THE ROLE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN CORPORATE FAMILY FIRMS: CASE STUDY EVIDENCE FROM NIGERIA

BY BRAYE HENRY KOROYE 32058554

BEING A RESEARCH THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND STRATEGY, LANCASTER UNIVERSITY MANAGEMENT SCHOOL, IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF A DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN MANAGEMENT (ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND STRATEGY)

SEPTEMBER 2021

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented or studied for another degree.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

My first appreciation goes to God Almighty for His guidance and infinite mercies, which have made it possible for me to study in one of the most prestigious universities (Lancaster University) in the United Kingdom (UK) - I am forever grateful, Lord Jesus. My sincere gratitude also goes to my supervisors, Professor Lola Dada and Dr Allan Discua Cruz, for your supervisory role throughout my study. Your guidance, encouragement, and feedback have helped me as a novice researcher. Thanks to Dr Marian Iszatt-White for her taught PhD programme that contributed to the theoretical understanding which shaped this study. I am also thankful for my mentor, uncle, and father figure, Ambassador P B Koroye (retired) and his beloved wife. The academic seed you planted in me years ago has blossomed. I am also grateful to my colleagues, Dr Banabo, Barrister Thank God Ogbomah, Dr E.P. Berezi, and Mr Tobonimi for their guidance and encouragement. I will not forget the best wishes and encouragement from EbiKingP, Zum Waribo Odem, Godwin, Awolowo-Kelvin, Fab, Ebi-Calaba, Romeo, Douye Oyoko, Big Up, Eresby, Edu-White, Seimo, General Austin, Hon. Davis Kuri, Barrister Dickson, Barrister Tabolt, Emeritus Ipori, Nemi, Denny, Ayi, Sir Rufus Believing, Kelvin, Timipa, TeamGF and others. To Dr and Dr (Mrs) Seiyefa Koroye, I am most thankful that you contributed to my education during my developmental years. To my siblings, thanks for your financial and moral support: Wororufa Koroye, Steve Koroye, Pina Koroye, and Nanabo Koroye; words cannot explain how happy I am to have completed this educational height. To Hon. Douye Koroye, Ambakederimo Koroye and Ebikabo Koroye, your advice, encouragement, and financial support are acknowledged. Many thanks to my beautiful wife, Mrs Koroye Seigha. You constantly radiate the virtues of a good wife. Your patience and prayers are not taken for granted. I am also most thankful to my three daughters: Boulouebi Emmanuella, Alaere, and Ebipere. On countless occasions, you have shown me reasons to always be proud of you girls. I acknowledge that your courage, prayers, and support took me this far. To the memories of my evergreen parents, His Royal Majesty, King Samson

Koroye, Kpadia IV, The Pere of Tarakiri Kingdom, Sagbama Bayelsa State, and Chief (Mrs) G. Koroye. Your love and commitment to education took me this far. Your memories are always evergreen. Your presence at my graduation would have been more colourful. In all, we bless God, for He is all-knowing. It is not possible to acknowledge everybody who has positively influenced my doctoral pursuit. For your efforts, our heavenly God will reward you all.

ABSTRACT

This thesis' topic, "The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria," draws its understanding from three theoretical perspectives: the resourcebased view, liberal feminism, and altruism. The study seeks to understand why and how women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms influence their family and firm's harmony, growth, and development. This study introduces polygamy – a form of marriage involving multiple partners – as a novel dimension in the family firm concept. The polygamous approach is alien in Europe and several other regions, but it is practised in Africa (in this case, Nigeria). This study brings this perspective to the literature to buttress the Nigerian view of family and firms. The argument is that polygamy is endemic, deeply rooted, and not a dying practice in Nigeria. Therefore, the lack of studies on the role of women entrepreneurs, specifically within the polygamous family structure, poses a research gap. To address this research gap, the study examines the success attained by women entrepreneurs and how it can be replicated and contribute to the development of their family firms, i.e., private universities, and Nigeria at large. In this vein, this study has examined forty-two research participants: seventeen males and twenty-five females (consisting of family firm members). This study uses a case study methodology involving data collection via interviews, observations, and documentation from family-owned and managed private universities in Nigeria. The findings from this study reveal that women are innovative, hard-working, and have distinguished themselves by building lasting corporate entrepreneurial legacies in polygamous family firms. The findings also demonstrate that polygamy encourages women to be independent towards corporate ventures, which inspires their entrepreneurial sustainability and capabilities in polygamous family firms. Finally, as evidenced by this study, women are entrepreneurial in the Schumpeterian sense, which encourages gender parity, increases their entrepreneurial participation, influences their sense of identity, and builds entrepreneurial orientation in polygamous family firms. This study provides theoretical and practical implications, a future research agenda, and recommendations to encourage more studies of women's entrepreneurship in polygamous family firms.

LIST OF TABLES

PAGES

Table 2.1: Chronological Definitions of Family Firms	34
Table 4.1: Participants' Description	69
Table 4.2: Participants' Information	71-72
Table 4.3: Braun and Clark's Thematic Approach	80-81
Table 5.3: Breakdown of the Nigerian University	87
Table 7.1: Cross-Case Analysis	114

LIST OF FIGURES

PAGES

50
99-102
102-105
106-110
110

APPENDICES

Pages

Appendix A: Consent Form
Appendix B: Participant Letter
Appendix C: Interview Questions
Appendix D: Interview Transcript
Appendix E: Observation Protocol/Form
Appendix F: Observational Field Note
Appendix G : Documentation Protocol187
Appendix H : Document Analysis
Appendix I: Mololo University Organisational Chart189
Appendix J: Torupere University Organisational Chart190
Appendix K: Gita University Organisational Chart191
Appendix L: Guinea-Egbuson University Organisational Chart192
Appendix M: Pool of Codes Across Cases (Theme One) 193
Appendix N: Pool of Codes Across Cases (Theme Two)194
Appendix O: Pool of Codes Across Cases (Theme Three)

Cover Page	i
Declaration	ii
Acknowledgement	iii
Abstract	iv
List of Tables	V
List of Figures	vi
References	vii
Chapter One	
1.1 Motivation for the Study	11
1.2 Background of the Study	11-21
1.3 Research Objectives of the Study	
1.4 Research Questions	
1.5 Structure of the PhD Thesis	
1.6 Research Context	25-26
1.7 Summary of the Chapter	
Chapter Two	
2.1 Introduction	
2.2Topology of the Family Firm	
2.3 Definition of Corporate Entrepreneurship	
2.4 Contextualising Corporate Entrepreneurship in Family Firms	
2.5 Conceptualising Corporate Entrepreneurship in Family Firms	
2.6 Family Firms and Corporate Entrepreneurship	
2.7 Family Firm Constructs	
2.7.1 The Firm Level	
2.7.2 The Family Level	
2.7.3 The Individual Level	
2.8 Summary of the Chapter	46-47
Chapter Three	
The Influencing Role of Women in Family Firm Entrepreneurship	
3.1 Introduction	
3.2 Gender Gap in Entrepreneurship in Family Firms	
3.3 Women's Involvement in Entrepreneurship in Family Firms	53-54
3.4 Women Entrepreneurs: Motivation and Challenges in Family Firms	54-55
3.5 The Theoretical Framework on the Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corp	oorate Family
Firms	
3.5.1 The Resource-Based View in the Family Firm	56-57
3.5.2 Theory of Altruism in Family Firms	
3.5.3 Liberal Feminism in Family Firms	
3.6 Summary of the Chapter	
Chapter Four	
Research Methodology	
4.1 Introduction	62-63
4.2 Methodological Framework	63
4.2.1 Social Constructivism	

Table of Contents

4.3 The Case Study as a Research Strategy	65-67
4.4 Sampling	
4.5 Data Collection Methods	72-74
4.5.1 Interviews	74
4.5.2 Direct Observation	75-77
4.5.3 Documentation	77-78
4.6 Qualitative Data Analysis	
4.6.1 Phase 1: Familiarising with Your Data	81
4.6.2 Phase 2: Generating Initial Codes.	
4.6.3 Phase 3: Searching for Themes	82
4.6.4 Phase 4: Reviewing Themes	
4.6.5 Phase 5: Defining and Naming Themes	83
4.6.6 Phase 6: Producing the Report	83-84
4.7 Reliability and Validity	84
4.8 Ethical-Related Issues	
4.9 Summary of the Chapter	
Chapter 5	
The Context of Nigerian University Family Firms	
5.1 Introduction	87-88
5.2 Private Universities: The Nigeria Family Firm Perspective	88-92
5.3 Synopsis of the Case Study Universities	93
5.3.1 Mololo University	93-94
5.3.2 Torupere University	94-95
5.3.3 Gita University	95-96
5.3.4 Guinea Egbuson University	96-97
5.4 Summary of the Chapter	97
Chapter Six	
Findings from Case Studies	
6.1 Introduction	88-99
6.2 Theme One	99-102
6.3 Theme Two	102-105
6.4 Theme Three	
6.5 Thematic Map on the Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family I	Firms
6.5 Summary of the Chapter	111
Chapter Seven	
Cross Case Analysis and Discussion	
7.1 Introduction	
7.2 Cross-Case Analysis: An Analytical Framework	113-114
7.3 Discussion	
7.4 Summary of the Chapter	116
Chapter Eight	
Conclusion	
8.1 Introduction	
8.2 Mapping Principal Findings with Research Objectives/Questions	119

8.2.1 The First Research Question	119-121
8.2.2 The Second Research Question	121-122
8.2.3 The Third Research Question	
8.3 Contributions to knowledge	124-125
8.3.1Theoretical Contribution and Implications	125-128
8.3.2 Practical Contribution and Implications of the Findings	128-129
8.4 Limitations and Future Research	129-130
8.5 Summary of the Chapter	131
References	

Chapter One Introduction

1.1 Motivation for the Study

I spent my developmental years in a patriarchal family that owned and managed a small-scale business, that is, a private high school in Nigeria. Our school has transcended the first generation due to the death of our father, the founder. The second generation of family members now manages the school. The school has witnessed a rapid transformation in growth and expansion. Modern technology and trained teachers are employed to meet the dynamics of today's educational challenges and prospects. However, as a family, we have our challenges. Among these are succession dilemmas, polygamy, primogeniture, and other cultural limitations, including women being perceived to be weak and lacking managerial abilities. As I grew into adulthood with a thriving family business and with my wife and three daughters, the desire to do gender studies became even more paramount. In this vein, the dominance of patriarchy, polygamy and my personal experience motivated me to do gender studies. This thesis aims to contribute to and debunk the social constructive narrative on women's inequality and primogeniture, as my three daughters are potential women entrepreneurs and successors in a patriarchal society.

1.2 Background of the Study

Family firms are the oldest and most common forms of business organisation (Abouzaid, 2008; Colli, 2003; Ramadani et al., 2017; Ratten et al., 2017). They have a deep-rooted family structure in the advancement of their firm's economic and social growth (Ratten et al., 2017). Family firms constitute the backbone of most economies and are "remembered throughout history for their significant economic impact" (Akinbola et al., 2020, p. 127), as well as being acknowledged for their continual survival and growth (De Vries, 2007; Hernández-Perlines, 2020; LeCounte, 2020; Peruffo, 2017; Rogoff and Heck, 2003) in

developed and emerging economies (Burkart et al., 2003; De Massis et al., 2015). Interestingly, the survival of family firms depends upon embracing existing business dynamics (Sharma et al., 2014). These include internal and external business dynamics (Howorth et al., 2006; LeCounte, 2020): for instance, socio-cultural, technological, and strategic management approaches toward products and process development, and organisational renewal (Sharma et al., 2014; Zahra, 1995).

Like other fields of study – for instance, management and finance – the dynamism of family firms needs both empirical and conceptual approaches (Peruffo, 2017), which will enable the understanding of the evolution, dimensions, concepts, characteristics, and practices that lie in the uniqueness of two sets of distinct entrepreneurial orientations – the family and the firm (Covin and Miller, 2014). While entrepreneurship is apparent, extant findings suggest positive relationships between the family and the firm (Ramadani et al., 2020; Wilson et al., 2014). Covin and Miller (2014) argue that entrepreneurship is integral to family culture and innovation. Accordingly, Ramadani et al. (2020) argue that for firms to be competitive and strategic, inherent entrepreneurial practices are a catalyst for innovative growth. LeCounte (2020) argues that such practices reduce setbacks, sustain competitive advantages, and boost progress in the family firm.

