneurial profiles and hierarchical positions, as well as analysing whether gender is an important variable in the formation of these clusters.

The variables included in the analysis were: *gender, hierarchical position, creation of own business/employment, holding of leadership positions and performance of coordination/supervision tasks*. This analysis showed fair quality and identified two clusters of individuals.

Gender had almost no influence in cluster formation, which was mostly influenced by other variables, such as the hierarchical position and the fact of holding a leadership position.

Cluster I gathers graduates that have never created their own business/employment, do not hold management and leadership positions and for the most part do not perform coordination or supervision tasks (83.1%). Cluster II grouped graduates in middle (60.9%) or upper-management positions (26.4%), as well as graduates who perform

supervision and coordination tasks (59.7%), hold leadership positions (41.2%), and are more likely to have created their own business or employment (28.6%).

Even though gender does not determine the formation of clusters, women are more represented in cluster I, which also grouped mostly non-entrepreneurs, as well as non-managers and non-leaders. It seems thus that one's vertical mobility reinforces one's entrepreneurial profile. Hence the fact that men are more likely to climb the career ladder might be related with more opportunities for them to start their own business.

7. Conclusion

The definition of entrepreneurship is intertwined with the male stereotype and the expected behaviours for entrepreneurs are 'male in nature' (Bruni, 2004: 256). Whereas in the representations of male entrepreneurs the private sphere is invisible, family and the reproductive life-cycle are always present in the representations of female entrepreneurs.

Female entrepreneurship in the tourism sector has been rather overlooked by scholars and those who have studied it were mostly concerned with the study of women entrepreneurs in positions that did not challenge and even reinforced their traditional domestic roles.

Even though the proportion of female entrepreneurs in Portugal is above the average of many other countries, there is still a considerable gender gap. Moreover, several barriers still hinder entrepreneurial activity in Portugal, particularly the fact that its culture is seen by several authors as very non-entrepreneurial.

Concerning types of entrepreneurship, some categorisations proposed are based on the motivations to start one's own business or employment. Hence,

⁶ The TwoStep technique is the most adequate to handle clusters with continuous, ordinal and categorical variables.

opportunity entrepreneurship (pull) can be distinguished from necessity entrepreneurship (push).

Regarding the empirical study carried out, it concerned male and female tourism graduates in Portugal. It was concluded that the proportion of male entrepreneurs more than doubled that of female entrepreneurs and that opportunity entrepreneurs accounted for the vast majority of individuals in both groups, thus surpassing the percentage of opportunity entrepreneurs mentioned in other studies, which may be due to the high level of education of the sample.

Those who have already created their business based on opportunity-related motivations are more likely to be employers than own-account or independent workers, who are comparatively more likely to have been pushed by necessity. In addition, opportunity entrepreneurs have salaries above the average for tourism graduates, while necessity entrepreneurs have salaries below it. However, the gender pay gap is wider among the former than among the latter. It is also observed that the rise in the level of education is associated with the sharp decrease of the rates of necessity entrepreneurship for women.

Despite the gap between men and women concerning business creation, there is no statistically significant association between gender and the desire to start one's own business. Again, women mentioned more necessity-related reasons than men did. Having children has a statistically significant negative impact on women's desire to start a new business, whereas for men no statistically significant association was observed. Moreover, necessity-related reasons increase for women with children, while no men with children mentions such reasons.

A sharp vertical segregation is observed between male and female tourism graduates, with men occupying higher level positions, particularly when individuals with children were compared. The cluster analysis performed indicated that entrepreneurship is more likely to be related with vertical mobility than with gender. The fact that men are more likely to be

vertically mobile than women might thus favour their greater involvement in business creation.

This study has some limitations. One is that the multi-item measure of the motivations to start a new business/employment should have been more consistently conceived. Even though it was based on two renowned studies, a higher number of items should be included in future studies, as well as an equivalent number of items both for necessity entrepreneurship and opportunity entrepreneurship. An exploratory qualitative study should precede the development of such a measure.

Moreover, the study uses a convenience sample, since it would not be possible to cover all the national institutions by other means, as most institutions do not provide the lists with the contacts of their current and former students. Even if they did, most contacts would probably be outdated. Thus the large size of the sample and the fact that the process of data collection was not biased are believed to guarantee quite suggestive conclusions.

Further studies could also evaluate whether the individuals dropped their business, and explore the reasons for that. A longitudinal study to track the evolution of entrepreneurship rates and the evolution of motivations to start a new business could be performed, particularly in a moment of crisis and paradigmatic shift.

In practical terms, it is necessary to raise women's self-confidence and make entrepreneurial education widespread even at the school level in order to overcome psychological barriers that might hinder women from getting involved in business creation (Allen *et al.*, 2008; Navarro *et al.*, 2010). However, the desire expressed by men and women to create their own business or employment was similar. Hence, lack of funds and troubles in balancing work and family are more likely to be deterring women from getting into business. In fact it is verified that having children has a much more negative impact on women's willingness to start their own business, than on men's willingness, since household and care-related tasks are still not equally split between men and women at

home. Hence becoming an entrepreneur or self-employed is not seen as facilitating work-life balance, on the contrary. Thus services that facilitate the conciliation of both spheres, such as childcare services, are important if it is desired that more women become entrepreneurs (Navarro *et al.*, 2010).

Moreover, public policies should be more quality than quantity oriented in what concerns the boost of female entrepreneurship, i.e. the aim of increasing female entrepreneurship should be oriented towards the attainment of a more gender equal society (Navarro *et al.*, 2010). Thus, instead of setting targets for women's entrepreneurship rates, public policies should be more concerned with the increase of opportunity entrepreneurial activity among women (Navarro *et al.*, 2010), since opportunity-based ventures are more likely to provide them with better revenues and convert them into employers, which in turn will result in further job creation.

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