One characteristic of family firms is that they negate the basic corporate principles of independent ownership and management structures (Daily and Dollinger, 1992; Yanagisako, 2019). This crucial issue from the perspective of corporate governance has led to the transgenerational existence of many family firms. For instance, a founder may derive pleasure from having his/her child run a business that bears the family name. Definitions of the family firm are influenced by the researcher's personal experiences, cultural inclinations, and academic perspectives. While some family firm researchers are concerned with the percentage of voting power exerted by the family, other scholarly attention is on

management, succession, and control mechanisms (Ang et al., 2000; Beckhard and Dyer, 1983; Chua et al., 1999; Handler, 1994; Yanagisako, 2019). In other words, extant family firm researchers have defined family firms from the economic viability, ownership structure, control, political, legal, continuity, and succession perspectives. As Lank (1997) puts it: "There are as many definitions for family firms as there are researchers in the field." (p. 154). Nevertheless, these influences and perspectives have made the family firm concept worth studying (Davis and Tagiuri, 1985).

This study lists a chronological order of selected definitions from four decades, demonstrating the definitional patterns, characteristics, and descriptions of family firms. For instance, Rosenblatt (1985) defines family firms as firms comprising two or three family members in their day-to-day operations, wherein ownership or control resides within a single family. Handler (1989) argues that a family firm could be a profit or a not-for-profit organisation, where the management is within the operating family or families, with succession as a means of intergenerational transfers. According to Gallo and Sveen (1991), "[a] family business is a business where a single family owns the majority stock and has total control" (p. 181).

Welsch (1993) holds that family ownership and management processes are distinctive factors of family firms. Carsrud (1994) also defines family firms in terms of ownership and control. Chua et al. (1999) argue that a family business is "[a] business governed and managed to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families" (p. 25). Chrisman et al. (2005) included family involvement and participation in their definitional element. Barontini and Caprio (2006) define family firms in terms of voting rights and controlled equity shares within the family structure. Muñoz-Bullón and Sanchez-Bueno (2011) describe the family firm as any business in which the firm's leadership has a blood relationship, and family members hold a significant portion of the family investment. Family enterprises are business concerns in which members of a nuclear or extended family are major shareholders (Onuoha, 2012). Petroff's (2017) definition demonstrates the subjectivity of the family firm. In other words, what may constitute a family firm in one society may not do so in another. For instance, in France and Italy, family firms record a minimum of 20 and 50 per cent of voting powers within a family, respectively (Peruffo, 2017). Statistically, over 70 per cent of all profit and not-for-profit organisations globally are family firms (Martinez and Aldrich, 2014). For example, the International Family Enterprise Research Academy states that "93 per cent of Italian, 60 per cent of German and over 70 per cent of UK firms are family-owned or controlled. In Spain, Greece, and France, family firms represent about 75, 80, and 60 per cent of gross national product (GNP)", respectively (IFERA, 2003, p. 235). Family firms create over 72 per cent of all new jobs, provide about 64 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP), and engage over 60 per cent of the workforce in the USA and Europe (Bernard, 2015).

Most recent scholarly findings generally support the IFERA figures (2003). For instance, in Canada, 80 per cent of all listed firms are family-owned or controlled (Gulzar and Wang, 2010). In Latin America, family firms constitute over 70 per cent of all businesses and employ over 80 per cent of the total workforce (Yearbook EY Family Business, 2015). In South Africa, they have continually led the business space for over 250 years and constitute over 90 per cent of all businesses (Venter, 2005). In India, family firms constitute over 90 per cent of all private firms (Gulzar and Wang, 2010). Studies from Nigeria show that their family firms also constitute over 90 per cent of private sector businesses (Ogbechie and Anetor, 2015). The Nigerian economy is mainly driven by the private sector, the bulk of which are family firms (Oshikoya, 2008).

Despite these figures, there is no universal definition of a family firm. This study adopts Chua et al.'s (1999) definition because the definitional elements constructively and comprehensively include the role of family members in the firm. Chua et al.'s (1999) definition identifies family relationships, while also acknowledging that positive family relationships are built on a communication network, teamwork, and appreciation of each other. Justifiably so, the definition recognises family members at all levels, to pursue the family goals and objectives with a vison that is transgenerational. While most family firms' definitions are specific and rigid, and might not be suitable for generalisations, Chua et al.'s (1999) definition classifies management, control, and succession as the essence of family firms.

The overwhelming impact of family firms is due to the acceptance of entrepreneurship, and this is not new to the literature (Belghiti-Mahut et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2020; Sciacia and Bettinelli, 2015; Val Stel et al., 2005). While entrepreneurship is synonymous with technological and economic advancement, stable and progressive entrepreneurial family firms are necessary for economic growth and development (Banabo et al., 2014; Rogoff and Heck, 2003). For instance, entrepreneurial activities encourage economic growth that emanates within the family, through product and process diversification (Rogoff and Heck, 2003).

The concept of entrepreneurship has existed in business and management literature for decades, but it lacks a unifying definition (Shane and Venkatraman, 2000; Thebaud, 2013). Despite the absence of a generally accepted definition, Hessels (2008) observes the commonality among researchers' views, that entrepreneurship involves breakthrough innovations. Entrepreneurship connotes economic empowerment through creative and innovative behaviours (Nielsen et al., 2021; Wadhwani et al., 2020). Lumpkin and Dess (1996) define it as a new product entry or process into the market. Nielsen et al. (2021) argue

that entrepreneurship involves the creation of something new (such as ideas, values, and firms). Blundell and Lockett (2011) define it as any "phenomenon associated with entrepreneurial activities which involve a complex social interaction pattern that extends beyond individual entrepreneurs to incorporate teams, organisations, networks, and institutions." (p. 7). According to Davidsson (2005), there is no shortage of suggestions regarding the term entrepreneurship. The divergence of views and lack of a universally accepted definition has made entrepreneurship a thought-provoking concept.

A firm is an innovative entity that encourages and rewards entrepreneurial ideas, opportunities, and orientations (Dada et al., 2015; Drucker, 2014; Fang and Chiu, 2017; Gartner, 1988; Low and MacMillan, 1988). Hence, entrepreneurship and business management researchers acknowledge entrepreneurial activities and orientations within the firm as corporate entrepreneurship or intrapreneurship (Glinyanova et al., 2021; Kuratko, 2017; Nielsen et al., 2021; Pinchot, 1985; Sathe, 1989; Zahra, 1991). While entrepreneurship is distinctive, exploring, and value-generating, its activities within the firm generate renewals through innovations (Block et al., 2013; Blundell and Lockett, 2011; Covin and Miles, 1999; Glinyanova et al., 2021; Marchisio et al., 2010; Nielsen et al., 2021; Val Stel et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2016; Zahra and Covin, 1995).

Like other radical ideas, the concept of corporate entrepreneurship has evolved over decades, from venture team development to organisational rebirth or renewal (Glinyanova et al., 2021; Hill and Hlavacek, 1972; Zahra, 1991). Studies show that entrepreneurship and business management researchers in the 1970s understood entrepreneurial activities through venture teams (Hill and Hlavacek, 1972; Zahra, 1991), which are an assemblage of professionals from various departments of an organisation for a new business operation. In this vein, Hill and Hlavacek (1977) found that 100 large firms used venture teams to manage their

corporations in an entrepreneurial environment. This was one of the distinguishing characteristics of firms with successful entrepreneurial cultures in that era. In the 1980s, the concept of entrepreneurship increased significantly as a research field. Researchers focused on developing a holistic framework for entrepreneurial behaviours in firms (Pinchot, 1985; Sathe, 1989). As time went by, the evolution of corporate entrepreneurship was studied. In the 1990s, entrepreneurship and business management scholars made a deliberate effort to reconcile the various definitions, which metamorphosised into four critical forms: "sustained regeneration, organisational rejuvenation, strategic renewal, and domain redefinition" (Covin and Miles, 1999, p. 50). Guth and Ginsberg's (1990) view of corporate entrepreneurship consists of two paradigms: new venture growth and the renewal of organisational structures and strategies. Zahra (1991) states that "corporate entrepreneurship may be formal or informal activities to create new businesses in established companies through product and process innovations and market development" (p. 262). Zahra (1995) proposed three corporate entrepreneurship dimensions, to include innovation, venturing, and strategic renewals. Sharma and Chrisman (1999) describe corporate entrepreneurship as "the process whereby an individual or a group of individuals create a new organisation or instigate renewals or innovation in association with an existing organisation" (p. 18). In the 2000s, the dynamics of corporate entrepreneurship began to evolve. The focus was on the cultural diversities and challenges inherent in corporate entrepreneurship. This era witnessed research into sustainable organisational growth within corporate entrepreneurial activities (Kuratko et al., 2001). It was in this decade that Morris et al. (2008) developed the domains of strategic entrepreneurship. Strategic entrepreneurship involves positioning the firm towards achieving value-oriented goals through planned and sustained entrepreneurial activities. Corporate entrepreneurship research then took a more dramatic turn in the 2010s. In this era, it focused on organisational resources through innovation and corporate venturing. Collectively, the

plethora of thoughts and definitions of corporate entrepreneurship from the 1970s to date have shaped the orientations of 21st-century researchers into broader perspectives (Liu and Xi, 2020).

This study adopts Zahra's (1995) view of corporate entrepreneurship, that is, innovation, strategic renewal, and corporate venturing, because corporate entrepreneurial activities can occur at any level in the firm, and this is strategic for survival. Also, it unifies organisational objectives and improves competitive position and financial performance. According to Zahra (1995), innovation is the firm's commitment to introducing new products, production processes, and organisational methods. Venturing refers to new business creation, while strategic renewal refers to the creation of new wealth through new combinations of resources. Zahra's (1995) view of corporate entrepreneurship is adopted because it stands for a new management ideology that encourages flexibility, strategic agility, and continuous innovativeness to transform organisations. Moreover, these components have been used to measure corporate entrepreneurship in formal organisations with positive organisational outcomes (Hornsby et al., 2009; Kuratko, 2017; Kuratko and Morris, 2018; Liu and Xi, 2020).

This study contends that women entrepreneurs contribute significantly to economic growth through active corporate entrepreneurship participation. As Sajjad et al. (2020) put it: "Without women entrepreneurs, economies could not achieve complete and sustainable success." (p. 156). In this vein, women are shown to effectively coordinate the factors of production in the creation of jobs, reducing poverty and increasing wealth in the family firm (Okafor and Akokuwebe, 2015; Okeke, 2017). Nevertheless, women are often "accorded a secondary role" in family firms (Niaz, 2003, p. 174) and are frequently referred to as the 'other' in the firm (Goettner-Abendroth, 2018, p. 4). Such dismissals or presumptions of women's incompetence are evident in all fields of study, such as anthropology (Goettner-

Abendroth, 2018). This sexist approach has metamorphosised into social and cultural narratives (Aguoru, 2020; Kusi et al., 2022; Nwachukwu et al., 2021), hence male dominance has been entrenched in most cultures, and has afforded men privileges over women, including in entrepreneurship (Ferrari, 2022; Okpara et al., 2011; Woldesenbet Beta, 2022).

Even as women's entrepreneurial challenges and empowerment take a new turn in developed and developing economies (Aguoru, 2020; Kusi et al., 2022; Odoemene, 2003; Ogundana et al., 2021; Sadi and Ghazali, 2012), the gender gap syndrome and patriarchal hegemony persist (Ogundana et al., 2021; Pettersson, 2012). Nonetheless, today's women are championing breakthrough innovations and contributing to the growth and development of organisations and societies (Bourne, 2010; Brush, 2006; 2012; Ekpe et al., 2014; Iiie et al., 2018; Nwachukwu et al., 2021; Ogundana et al., 2021) through entrepreneurial decisions (Ahl, 2006; Campopiano et al., 2017; Kusi et al., 2022; Ogundana et al., 2021) that continually break through gender barriers (Campopiano et al., 2019; Gabarret and D'Andria, 2021; Lapeira and Kundu, 2020; Ogundana et al., 2021). Many studies have investigated what mitigates women's entrepreneurship in developed and developing countries, even though findings indicate that women are resourceful, prudent, and hardworking in the management of organisational resources – for instance, human, financial, and material resources (Dhaliwal, 2022; Ogundana et al., 2021).

Common themes and discourses saturate the academic literature on women's entrepreneurship, including: (a) the factors affecting women's entrepreneurial capabilities; (b) entrepreneurship, women, and gender role-related issues; (c) the characteristics of women's entrepreneurship; (d) the challenges and effects of female entrepreneurs; e) managerial competence and the risk factors of female entrepreneurs (Brush, 1992; Ahl, 2006; Ogbor, 2000; Omuta, 2010). Building on Ahl's (2006) assertion that women's entrepreneurship

needs direction towards theoretical perspectives and development, a surge in interest in research on women's entrepreneurship has taken on a new dimension. According to Hoobler et al. (2011), the theoretical dimension of women's entrepreneurship is lopsided. Overbeke et al. (2013) studied the roles and functions of women in business. Campopiano et al. (2017) showed the influence of women's involvement in entrepreneurship growth. Hechavarria et al. (2021) studied innovative entrepreneurship among female entrepreneurs. Bettinelli et al. (2019), Campopiano et al. (2019), and Samara et al. (2019) studied women's entrepreneurship in the European context, including decision making at the board level within the firm. The narrative is the same in the African (Nigerian) context. Obigbemi (2015) studied policy frameworks from past Nigerian governments, as they have influenced women's entrepreneurship. Akanmu et al. (2018) identified specific entrepreneurial activities carried out by women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. Ogundana (2020) studied women's obstacles in business, such as primogeniture, the glass ceiling, and inequality in sub-Saharan Africa. Ogundana et al. (2021) took a gender-based approach to women's entrepreneurship in developing economies. They found that women are deprived, based on cultural inclinations.

Nevertheless, there is a consensus among entrepreneurship and business management researchers that women entrepreneurs are important (Ademilayi, 2019; Ademokun, 2012), especially within the context of family firms (Ferrari, 2022). Although these scholarly studies offer valuable insights into women's entrepreneurship, other academic findings like Hechavarria et al. (2019) report a lack of theoretical development and perspectives on women's entrepreneurship. The lack of theory is amplified by the paucity of studies exploring the role of women entrepreneurs. This research gap is driven by both the shortage of academic attention and the misunderstanding amongst researchers and practitioners. To contextualise women entrepreneurs, extant studies have demonstrated a link between successful entrepreneurs with parental role models and family history (Krueger, 1993;

Matthews and Moser, 1996; Omuta, 2010). In other words, there is a positive relationship between entrepreneurship and family background (Aldrich and Cliff, 2003). Aldrich and Cliff (2003) argue that "mounting empirical evidence suggests that families play an important role in the venture process and thus deserve greater consideration in the entrepreneurship literature" (p. 577). In this vein, the lack of studies on the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous families poses a research gap. The available evidence indicates that such women are supportive of new venture creation (Koroye and Dada, 2022). However, academic findings on the subject are fragmented and contradictory, which has increased failed attempts to contrast theoretical and empirical findings in this context. There is a gap in the literature, as research and findings in Europe and North America, as well as some parts of Asia, are based on the concept of women's entrepreneurship, corporate entrepreneurship, and traditional family firms only.

In addressing this gap, this study acknowledges that polygamy as a family unit is proscribed and is considered repressive and barbaric in North American and European countries such as the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, as well as some parts of Asia, including China, hence it has not been considered as a unit of study by entrepreneurship and family firm scholars. However, this study is interesting and worth studying because polygamy is an acceptable cultural and religious practice in other parts of the world, including Nigeria. It is critical for wealth creation, which increases social status among family members. Polygamists as entrepreneurs are innovative and creative, which leads to success and satisfaction. In this vein, this study bridges this research gap, and pursues the stated research objectives:

1.3 Research Objectives of the Study

The term 'family firm' is used consciously to connote the generic concept of family ownership and/or management of firms. Families could be monogamous or polygamous. Monogamous families are often referred to as the traditional families. These families are predominately in Europe, America, and some parts of Asia. The traditional families have consistently dominated the academic space as innovative and entrepreneurial. However, in the context of this study, polygamous families are entrepreneurial but lack academic presence. In this vein, the research aim is to contribute knowledge on the role of women entrepreneurs in family firms. Thus, the study objectives include:

- To examine the achievements of women entrepreneurs, and how it contributes to the development of their corporate family firms. The term 'family firm' is used consciously to connote the generic concept.
- 2. To seek to find the reasons for the choice of businesses undertaken by women entrepreneurs, including their motivations for innovation, corporate venturing, and renewal, in the family firm.
- 3. To understand the role of women entrepreneurs within the context of polygamy in corporate family firms. This study brings this perspective to the literature and challenges the long-held assumptions about polygamy and the well-established knowledge in traditional families.

Overall, the study objectives are concise but broad enough to cover all the research questions.

1.4 Research Questions

RQ1: What is the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms?

RQ2: How are women motivated into entrepreneurship in corporate family firms?

RQ3: How does polygamy influence the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms?

1.5 Structure of the PhD Thesis

This research work is divided into eight chapters, as described below:

Chapter 1. Introduction: This chapter outlines and discusses the general aims and research contributions of the thesis. It introduces the study subjects, highlights three research questions, and states the research objectives to actualise the study goals of filling an existing research gap in the literature. The chapter also discusses the research context, family firms, women's entrepreneurship, and corporate entrepreneurship. The chapter closes with a summary of the structure of the study

Chapter 2. Contextualising and Conceptualising Corporate Entrepreneurship and the Family Firm: This chapter introduces corporate entrepreneurship in context, as a unique concept. First, it discusses insights into the conceptual antecedents associated with corporate entrepreneurship. It highlights how corporate entrepreneurial dimensions enhance entrepreneurial opportunities and competitive advantage. Secondly, it introduces the concept of family firms and discusses the influence of corporate entrepreneurship on the family firm. The chapter also highlights the various levels of interaction within the family firm concept. The chapter closes with a comprehensive summary.

Chapter 3. The Factors that Influence the Role of Women in Family Firm Entrepreneurship: This chapter discusses factors that influence women's role in corporate family firm entrepreneurship. It explores three theoretical perspectives: the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism, to investigate gender-based factors that influence women's entrepreneurship. The chapter closes with a comprehensive overview and summary. **Chapter 4.** Research Methodology: This chapter outlines the research methodology and methods adopted in the study. It highlights the appropriateness of the case study design and data collection methods – interviews, observations, and documentation. Finally, the chapter demonstrates the ethical issues, validity, and reliability of the study, and closes with a chapter summary.

Chapter 5. The Context of Nigerian University Family Firms: This chapter introduces the Nigerian context of the family firm. The Nigerian university as an example of a family firm is discussed. Specifically, the chapter introduces polygamy as a unit of the family firm. The dynamics and debates on polygamy are discussed. The chapter closes with a summary.

Chapter 6. Findings from Case Studies: This chapter introduces and interprets the findings of the study, using an in-depth qualitative presentation. From the outcomes, three research themes are discussed. Each one matches the related research objectives and questions. The chapter closes with a comprehensive summary.

Chapter 7. Cross-case Analysis and Discussion: This chapter analyses and examines the research themes, similarities, and differences across cases, and outlines and discusses the research questions. First, the chapter explores three theoretical perspectives: the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism, in the context of the study. Second, it proposes some theoretical contributions and practical implications, and demonstrates the limitations encountered in the study. It shows in detail the study's scope, the willingness and availability of respondents, and the relevance of the context, which forms parts of the future research agenda. The chapter closes with a comprehensive summary.

Chapter 8. Conclusions: The study showcases the role of women in corporate polygamous family firms. It concludes that the role of women entrepreneurs in family firms alleviates

poverty, creates jobs, and increases stakeholders' wealth. The chapter also argues that family firm researchers should be holistic in their study of the family. In this vein, the chapter makes some important recommendations to the Nigerian government, practitioners and founders, and researchers of family firms. The chapter closes with a summary.

1.6 Research Context

The number of women entrepreneurs has significantly grown over the years in Nigeria, but predominantly in the informal sectors (Akpoviroro et al., 2021). While women entrepreneurs are acknowledged for their proactiveness in the Nigerian economy, divergent views of them persist (Ekpe et al., 2014). Interestingly, these views do not hinder the core concept of entrepreneurship, that is, innovation and risk-taking (Morris et al., 2010). As a universal phenomenon, the core concept of entrepreneurial activities is visible in all sectors, even in HEIs (higher education institutions). Universities are characterised as being entrepreneurial, based on their performance (Rabaa'I et al., 2009). This study considers university performance as being measured in terms of the desired outcome, such as innovation or growth. In this vein, Dada et al. (2016) argue that universities have contributed immensely to the growth of society. Adesola et al. (2019) argue that universities encourage the transfer of knowledge, and the acquisition of skills that have growth potentiality. While the transfer of knowledge and skills are the basis for universities, when replicated elsewhere, they have the potential for growth and development. In their findings, Abiodun-Oyebanji and Olaleye (2011) argue that studies on universities are strategically positioned to help solve lingering problems in society. Furthermore, Dada et al. (2016) argue that implementing the business approaches of universities has been a great solution for solving societal problems. Therefore, this study focuses on universities because of their critical influence on nation-building and because they have a long-term impact on society. Furthermore, the dimensions of corporate

entrepreneurship are evident in universities, hence the subject is worth studying (Morris et al., 2010; Wang, 2021).

Research on women entrepreneurs in Nigerian universities mainly relates to public universities in Nigeria, which poses a research gap. However, public universities in Nigeria are largely characterised by incessant academic problems, which include lecturers and federal government face-offs that result in academic and non-academic union strikes (Ajayi and Haastrup, 2006). Other challenges include a demotivated workforce and dilapidated infrastructure, overcrowded lecture halls, corruption, and "the inadequate representation of the female gender" (Omuta, 2010, p. 32). The failure to meet the required academic standard has necessitated the establishment of private universities. Hence, private universities were established to bridge the academic gap. To bridge this research gap, there is a need to situate studies on the role of women entrepreneurs in privately owned and managed universities. In Nigeria, private universities could be classified as faith-based or family-owned. This classification is based on their formation, characteristics, and practices. Faith-based universities are owned and managed by religious institutions, while family-based universities are managed by families. This study is on family-owned universities, and these families are polygamous. Currently, there are no studies on private universities owned and managed by polygamists, this study fills this research gap and contributes to the body of knowledge on family firms, women entrepreneurs, and polygamy.

1.7 Summary of the Chapter

Chapter One has introduced the core areas of study: women entrepreneurs, corporate entrepreneurship, and family firms. It has discussed the objectives of the study and highlighted the primary and secondary objectives. Three research questions have been formulated to investigate the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. Then, the structure of the thesis has been highlighted to show a sign map of the thesis. The chapter has also introduced and discussed the context of the study, Nigeria, and the family firm.

Chapter Two

Contextualising and Conceptualising Corporate Entrepreneurship and the Family Firm

2.1 Introduction

The concept of corporate entrepreneurship is relatively new in the business and management fields, and has a positive influence on the growth and profitability of firms (Kuratko, 2017; Urbano et al., 2022). As a core organisational concept, corporate entrepreneurship is continually subject to academic debate (Amore et al., 2013; Bai et al., 2016; Kuratko, 2017), and is made manifest either internally or externally to exploit resources (Kuratko, 2017; Ireland et al., 2006). As Urbano et al. (2022) put it, corporate entrepreneurship is "widely considered important for facilitating a firm's efforts to exploit current competitive advantages and explore new opportunities and the competencies required to pursue them successfully" (p. 1). Therefore, the impacts and renewal from corporate entrepreneurial activities are acknowledged for their positive corporate objectives, thereby creating sustained competitive advantages through strategic means, and increasing performance (Kuratko and Audretsch, 2013; Kuratko, 2017; Stopford and Baden-Fuller, 1994; Urbano et al., 2022).

Operationally, there is no universally accepted definition of corporate entrepreneurship (Kuratko, 2017). Scholars agree that it describes all entrepreneurial behaviours among organisational members and manifests either as corporate venturing, innovation, strategic entrepreneurship, or renewal (Kuratko, 2017; Urbano et al., 2022; Pinchot, 1985). Like other fields of study, researchers adopt various terminologies to describe entrepreneurial behaviours within existing organisations, including intrapreneurship (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001; Hornsby et al., 2002; Pinchot, 1985), corporate entrepreneurship (Bulgelman, 1983; Guth and Ginsberg, 1990; Vesper, 1984), corporate venturing (Miles and Covin, 2002; Sharma and Chrisman, 2007; Vesper, 1990), and strategic entrepreneurship (Morris et al., 2011). Despite the different nomenclatures, researchers and practitioners agree on the

contributing impact of corporate entrepreneurship on new capabilities in firms (Amore et al., 2013; Eze, 2018; Kanter, 1983; Kuratko, 2017; Urbano et al., 2022). Contextualising corporate entrepreneurship is a significant factor in the technological advancement, individual growth, and survival of organisations (Bai et al., 2016; Bouchard and Fayolle, 2018; Covin et al., 2020; Eze, 2018; Ireland et al., 2009; Segun et al., 2018). As a universal phenomenon, corporate entrepreneurship is an organisational strategy that enhances productivity. As Kuratko and Morris (2018) put it, "one true strategy that unleashes [the] individual innovator is corporate entrepreneurship" (p. 43), and this is evident even in family firms (Ramírez-Solís et al., 2022).

Acknowledged for their deep-rooted family structure, family firms are economic entities that constitute two-thirds of the world's businesses (Bertrand and Schoar, 2006; De Massis et al., 2013; Diaz-Moriana et al., 2018) and play a vital part in job creation and the accumulation of wealth (Engleberg and Wynn, 2003). Family firms have sustained most economies in developed and developing economies, and are predominant as both small and large firms (Fernandez-Araoz et al., 2015; Gilding et al., 2015). They differ from non-family firms due to the overlapping concepts of family and business systems, creating an idiosyncratic set of interactions with stakeholders (Holt et al., 2018). Like other closely related groups, the family consists of bonded relationships with a shared sense of belonging and unity of purpose (Beckhead and Dyer, 1983; Engleberg and Wynn, 2003). This symbiotic relationship encourages selfless behaviours and shared objectives that decrease family feuds and information asymmetry, improve transparency, and enhance individual capabilities (Bergh et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2017).

The influence of family firms is paramount in nurturing entrepreneurial mindsets within the family. Even as entrepreneurial behaviours are inherent and transferable, acceptance of corporate entrepreneurship lies between the family goals and the short- and long-term

objectives of the firms. Though family and firm concepts are intertwined, they are socially constructed and viewed from diverse academic backgrounds, which makes the concept worth studying (Gilding et al., 2015). This diversity of thought on the subject has challenged researchers of family firms to differentiate the concept, despite the definitional dilemma. Handler (1989) states that the diversities of views and the plurality of definitions have challenged the concept's narrative. Littunen and Hyrsky (2000) agree, postulating that waiting for an acceptable definition has persisted for too long, despite substantial efforts. Notwithstanding the definitional problems, family firms are dominant on local and international stages. They contribute significantly to GDP and global industrialisation (Astrachan and Shankar, 2003; Bertrand and Schoar, 2006; Massis et al., 2015). A family business is

[a] business governed and managed to shape and pursue the vision of the business, held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families. (Chua et al., 1999, p. 25).

Family firms contribute about half of the GDP in the USA, constitute over 70 per cent of firms in Europe, and significantly influence the formal and informal sectors of African economies. In Nigeria, for instance, family firms are substantially influential and dominate the informal sectors (Igwe et al., 2020). Other findings show that over two-thirds of all commercial entities globally are controlled and managed by family firms (Family Firm Institute, 2017). These firms generate wealth and create a significant percentage of all jobs (Neckebrouck et al., 2018; Volberda et al., 2001). With an annual GDP of over 80 per cent worldwide, family firms are economic accelerators through generational entrepreneurial transfers (Astrachan and Shankar, 2003; Bertrand and Schoar, 2006; De Massis et al., 2015; Lansberg, 1997; Murphy, 2005; Poutziouris, 2001). They foster breakthrough innovations

and are market leaders in all sectors of the world's economy (Diaz-Moriana et al., 2018; Jaskiecicz et al., 2015; Kotlar et al., 2013). Lansberg (1997) argues that family firms "dominate small- and medium-sized firms" (p. 2). As stated above, despite the definitional dilemma, family firms are lauded for building lasting economic legacies; they also encourage the utilisation of 'non-monetary goals', which aim to breed family harmony, decrease information asymmetry, and sustain generational entrepreneurship (Bertrand and Scholar, 2006, p. 78).

2.2 Topology of Family Firms

Determining the components of a family firm has repeatedly challenged practitioners and researchers in business and management studies. While the debate is ongoing and contextually diverse, some researchers have identified specific underlying attributes differentiating family firms from non-family firms (Desman and Brush, 1991; Erdirencelebi and Ertürk, 2020; Zahra, 2019). Conversely, some schools of thought perceive all firms as the same, irrespective of their classifications and intent. This is based on their argument on the primary purpose of firms, that is, providing stakeholders' satisfaction and exceeding customers' needs and wants at a profit (Doss, 2013; Hammond et al., 2016; Lansberg et al., 1998). Even though a firm's primary purpose is universal, Mandl (2008) and Sharma (2004) argue for conscious efforts to capture the essence of family firms. Researchers and practitioners have continuously explored the underlying ontological and epistemological philosophies (Bammens et al., 2011; Bird et al., 2002; De Massis et al., 2015; Habbershon and Williams, 1999; Sharma, 2004; Welter, 2011). Hence, defining family firms is challenging due to their diverse components, which are occasioned by cultural and social perceptions and contexts (Morikawa, 2013; Steier and Ward, 2006; Welter, 2011). Nevertheless, to appreciate each component and structure, a broader understanding of family and the firm's overlapping constructs is necessary (Danes et al., 2008). In line with the above, Steward (2003) describes the family as a unit of diverse layers that influence performance, including culture, value, tradition, and ethnicity. A family is an aggregate of people that are related either by blood or by marriage, with shared antecedents, experiences, and common historical objectives (Arosa et al., 2010; Carsrud, 2006; Steward, 2003; Villalonga and Amit, 2020). On the other hand, firms are commercial entities aimed at consumer satisfaction and profit (Nonaka and Toyama, 2002). As mentioned above, the overlapping and dependent constructs of family and firm give the family firm a concept (Danes et al., 2008; Harvey and Evans, 1994). Handler (1989) and Klein (2000) claim that providing an acceptable definition of the family firm is a challenge, due to the dichotomy of the concepts of family and firm. According to Klein (2000), defining family firms without specific criteria is elementary. Therefore, this thesis explores the multiplicity of definitions from different theoretical, conceptual, and academic backgrounds to capture the real meaning of family firms (Shankar and Astrachan, 1996; Sharma, 2004; Zellweger et al., 2010).

The thesis makes a clear demarcation between the adopted theoretical definition and the operational definition. While operational definitions allow for day-to-day usage, theoretical definitions identify the fundamentals on which all other definitions are built. Lansberg et al. (1988) took a more inductive approach to their argument. They argue that the flexibility of scholars in defining the concept provides diversity. Lyman (1991) took a more holistic study and suggested an all-inclusive family members' participation. Desmon and Brush (1991) argued for a broader scope to capture the real essence of the definition. Astrachan et al. (2002) proposed the 'F-PEC' (family – power, experience, and culture) concept to understand the characteristics and dynamics of family firms concerning ownership, management, and family members. According to Astrachan et al. (2002), every family operates within the F-PEC factors. The authors argue that *power* inherently retains an unprecedented role in the management and survival of the firm. *Experience* is individualistic, characterised by

socialisation and the readiness of family members to manage the firm, while *culture* is the family traditions, norms, and belief systems that make the firm secretive and competitive. Habbershon and Williams (1999, p. 11) introduce the concept of 'familiness' – a unique bundle of resources that a firm has because of the system's interactions between the family members and the business. Habbershon et al. (2003) argue that understanding the concept entails three integral fronts: "the family, the firm, and the individual family members" (p. 452). The concept of familiness is "one of the central concepts of family business research" (Frank et al., 2010, p. 121). Rau et al. (2018) observe that these factors are idiosyncratic and differentiate family from non-family firms.

From the above discussion, the divergence of thoughts and the complexity of the concept of the family firm are shown to be deep-rooted. Therefore, many researchers are involved in probing 'what', 'why', and 'how' questions about the operational definition of family firms. Even as these questions are still persistent within the literature, this thesis sheds light on a plethora of extant definitions from past decades (see Table 2.1), which have shaped current studies (Astrachan et al., 2002; Bammens et al., 2011; Bird et al., 2002; De Massis et al., 2015; Habbershon and Williams, 1999; Shankar and Astrachan, 1996; Zellweger et al., 2010). For instance, Dyer (1986) highlights ownership and kinship ties. Welsch (1993) defines family firms "in terms of ownership concentration" (p. 40). Carsrud (1994) represents a family firm as an "emotional kinship group" (p. 40) that dominates the firm's ownership and policymaking. Ward (1997) narrows down the definition of the family firm to succession. According to Westhead and Cowling (1998), the diverse level of family structures influences productivity. Chua et al. (1999) propose an elaborate definition - that "a family firm is governed and managed by a dominant group of blood-related people with an intention toward set goals and objectives that have potential across generations" (p. 25). Other definitions of family firms are listed below in chronological order (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Chronological Definitions of Family Firms
--

Authors	Definitions	Year
Davis and Tagiuri	Any business in which two or more family members directly influence business leadership and operating decisions.	1985
Handler	An organisation whose family members serve in management or on the board and influence leadership and succession plans.	1989
Ward	A business in which two or more family members are influencing the business outcome.	1990
Lyman	Any business wherein ownership resides entirely within the controlling family.	1991
Welsch	A business in which ownership and management are concentrated within a family.	1993
Goldberg	When two or more family members bearing the same family name (surname) are in the firm's top echelon.	1996
Gersick et al.	Family firms comprise three subsystems: family, business, and ownership.	1997
Chua et al.	Family firms are governed and managed by a dominant group of blood-related people who set goals and objectives capable of generational transfers.	1999
Lee and Tan	Any firm in which over 50 per cent of equity in ownership resides with a close family.	2001
King and Santor	Any firm of which a family or families own up to 20 per cent of the voting rights.	2008
Miller et al.	Any firm in which more than one family member is managing.	2008
Chu	Any firm that controls more than five per cent shared equity with a family member in the leadership position.	2009
Arosa et al.	When family bloodline and kinship relationships are evident, with shared equity of over 20 per cent.	2010
Sacristan-Navarro et al.	Any firm in which the family's voting rights are more than 10 per cent and a family controls the day-to-day operations.	2011

2.3 Definitions of Corporate Entrepreneurship

Corporate entrepreneurship research is on the rise, despite issues in defining it (Kutatko and Morris, 2018). However, there has been far less research into family firms, resulting in a gap in the literature (Kutatko and Morris, 2018). In addressing this gap, much of the growth in corporate entrepreneurship research concerns non-family firms. Building on what we already know about the definition of corporate entrepreneurship, this study has selected a plethora of definitions. The study assumes that various family dimensions (family, conflict, ownership, and succession) would create different levels of corporate entrepreneurship. Broadly,

corporate entrepreneurship is a strategic tool for renewal in established or small firms (Kuratko, 2009; Kuratko and Audretsch, 2013; Kutatko and Morris, 2018). Ireland et al. (2009) argue that it strategically positions growth-oriented firms to withstand radical changes. However, the relative newness of the concept of organisational rebirth and sustained competitive advantage is evident in the performance and profitability, specifically, in the context of family firms (Kellermanns and Eddleston, 2006). Sathe (1989) defines corporate entrepreneurship as a process where organisations get renewed in terms of products or procedures. Zahra (1991) defines it as an action towards new venture creation to improve competitiveness. Sharma and Chrisman (1999) define it as "a process whereby an individual (or a group of individuals), in association with an existing organisation, creates a new organisation or instigates renewal or innovation" (p. 18). Morris and Kuratko (2002) describe it as entrepreneurial behaviour within established organisations. Kuratko and Audretsch (2013) define it as any types of activities that are inventive and can lead to new products, or that can modify existing products or processes within existing large or small organisations. Kuratko (2017) focuses on how established firms rejuvenate, revitalise, and re-position towards profitability.

Kuratko and Morris (2018) argue that corporate entrepreneurship is any deliberate entrepreneurial efforts or behaviour within established organisations towards innovation. Although the definitional debates on corporate entrepreneurship persist, its dimensions are well-established in the Schumpeterian sense to contextualise corporate entrepreneurship in family firms (Amore et al., 2013; Floyd and Wooldridge, 1999; Kellermanns and Eddleston, 2006). For Schumpeter, entrepreneurship is a battle that is won through innovation in the venture. That is, "innovation is the realization of a business idea, and the Schumpeterian entrepreneur is its make" (Vaz-Curado and Mueller, 2019, p. 9). The Schumpeterian entrepreneur is an active economic participant who breaks existing economic barriers through

innovation and development to signify fundamental changes in the economy (Vaz-Curado and Mueller, 2019).

2.4 Contextualising Corporate Entrepreneurship in Family Firms

Corporate entrepreneurship has generated considerable academic debate in recent decades because it enhances economic wealth creation (Kuratko, 2017; Kuratko and Morris, 2018). Studies show that it enables additional streams of income, increases interpersonal trust among employees, and improves profitability (Kuratko, 2017; Segun et al., 2018; Urbano et al., 2022; Zahra, 1996, 2012). Such organisational growth is important when corporate entrepreneurial activities are entrenched in all strata in a firm. To contextualise corporate entrepreneurship, this study reviews current debates and existing literature on corporate entrepreneurship in family firms. According to Kuratko (2017), corporate entrepreneurship in family firms has evolved and has only recently attracted scholarly attention. On the other hand, several family firm studies indicate that corporate entrepreneurial culture and tradition influence the formative stage of the firm (Chua et al., 2004; Kuratko, 2017). At the growth stage, the demand for innovative ideas and products increases, and more family members are likely to participate, with diverse goals and priorities (Kotlar and De Massis, 2013). Such goals (for instance, economic goals) might strategically point the family firm towards greater economic prosperity and stakeholders' wealth (Mazzelli et al., 2018), hence the need for family firms to be proactive, competitive, and aggressive in the marketplace (Stewart and Hitt, 2012).

As Kellermanns and Eddleston (2006) put it: "Corporate entrepreneurship is seen as an important element in the survival of family firms, because it helps create jobs and wealth for family members" (p. 11). It builds interpersonal trust, as well as individual and family firm competencies (Samei and Feyzbakhsh, 2015). It also encourages entrepreneurial family firms

to perform better (Segun et al., 2018; Steyaert, 2007; Urbano et al., 2022). As in all organisations, corporate entrepreneurial activities in family firms are salient; they include product and process innovation, diversification to accommodate additional streams of income, new market penetration, and the modification of the channels of distribution, among other things (Zahra et al., 2000). These innovative tendencies encourage the transgenerational survival of family firms (LeCounte, 2020; Peruffo, 2017; Randolph and Daspit, 2017, Rogoff and Heck, 2003; Upton et al., 2001). From extant literature, the concept of corporate entrepreneurial behaviour has evolved to adapt to modern technologies, which most often contradict the founders' values and norms and create family conflicts (Chrisman and Patel, 2012). This might suggest why generational family firms are indifferent towards innovation (Chrisman and Patel, 2012; Upton et al., 2001), reluctant to diversify (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2010; Ward, 1987), and risk-averse (De Massis et al., 2013; Morris, 1998). These practices are significant in the concept and acceptance of corporate entrepreneurship.

2.5 Conceptualising Corporate Entrepreneurship in Family Firms

Corporate entrepreneurship is conceptualised as "an environment where the entrepreneurial mindset of an individual is sought after, supported, and nurtured for the purpose to carry out activities" (Kuratko et al., 2011). From existing literature, researchers agree that corporate entrepreneurship takes many shapes and forms, and encourages the long-term survival of family firms (Corral de Zubielqui et al., 2019; Glaser et al., 2015). Although relatively new in the literature, research has already shown that corporate entrepreneurship rejuvenates family firms (De Massis et al., 2013; Kuratko, 2017), stimulates growth potential (Amo and Kolvereid, 2018; Kuratko, 2017; Samei and Feyzbakhsh, 2015; Sathe, 1989), and increases profitability through innovation (Brizek, 2017). "Overall, the major thrust behind corporate entrepreneurship is a revitalisation of innovation by embracing individuals' ability to act entrepreneurially in family firms" (Kuratko et al., 2011, p. 2). Family firms that are

aggressive and innovative are strategically positioned to create organisational change in the environment (De Massis et al., 2013).

According to Kuratko et al. (2021): "Many of the elements essential to constructing a theoretically grounded understanding of the forms of corporate entrepreneurship can now be identified" (p. 6). For instance, Guth and Ginsberg (1990) hold that innovation and strategic renewal are essential corporate entrepreneurship dimensions. For Covin and Slevin (1991), entrepreneurial orientation is a major category of corporate entrepreneurship. Zahra (1995) studied three dimensions of corporate entrepreneurship: 'innovation, corporate venturing, and strategic renewal' (p. 226). Lumpkin and Dess (1996) proposed five dimensions of corporate innovativeness, proactiveness, risk-taking, entrepreneurship, including competitive aggressiveness, and autonomy. Covin et al. (1999) studied four corporate entrepreneurial dimensions: sustained regeneration, organisational rejuvenation, strategic renewal, and domain redirection. The works of Kuratko and Audretsch (2013) attempted to provide what comprises the concept of corporate entrepreneurship. They discussed it being manifest either through corporate venturing or strategic entrepreneurship. Setiawan and Erdogan (2020) built on Lumpkin and Dess's (1996) dimensions to ascertain the proactiveness, effectiveness, and influence of corporate entrepreneurship on organisations. This study builds on Zahra's (1995) three dimensions of corporate entrepreneurship: "innovation, corporate venturing, and strategic renewal" (p. 226). Since organisational survival is at the heart of entrepreneurship (Stevenson and Gumpert, 1985), this study considers innovation, corporate venturing, and strategic renewal as catalysts to sustainability and entrepreneurial growth (Rondi et al., 2020; Stevenson and Gumpert, 1985; Zahra, 1996; 2020).

Innovations: Extant literature (De Massis et al., 2013; Duran et al., 2016) conceptualises the importance of innovation in a family firm. To understand the concept of innovation, this study builds on previous knowledge but adopts a broader perspective to understand

innovation in family firms. According to Calabrò et al. (2019), innovation is critical to the perpetual existence of family firms, therefore, "a more inclusive concept expands the understanding of innovation in family firms" (p. 321). Innovation is a strategic means through which to introduce new products or processes into the market (Carnes and Ireland, 2013; Gómez-Mejía and Herrero, 2022). Innovation is the use of inherent knowledge and technology to acquire a new product or establish new processes, especially in entrepreneurship (Rondi et al., 2020). According to Drucker (1985): "innovation is the specific tool of entrepreneurs" (p. 17). Schumpeter (1934) includes innovation in profiling the entrepreneur, suggesting that entrepreneurial activities blend production factors that culminate in new product development, re-organisation of the firm, and employment of new production methods. Van de Ven (2017) defines innovation as any act or changes that are progressive towards the development of new ideas, products, or processes in an organisation. Drucker (2002) holds that innovation is the "specific function of entrepreneurship [...]. It is how the entrepreneur either creates new wealth-producing resources or endows existing resources with enhanced potential for creating wealth" (p. 5). Therefore, family firms that innovate stay competitive to create wealth (Kuratko and Morris, 2013). Various management scholars, including Schumpeter (1934) and Kuratko and Morris (2013), have argued that organisations that are reluctant to embrace innovation are likely to become extinct. Indeed, Erdogan et al. (2020) and Cortese (2001) argue that creative and proactive-minded family firms are hallmarks of survivors.

Corporate Venturing: Family firms create new ventures for three specific reasons: (a) to create an overall entrepreneurial culture through continuous innovation; (b) to expand the sources of family firm revenues; and (c) to encourage family members' commitment and competence toward innovation (Miles and Covin, 2002). Corporate venturing describes a family firm's deliberate policy to enter a new market or invest in an existing market (Pasillas

and Lundberg, 2022). Corporate ventures in family firms are either internal or external, but possess the same comparative advantage of adding a new product or process offerings to a new or existing market (Åmo et al., 2018; Kuratko and Audretsch, 2013; Leten and Van Dyck, 2012). Burgelman (1983) and Kuratko et al. (2015) characterise internal corporate venturing as including structural autonomy and innovation, while external corporate venturing includes joint ventures, spin-offs, and venture capital initiatives. As a catalyst for survival, family firms are visible in creating new enterprises within existing independent firms through creative ideas (Birkinshaw and Hill, 2005; Drover et al., 2016; Zahra, 1995; Zameer at al., 2020) that are potent for the renewal, strategic changes, and diversification of resources (Kuratko and Audretsch, 2009; Miles and Covin, 2002; Von Hippel, 1977). To develop much-needed changes and diversification, regeneration and strategic inputs are required in order to innovate (Enkel and Sagmeister, 2020; Kuratko and Audretsch, 2009; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999). Hence, as Baaken et al. (2019) put it: "Corporate venturing is an active approach that encourages established companies to increase their ability to innovate" (p. 8).

Strategic Renewal: This is the combination of resources to create family wealth through innovation and corporate venturing (Rigtering and Behrens, 2021). Strategic renewal explains why some family firms are more active in terms of sustaining competitiveness and new market entry (Kuratko, 2017; Sarma and Chrisman, 1999). Although it is relatively new to the literature, strategic renewal's influence brings radical technological changes to the growth of family firms (Agarwal and Helfat, 2009; Zahra, 1995). Researchers and practitioners are unanimous that strategic renewal regenerates and repositions family firms in assisting them to achieve their mission and vision statements (Nguyen and Peltoniemi, 2019; Sardeshmukh and Corbett, 2011; Wijaya et al., 2020). Hence, Zahra (1999) opines that "strategic renewal is the redefinition of a firm's mission" (p. 321). It regenerates the daily operations of family firms

towards customer satisfaction and government policies (Dees, 1998; Wijaya et al., 2020; Zahra, 1995). Schmitt et al. (2016b) hold that "strategic renewal describes the process that allows organisations to alter their path dependence by transforming their strategic intent and capabilities" (p. 5). In this vein, family firms transform new ideas into competitive advantages to stimulate set goals and objectives. According to Floyd and Lane (2000), strategic renewal epitomises organisational attributes in innovation. Therefore, strategic renewals, innovation, and corporate venturing are critical concepts to re-position family firms to be competitive (Nguyen and Peltoniemi, 2019). An understanding of the competitive advantage that positively influences family firms and corporate entrepreneurship poses entrepreneurial strengths and opportunities (Schmitt et al., 2018). Polygamous Nigerian family firms operate in a collectivist culture, where family members see themselves as belonging to a certain group and consider the needs of the group as supreme (Akinpelu et al., 2019). In this collectivist context of polygamous Nigerian family firms, family members promote trust, unity, and togetherness (see Chapter Five).

2.6 Family Firms and Corporate Entrepreneurship

Family firms are pioneering breakthrough innovations and have transformed the world's economy, despite contradictory findings on entrepreneurship (Jaskiewicz et al., 2015; Lattuch, 2019; Setiawan and Erdogan, 2020; Sciascia et al., 2015, Upton et al., 2001). Building transgenerational family firms contributes to a better understanding of family entrepreneurship (Craig and Dibrell, 2006; Sciascia et al., 2015). At the same time, corporate entrepreneurship (i.e., entrepreneurial behaviour) within existing firms encourages organisational success, increases family members' participation and incomes, reduces family disputes, and boosts organisational performance and long-term survival (Jaskiewicz et al., 2015; Kellermans and Eddleston, 2006; Lumpkins and Dess, 1996; McCann et al., 2001; Salvato, 2004). Therefore, the acceptance of corporate entrepreneurship contributes to a

firm's overall well-being and strategy (Carney, 2005; De Massis et al., 2013; Nordqvist, 2005; Upton et al., 2001). Existing studies show that corporate entrepreneurial activities include proactive decision making, innovation, organisational rejuvenation, and domain redefinition (Bakytgul et al., 2019; Covin and Selvin, 1991). Nevertheless, family firms' unwillingness to innovate, or their disagreement with innovative ideas and opportunities, occasioned by risk factors, cost of innovation, and cultural perceptions, hinder growth and performance (Ogundele et al., 2012), and affect the survival rate of family firms. According to Beckhead and Dyer (1983), "only about 30% of family businesses survive into the second generation, and even less than 10–15% make it to the third generation" (p. 5). These findings on the survival ratio of family firms dominate the literature, even though contradictory views exist. Venter et al. (2005) compared survival rates of family firms and small firms in South Africa. They found out that the willingness of the successor to take over the business, and the relationship between the owner and successor(s), are determining factors. Stamm and Lubinski (2011) argue that this "appears as a universal law true for any country, any firm size, any branch, and at any time" (p. 118). They argue for a "re-conceptualisation of survival rates within a larger firm demographic research framework" (p. 117). This study accepts Stamm and Lubinski's (2011) argument to challenge the universally accepted survival ratio for family firms. Put differently, the socio-economic climate and survival ratio of traditional family firms might not be a suitable comparison for other family types and contexts - for instance, polygamous family firms. Although the context may differ, to comprehend the survival rate of family firms, this study adopts the well-known assertion that family firms rise and decline after three generations (Beckhead and Dyer, 1983). The reason for the adoption is because the survival ratio applies to European countries (Bjuggren and Sund, 2001) and/or the USA, and is generalisable (Lee et al., 2003). As Stamm and Lubinski (2011) put it: "In most articles, the survival rate is used as ornamental art in the introductory passages, trying to emphasise the importance of the critical succession process." (p. 118). Dannels (2002) studied how the ratio of survival of family firms influences innovation and the world economy.

Given the premium put on the survival ratio of family firms, researchers have witnessed an influx of studies on family firms (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2001; Levinson, 1987; Nordqvist, 2005; Sharma et al., 2012). Arguably, the transgenerational presence of family firms shows how proactive they are towards innovation (Phan et al., 2009). Family firms encourage competition, while disruptive innovations are instigated. The continued innovative and sustained behaviours of family firms beyond their founders are dependent on the individual families, firms, and societies (Jocic et al., 2021; Nagy et al., 2016; Zahra et al., 2004). Hence, the acceptance of the domains of corporate entrepreneurship within the confines of family firms proves to be the engine-room to promote economies of scale through internal and comparative innovations (Blundell et al., 1999; Carrasco-Hernandez and Jimenez-Jimenez, 2012; Lumpkins and Dess, 1996; Nordqvist, 2005; Rogoff and Heck, 2003; Salvato, 2004; Upton et al., 2001).

2.7 Family Firm Constructs

Entrepreneurship and business and management researchers seem to agree on differentiating between family and non-family firms (Arteaga and Escribá-Esteve, 2020; Chrisman et al., 2005; Craig and Moores, 2005; Daily and Dollinger, 1991; Llach and Nordqvist, 2010). The features of family and firm are interactable and inseparable (Arteaga and Escribá-Esteve, 2020; Barontini and Bozzi, 2018). Chau et al. (2012) and Frank et al. (2010) consider these interactions the foundation and essence of family firms. Habbershon et al.'s (2003) study explains the firm's overlapping interactions with the family and with individuals. In their studies, Chau et al. (2012) and Tagiuri and Davis (1986) discuss how various subsystems

could influence a firm's performance. Gersick et al.'s (1999) exploratory study explains how the firm, family, and individual subsystems are relevant for sustained competitive advantages. Although the individual levels of analysis may differ, the overall idea is interrelated.

2.7.1 The Firm Level

Various studies have examined theoretical and practical antecedents at the firm level. Since every firm operates in an environment with threats and opportunities, the family and firm's inherent resources capture the real identity of family firms. Building on existing business opportunities, the founder's entrepreneurial ideologies sustain the family firm's performance (Aronoff and Ward, 2016; Miller et al., 2003). Business opportunities, growth, and wealth maximisation are the fundamental essence of any firm. These bundles of potential and unique attributes are catalysts at the firm level. Put differently, attributes and values differ when harnessed at the firm level (Miller et al., 2003). Chau et al. (2012) identified three broad perspectives at the firm level: (a) the firm's strategies; (b) the firm's resources; and (c) various organisational features. De Massis et al. (2015) argue that family interest and survival instincts influence innovation and organisational renewal at the firm level. Hence, a symbiotic relationship exists between these factors of wealth creation.

Chau et al. (2012) use basic pointers like firms' goals and objectives, governance structures, and available resources to analyse these critical determinants of entrepreneurship success. Craig and Moores (2006) claim that innovation is subjective and individually based at this level, while Chau et al. (2012) argue that innovation is encouraged when the firm's objectives and intentions are transgenerational and decentralised. Sieger et al. (2011) and Madanoglu et al. (2016) argue that decentralising entrepreneurial activities is crucial at the firm level for sustained growth and competitive edge. Furthermore, family firms are competitive when investment in research and development takes the form of corporate entrepreneurship at the

firm level (Block et al., 2013; Kuratko, 2010; Sciascia et al., 2013). These influences sustain competitive advantages and increase research and development (De Massis et al., 2015; Sciascia et al., 2013). Simon and Hitt (2003) argue that continuous evaluation and investment in research enhance productivity at the firm level, although such investments may be less likely to succeed in the presence of specific family variables such as family hegemony and policy rigidity (Chrisman and Patel, 2012; Kellermanns and Eddleston, 2004).

2.7.2 The Family Level

The concentration of research at the family level is on the family, ownership, and business (Purkayastha et al., 2019; Sciascia and Mazzola, 2008; Tagiuri and Davis, 1996). Entrepreneurial activities that occur within the family constitute a family entrepreneurial culture (Dyck and Neubert, 2009; Rogoff and Heck, 2003). Zellweger et al. (2012) termed it as entrepreneurial orientation and defined it as "the attitudes and mindsets of families to engage in entrepreneurial activity" (p. 143). At the family level, ownership and business roles in entrepreneurship are proactive and strategic, constituting a "strategic resource for entrepreneurial success" (Bettinelli et al., 2017, p. 513). Kellermanns and Eddleston (2006) and Tagiuri and Davis (1996) argue that the interrelationship between the family, ownership, and management encourages positive corporate entrepreneurial behaviour. Corporate entrepreneurial behaviour, family harmony, and family socialisation are critical components at the family level. Family socialisation motivates individual entrepreneurial behaviours, enhances succession, reduces conflict, and accepts existing organisational revival practices (Dedunu and Anuradha, 2020; Shi and Dana, 2013). Nevertheless, some individual family members might be rebellious or conservative, hindering family entrepreneurial processes (Dumas et al., 1995; Shi and Dana, 2013).

2.7.3 The Individual Level

Campopiano et al. (2017) argue that studies at the individual level of analysis in the family firm panoply concentrate on four entrepreneurial drivers: founders-owners, women's involvement, outside employees, and family members. They posit that these entrepreneurial drivers are crucial to the survival of the firm. Block et al. (2013) argue that the demographic composition of family members, such as age, education, income, and employment history, plays a part in determining individual capabilities. At the individual level, Eddleston et al. (2012) found that the founder's age enables entrepreneurial success in most family firms, while Aronoff (1998) and Rowe and Hong (2000) state that education and previous work experience motivate the individual work pattern and reduce prevalent mistakes. Conversely, Bauweraert and Colot (2017) opine that age is not a significant determinant of entrepreneurial outcomes. Instead, they argue that entrepreneurial success is based on individual experiences, creativity, and determination.

2.8 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter contextualises and conceptualises extant literature and researchers' views of corporate entrepreneurship and family firms. Specifically, the chapter has focused on the diverse definitions of family firms and conceptualised the various levels of social interactions: the firm, family, and individual levels. These overlapping influences of family, ownership, and management constitute the differentiating factors between family and non-family firms. The chapter adopts Zahra's (1995) three dimensions of corporate entrepreneurship: innovation, corporate venturing, and strategic renewal. Diverse definitional components of corporate entrepreneurship have been discussed. Basic terminology used by researchers to describe entrepreneurial behaviours within existing family firms has also been discussed.

Chapter Three

The Influencing Role of Women in Family Firm Entrepreneurship

3.1 Introduction

The traditional role of women in societies includes, but is not limited to, childbirth, childraising, caregiving, and support within the family and society (Nduka and Ozioma, 2019; Ogundana et al., 2021; Sueda, 2022). Diverse cultural practices have perceived these roles as customary and obligatory; hence, women are suppressed in the broader context (Ademokun and Ajayi, 2012; Berge et al., 2014; Eddleston and Powell, 2008; Kelley et al., 2013; Orhan and Scott, 2001; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019). Although the traditional roles of women still exist, the narrative is changing, as women are taking on new influencing roles in entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2006; Bettinelli et al., 2019; Blossfeld and Kiernan, 2019; Brush, 2009; Mozumdar et al., 2022; Ogundana et al., 2021). In this vein, extant literature has continually called for more attention on the role of women's entrepreneurship, especially in regard to how they influence family firms (Cromie, 1987; Elenurm and Vaino, 2011; Gherardi and Perrotta, 2016; Rani and Narang, 2022). Women entrepreneurs are defined as "the women or group of women, who initiate, organize and operate a business enterprise" (Pandian and Jesurajan, 2011, p. 918). Women entrepreneurs are pivotal in the economic progress of most countries (Isiwu and Onwuka, 2017; Pandian and Jesurajan, 2011) and in the creation of innovative ideas that have influenced the successes recorded in most organisations (Mozumdar et al., 2022). According to Isiwu and Onwuka (2017): "Women's participation in entrepreneurial activities has positive impacts on family, the national, and the global economy" (p. 181).

Studies have shown that women entrepreneurs are influenced by internal and external factors. Hossain et al. (2009) identified four personal factors that influence women entrepreneurs – "(1) motivation and commitment; (2) abilities and skills; (3) ideas and markets; and (4) resources; – and four external factors that influence women entrepreneurs – (1) business development organizations; (2) the broader enabling environment; (3) the economic/market environment; and (4) the socio-cultural context" (p. 207). These factors influence the overall role of women entrepreneurs and could be termed the "pull-push factors" (Kirkwood, 2009, p. 348). According to Hisrich and Brush (1985), women venture into entrepreneurship due to frustration with the family or workplace. Stroke et al. (1995) found that unfriendly attitudes towards women in large organisations are some of the reasons why a percentage of women become entrepreneurs. However, Still and Temms (2000) state that women are in entrepreneurship to "make a difference" (p. 3); such motivations are vital in family firms.

Nevertheless, continuous gender discrimination has influenced the role of women entrepreneurs in business and management (Hechavarria et al., 2019; Ogundana et al., 2021; Rani and Narang, 2022). Hence, there is a need to synergise studies on women entrepreneurs in order to create a new direction (Ahl, 2006; Jennings and Brush, 2013; Kelley et al., 2017), as "there is still a long way to go in terms of building a strong theoretical base for research on women's entrepreneurial behaviours" (Yadav and Unni, 2016, p. 1), while there is also a perceived gender gap in research into entrepreneurial behaviours (Ahl, 2002; Brush, 2006; Guzman and Kacperczyk, 2019; Hebert and Link, 1983; Mozumdar et al., 2022; Schumpeter, 1934). The probable reason for the lack of a cohesive theoretical framework is that women have not been considered visible or a distinct gender to be studied in the past (Grote, 2003; Jennings and Brush, 2013). This narrow commentary calls for a holistic investigation into the broader theoretical and empirical underpinnings of women's entrepreneurship and, where relevant, towards the enhancing of family firm entrepreneurship (Rani and Narang, 2022; Yadav and Unni, 2016). This study highlights that a much broader theoretical model to encompass the role of women entrepreneurs is long overdue (see Figure 3.1). The theoretical

model in Figure 3.1 demonstrates the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms. The illustrative model, developed for this research, shows some multi-dimensional factors of women entrepreneurs, including co-wives' rivalry, socio-cultural factors, family culture, and women's sense of identity.

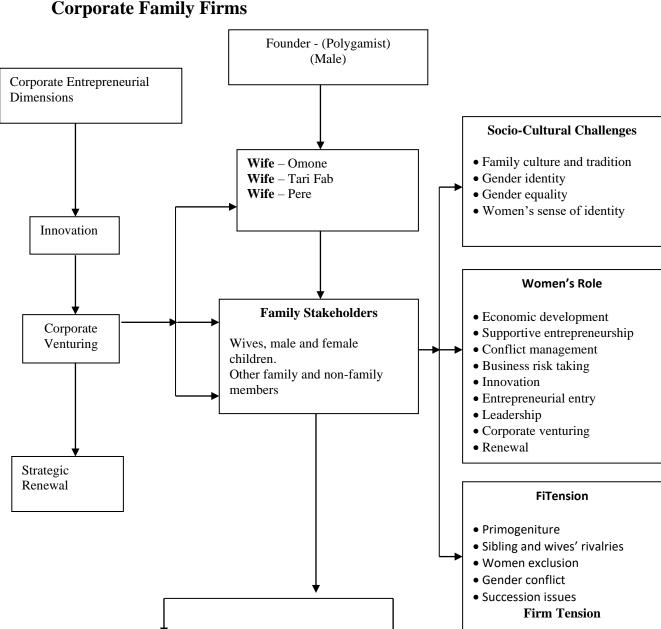
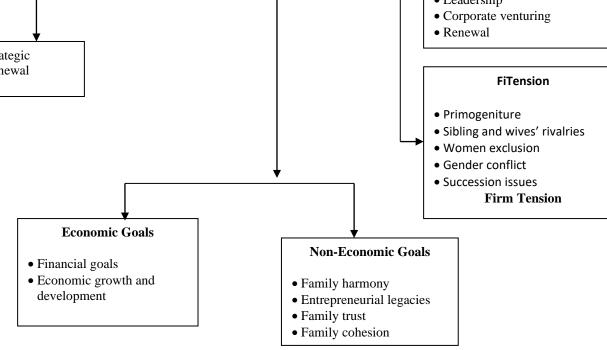


Figure 3.1. Theoretical Model of the Role of Women Entrepreneurs in **Corporate Family Firms**



According to Stengel (2015), in developing a theoretical model, the role of women entrepreneurs should be understood in context. Therefore, in the theoretical model above the founder of the business, who is a male member of the family, is married to multiple women. This polygamous family type is typical in many African cultures like Nigeria, where a man with a considerable amount of influence and income can decide to marry more than one wife (Koroye and Dada, 2022). This practice is considered acceptable, and is appreciated within local traditional, cultural, and religious practices. Upon the establishment of the family firm, the founder and wives are classified as owners, while the children, other family members, and non-family members are classified as managers/stakeholders. The perspective of the model is twofold. One part showcases how corporate entrepreneurial dimensions influence family stakeholders, while the other dimension highlights how socio-cultural factors, women's roles, and firm tension arise from the stakeholders. Irrespective of the challenges, Nigerian women entrepreneurs have distinguished themselves, through hard work, innovation, venturing, highlevel strategic renewal, and competencies, by achieving economic and non-economic goals (Ahl, 2002; Akanbi, 2013; Isiwu and Onwuka, 2017; Koroye and Dada, 2022). Thus, Figure 3.1 above demonstrates a new direction for women entrepreneurs in polygamous families.

In conclusion, the influential role of women in family firm entrepreneurship supports women as collaborators and innovators (Berge et al., 2014; Dorfman et al., 2004). Extant findings suggest that women are happy with a higher level of responsibilities (Sarfaraz et al., 2014). Therefore, the recent upsurge in entrepreneurial participation has stimulated the diverse domains of women's entrepreneurship. For these reasons, this study bridges the gender gap and contributes to the literature on the role of women entrepreneurs in a new domain and context – the family firm.

3.2 Gender Gap in Entrepreneurship in Family Firms

Previous scholars have contributed to the narrative that masculinity is exclusively synonymous with entrepreneurship (Hebert and Link, 1983; Schumpeter, 1934). This social perception dominated early definitions of entrepreneurship. For instance, Schumpeter (1934) refers to entrepreneurs as special people, and 'captains' of industry. This comparison has insisted that entrepreneurs portray specific traits of leadership and foresight as owners of businesses. The metaphoric representation of the entrepreneur whose job requires doggedness, creativity, and vision to identify and satisfy the market at a profit, emphasise male descriptors (Glover, 2014; Hebert and Link, 1983; Liebenstein, 1968). Even today, entrepreneurship is considered male-gendered by many, and this narrative sustains gender inequality (Glover, 2014; Guzman and Kacperczyk, 2019). In the context of this study, gender refers to specific attributes, characteristics, behaviours, assigned roles, and opportunities that a society or culture considers appropriate for males and females (Adeosun and Owolabi, 2021). There are differences in the binary categories of biological sex (World Health Organization, 2020).

Gender inequality is socially rooted and transgenerational, thereby resulting in the gender pay gap and creating the gender pay gap concepts: the missing and invincible woman, women's involvement in business, women's enlightenment, women's emancipation, and empowerment (Adeosun and Owolabi, 2021; Anderson and Ray, 2012; Campopiano et al., 2017; Phillips, 2006; Sen, 1992; Schumpeter, 1934). Despite the prevalence of the gender gap, extant findings have affirmed that women's entrepreneurial activities positively influence GDP through employment generation and wealth creation in all economies (Adeosun and Owolabi, 2021; DeRosa et al., 2019; Ghouse et al., 2017; Hosseini and McElwee, 2011; Lourenço et al., 2014; Matthew, 2010; Muhammed et al., 2017). However, these do not translate into equal pay with their male counterparts in family firms (Adeosun and Owolabi, 2021;

Goldberg, 1996). The gender pay gap accounts for the differences and similarities in average earnings between genders. For instance, Adeosun and Owolabi (2021) "confirm that the presence of inequality in earnings prevails in Nigerian family firms" (p. 177). While the gender gap is unacceptable, the latest review of the Nigerian economy by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) revealed that closing it is key to achieving higher economic growth, enhancing productivity, and greater economic stability (Adegbite and Machethe, 2020; Archibong, 2018; Odometer, 2003).

3.3 Women's Involvement in Entrepreneurship in Family Firms

Given calls from founders of family firms, management scholars, and policymakers to address the existing gender gap in family firms, women's involvement in entrepreneurial activities is fundamental to bridging the gender gap for growth and development (Ahl, 2006; Campopiano et al., 2017; Kuratko, 2010; Kuratko and Morris, 2018). The concept of women's involvement in family firms entails the continuous pursuit, engagement, and awareness of women towards entrepreneurial activities (Duflo, 2012; Kelley et al., 2017). Women's involvement in entrepreneurship redefines their traditional roles (Campopiano et al., 2017; Kuratko, 2010; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019). It reveals women's hidden potential in leadership and business risk-taking. Moreover, since entrepreneurship is increasingly encouraged in today's world, the concept of women's involvement exemplifies women as strategic and valuable resources in wealth creation (Campopiano et al., 2017; Kuratko, 2010). In advanced economies, women are in the higher echelons of family firms, as managers and co-founders (Alkhaled and Berglund, 2018; Bardasi et al., 2007; Bettinelli et al., 2019; Bock et al., 2017; Kelley et al., 2013; 2017; Samara et al., 2019). This is the same in developing economies. For instance, "women entrepreneurs in Nigeria are major contributors to economic growth" (Iyiola and Azuh, 2014, p. 2), providing over 75% of food for family consumption (Aladejebi, 2020) in all sectors of Nigeria's economy (Halkias, 2011;

Muhammed et al., 2017). Nevertheless, the prevalence of glass ceilings, primogeniture, sibling feuds, and gender conflicts discourage women's involvement in family firms' entrepreneurship. In this vein, the resultant effect to motivate inclusiveness and reduce gender inequality in entrepreneurship is vital (Caprioli, 2005; Muhammed et al., 2017; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019; Oleyere, 2007).

3.4 Women Entrepreneurs: Motivation and Challenges in Family Firms

In traditional Nigerian society, women have been largely maligned for failure to perform their gender roles effectively. Though the prevailing circumstances that create discrimination against women remain unresolved, challenges seem to have emerged within family environments. Such challenges are the influences of primogeniture, poverty, and the cultural belief that women are invisible in the family and firm. These ancient socio-cultural norms of male dominance in entrepreneurship have adversely impeded women's freedom, autonomy, and empowerment (Ahl, 2002; 2016; Dumas, 1989; Iqbal and Gusman, 2015). The narrative has only recently changed to embrace the notion that entrepreneurship is suitable for everyone, irrespective of gender (Nduka and Ozioma, 2019; Ogundana et al., 2021; Vera and Dean, 2005; Woldesenbet Beta et al., 2022). Such cultural and societal perceptions have negatively influenced women entrepreneurs (Ahl, 2012; Alkhaled and Berglund, 2018; Gill and Ganesh, 2007; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019) and have limited women to domestic responsibilities, hindering their effectiveness within the family firm's growth (Familusi, 2012; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019; Ogundana et al., 2022).

However, research reveals that women are motivated to be entrepreneurs for diverse reasons. Akehurst et al. (2012) affirmed that "like men, women create a business for a variety of reasons, which may be of an extrinsic, intrinsic, or transcendental nature" (p. 2491). Intrinsic motivation may entail the desire to be one's own boss, while extrinsic factors allow women to venture into entrepreneurship for the sake of it. The findings reveal that generally, men are motivated by extrinsic factors and women by intrinsic factors (Ryan and Deci, 2020). Nevertheless, researchers are unanimous that the need for self-achievement and independence ranks high in motivational factors for both men and women (Gedajlovic, 2012; Hisrich and Brush, 1986; Rathidevi and Jayaseeli, 2020). Researchers such as Hisrich and Brush (1986), Ahl (2006), Kirkwood (2009), Islam (2012), and Overbeke et al. (2013) all agree that women are motivated into entrepreneurship by push-pull factors (low salary, desire to be rich, unemployment). Put differently, the push factors connote dissatisfaction and unwillingness to work as a paid employee in an organisation, while the pull factors symbolise prestige, self-actualisation, and business opportunities (Hisrich and Brush, 1986; Kirkwood, 2009; Sajuyigbe and Fadeyibi, 2017; Schjoedt and Shaver, 2007).

Bartol and Martin (1998) identified socio-demographic variables as factors that can motivate women entrepreneurs: for instance, educational level, age, past work experience, primogeniture, and the livelihoods of their parents. Boyd and Vozikis (1994) included the concept of self-efficacy as an important variable that motivates women entrepreneurs. Self-efficacy reflects women's confidence in their ability to perform in the face of challenges. For instance, Campopiano et al. (2017) highlighted four drivers of women entrepreneurs: entrepreneurial entry, women's intergenerational succession, professional progress, and their willingness to be heard in a firm. Their findings show that these drivers motivate women entrepreneurs and illustrate their impact on a firm's productivity.

As in other contexts, women entrepreneurs in Nigeria are motivated by push-pull factors. Although most women in Nigeria are relegated to childbearing and house chores and considered unfit for entrepreneurship (Fakeye et al., 2012), the role of Nigerian women entrepreneurs, including market disruptors, is to break the otherwise invincible gender barriers in family firm entrepreneurship (Ogundana et al., 2021; Nduka and Ozioma, 2019).

54

3.5 The Theoretical Framework on the Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms

The theoretical framework for this study critically analyses theories relating to women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. It reviews and re-conceptualises existing literature to understand an academic debate. A theory is the compilation of ideas explaining a specific topic, concept, or logic that leads to empirical and conceptual outcomes (Banabo et al., 2013; Clouser, 2005; Geringer and Hebert, 1991). Scholars have demonstrated an in-depth understanding of specific phenomena and outcomes with theoretical frameworks. As previously mentioned, this study employs three theoretical perspectives to understand the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms: the resource-based view, the theory of altruism, and liberal feminism. The choice of the theoretical perspective of the resource-based view is because it demonstrates the need to inwardly access and exploit strategic resources to achieve growth and stay competitive in a firm. On the other hand, the theory of altruism builds value and social interaction among family and non-family members, which creates synergy and unselfish concern for shared family goals. Liberal feminism's goal is to integrate family members, especially women, into collective family objectives. This study builds on the theoretical foundation to guide the principles, fieldwork, applications of findings, and analysis. An overview of the theoretical frameworks is essential to determine how and why these theories influence the role of women in corporate family firms.

3.5.1 The Resource-Based View in the Family Firm

The resource-based view takes "the firm-specific perspective on why family firms succeed or fail in the marketplace" (Madhani, 2010, p .4). First identified by Wernerfelt (1984), and developed by Barney (1991), amongst others, the resource-based view shows how firms can exploit their resources for sustained competitive advantages through optimising natural, human, and material resources (Barney, 1991; Chirico et al., 2021; Wernerfelt, 1984). The

resource-based view is "sweeping through the field of family businesses" (Rau, 2014, p. 321), as families are internal resources that can lead to sustained competitive advantages (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2001, Habbershon et al., 2003). The core theme of the resource-based view is differentiating strategies by achieving sustained competitive advantages that are idiosyncratic to the firm (Barney, 1991; Chirico et al., 2021; Hughes et al., 2018; Miller, 2019; Woldesenbet Beta et al., 2022). Therefore, one central viewpoint of the resource-based view is to determine whether strategic business resources are valuable, rare, imitable, and sustainable in an organisation (Barney, 1991). Resources are either tangible or intangible (Chirico et al., 2021; Hitt et al., 2001). Tangible resources include "capital, access to capital and location (among others). Intangible resources consist of knowledge, skills, and reputation, among others." (Runyan et al., 2006, p. 458). Tangible resources, like capital, are influenced mainly by patriarchy and gender imbalance (Brush et al., 2002; Hughes et al., 2018; Marlow and Patton, 2005). According to Barney (1991), a firm's intangible assets include tacit knowledge, information, founders' characteristics, internal support, and processes that encourage productivity. A firm's intangible resources (for instance, knowledge) are inherent and strategic to the firm's performance. Nevertheless, the efficient application of tangible and intangible resources encourages women's role in corporate entrepreneurial activities (Halkias et al., 2011).

3.5.2 Theory of Altruism in Family Firms

There are inconclusive findings that humans are instinctively altruistic by nature (Birnik and Billsberry, 2008; Blum, 2009; Post, 2002; Van Vugt et al., 2000) and specifically, that women are willing to contribute at no cost. Defined as an act of helping others without any hope for reward (Ibrahim, 2020; Post, 2002; Van Vugt et al., 2000), according to Smith (1995), altruism is an identifiable phenomenon in women. It is integral in family firms and encourages family bonding and communication (Ibrahim, 2020; Rogoff and Heck, 2003).

Altruism is a source of sustained economic advantages that promotes the social dynamics of humans. Specifically, women's altruism entails inbuilt strength, doing what is right, and being fair to all concerned (Batson, 1990). Justifiably, the choice of altruism creates social value and neutrality among family members, especially women entrepreneurs. Olowookere and Oluwadamilola's (2014) study found that women entrepreneurs are instinctively altruistic and exhibit prosocial behaviours.

Prosocial behaviours are curative measures needed to reposition the firms to stay competitive. Although altruism is a dimension of prosocial behaviour, it is a deliberate action to improve the well-being of others – in this case, family members and outside stakeholders (Carney, 2005; Olowookere and Oluwadamilola, 2014; Smith, 1995). Within the dimensions of altruism, this study adopts psychological altruism to understand the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. The choice of psychological altruism is because it can be replicated elsewhere. When altruism is replicated, it increases the family bond and decreases family conflicts, which might lead to increased family firm productivity. Psychological altruism entails a network of selfless people in the firm. It is motivational and carries no financial or material costs (Bhogal et al., 2017; Carney, 2005; Fehr and Fischbacker, 2003). To ascertain the role of women entrepreneurs, psychological altruism should be encouraged, both in the family and the firm (Heidari Tari, 2020; Herrmann et al., 2019). Family trust, commitment, and increased communication are hallmarks of psychological altruism in family firms (Bhogal et al., 2017; Schulze et al., 2003; Smith, 1995). With improved communication and reduced asymmetry among family members, women especially feel a sense of belonging in the firm (Ibrahim, 2020; Van der Wath and Van Wyk, 2020). However, there is a paucity of studies on the influence of altruism on women entrepreneurs, specifically in polygamous family firms. This study brings this

perspective to the literature, as it has been found that altruism encourages and promotes gender parity in entrepreneurship.

3.5.3 Liberal Feminism in Family Firms

Known for their criticism of sexism, liberal feminists advocate equality for both sexes, and identify how sex and gender are intimately related to socialisation (Enslin, 2003). Primarily, liberal feminism suggests that men are more at an advantage than women in the family, society, and even at work or business (Envew and Mihrete, 2018; Fischer et al., 1993). They acknowledge the biological differences between males and females, but aver that these noticeable physical differences should not translate into men's dominance (Enyew and Mihrete, 2018; Smith and Robinson, 2022). Liberal feminists advocate for the freedom to choose and the rights of women (Carter, 2003). In the context of the family firm, liberal feminists do not advocate for women's superiority over men; instead, they have deliberately pushed the boundaries to narrow the gender gap by encouraging women entrepreneurs (Carter, 2003; Enyew and Mihrete, 2018; Fischer et al., 1993). Liberal feminist theory supports an egalitarian society that upholds the rights of individuals (Enyew and Mihrete, 2018). In a democratic society like Nigeria, social and economic reform can only be possible if women have the same opportunities and status as their male counterparts that enable them to participate in economic developmental issues. In Nigeria, the presence of various feminist movements and the activities of prominent African feminists have no doubt contributed immensely to the development of women's entrepreneurship. Although the role of women entrepreneurs in family and societal development predates modern history in Nigeria, women's struggle for emancipation is diverse and continuous to date. As the debates are ongoing, affirmative actions to strategically position women entrepreneurs are long overdue. In Nigeria, the history of women's liberation can be traced to the colonial era (Onwuteka, 1985). For instance, in 1929, the Aba women protested about social inequality and increased

taxes for their farm produce and small-scale businesses (Onwuteka, 1985). Tagged the 'Aba¹ women's riot' by scholars, it is a historic example of liberal feminism, as they resisted social disadvantages and oppression (Enyioko, 2021). For as the awareness of liberal feminism increased, the concept of women's inclusion, and consciousness about it, were further elaborated in the 1940s by Funmilayo Ransom-Kuti and Madam Margaret Ekpo in Nigeria (Adebowale, 2012). As liberal feminists, their activism was for a better life for Nigerian women (Dibie, 2000).

Their demands were not against men's leadership, even in entrepreneurship; rather, they also wanted Nigerian women to have the chance to become successful entrepreneurs (Madichie, 2011). Like their male siblings, they wanted Nigerian women to have a chance to inherit family possessions, including established businesses (Dibie, 2000). To date, the narrative for equality in gender is still ongoing, especially in families, and has hindered the growth of liberal feminism in Nigeria. As in most gender-related issues, stiff resistance from most men is envisaged (Para-Mallam, 2017). In addition, cultural and religious practices are cited as the basis for gender inequality (Ezeilo, 2006; Para-Mallam, 2017). On the contrary, liberal feminists hold that culture and religion are good for societal growth, but should not be a means for discriminatory and unfair treatment of women (Dibie, 2000; Ezeilo, 2006).

Furthermore, government apathy and socio-cultural perceptions hinder the growth of liberal feminism in Nigeria. For instance, in Nigeria, feminists are seen as rebellious women who want to upset the natural socio-cultural principles of male dominance in the family, business, and society (Ezeilo, 2006). Critics further argue that liberal feminists are opposed to cultural diversity (Hassan, 1999). However, they fail to understand that feminism entails diversity and multiculturalism of thoughts, ideas, and goals (Enslin, 2003; Ezeilo, 2006; Hadary, 2010).

¹For clarification, Aba is an ancient city in the eastern part of Nigeria and is considered among the major commercial centres in Nigeria.

In conclusion, the patriarchal Nigerian culture and male dominance have hindered women's entrepreneurial growth. However, business goals and development should be based on individual intellectual capabilities rather than gender supremacy. Gender parity in family firms creates diversity, inclusion, knowledge transfer, and productivity (Adawo et al., 2011; Dheepa and Barani, 2009; Enslin, 2003; Ezeilo, 2006).

3.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has critically reviewed the role of women in family firm entrepreneurship; in doing so, closing the gender gap in family firms' entrepreneurship to enhance their renewal, growth, and productivity has been discussed. Women's involvement in family firms' entrepreneurship and its redefining of their traditional roles has been discussed. Furthermore, the chapter has reviewed what motivates Nigerian women entrepreneurs and the challenges in family firm entrepreneurship. Finally, three theoretical perspectives: resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism have been reviewed. These theories help to explain the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms.

Chapter Four Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

According to Goddard and Melville (2004), research is about "answering unanswered questions or creating that which does not exist" (p. 1). In this vein, this study pursues knowledge on the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. The study employs case study methodologies and methods (interviews, direct observation, and documentation) to unravel the subject matter (Chetty, 1996; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Mathison, 1988; Yin, 2014, 2015). Remenyi et al. (2003) argue that a research methodology is an "overall approach to a problem which could be put into practice in a research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of data" (p. 67). This approach allows for a better insight into the understanding of the phenomenon (the role of women entrepreneurs). It gives this study a greater understanding, reduces the potential bias, and allows for a diversity of opinion on a contemporary phenomenon. The research methodology for this study is considered pivotal, as it entails data collection processes, theoretical underpinnings, a methodological framework, sampling, data analysis, and an overall background towards responding to the research questions and objectives (Conway, 2014; Denzin and Lincoln, 1991; Fowler, 2012; Olaluwoye et al., 2022). In doing so, this study has included forty-two research participants (seventeen males and twenty-five females) to form the sample size. The criteria for inclusion include demographics, age, gender, marital status, and educational experience. Other criteria include people who have been employees in the universities for over five years, and family and non-family members. The objective is to ascertain the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms.

The study is focused on the role of women entrepreneurs whose family firms own corporate ventures (private universities) and who have accumulated relevant experience. As illustrated

in the Participants' Information (Table 4.2), the study participants – family and non-family members – were drawn from different age groups (25 years to 70 years) and departments (academic and non-academic) in the universities, thus bringing diversity of vantage points and perspectives. For consistency between the research questions, objectives of the study, and theoretical approaches (Churchill and Sanders, 2007; Galletta, 2013), detailed methodological frameworks to guide the steps and underpinnings of this study are discussed (Hesse-Biber, 2010; Olaluwoye et al., 2022).

4.2 Methodological Framework

Researchers are yet to agree on a universal definition of a methodological framework and on the best practices and standards about how to develop one (Rivera et al., 2017; McMeekin et al., 2020). Despite the lack of a formal definition, researchers are unanimous on the benefits of a methodological framework, which include consistency, trustworthiness, and robustness in the research process (Chesson et al., 2016; Squires et al., 2016). "A methodological framework gives an audience a better understanding of previously conducted research and how to proceed in future," according to Gammelgaard (2004, p. 480). It improves the reliability and quality of the research findings, as it provides structured and practical guidance on the research philosophy and process (McMeekin et al., 2020). For this study, the methodological framework is the "principle underlying research approaches, distinct from methods, which are ways of collecting data" (Dew, 2007, p. 433). This study employs the social-constructivist standpoint because of its relevance to the research questions and methods employed.

4.2.1 Social Constructivism

Social constructivism is a theory of knowledge rooted in sociology but widely used in other academic fields, including business and management. It examines the knowledge and understanding of the real world. Its emphasis is on how culture and tradition are omnirelevant. For example, gender is perceived according to the culture and tradition of a society. Social constructivism focuses on the study of how ideas about gender influence social interactions (Cross, 2021). For instance, it assumes how knowledge, understanding, and the significance of gender are developed within a socio-cultural context. The key assumption of this theory is that culture and social interaction justify the social world of human experiences (Leuffen et al., 2022). In this vein, the study employs the social constructivist view to ascertain the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. However, the sociocultural perspectives of gender have continually undergone a social process of construction. Hence, this study supports the assertion that "treating women as the second gender means ignoring and underestimating huge potential human resources" (Sarfaraz et al., 2014, p. 2). Women are an integral part of organisational resources; however, their productivity is further limited to certain entrepreneurial roles that are constructed on biological differences (Sarfaraz et al., 2014). In doing so, women's roles have been maligned and disparaged, and connote negative perceptions: for example, that they are risk-averse and less innovative (Sarfaraz et al., 2014). The gender roles and the societal acceptance or traditional belief that men are superior while women are inferior in business have constantly subordinated and excluded women entrepreneurs in family firms (Markoczy et al., 2020; Sahi, 2022). Extant literature challenges this by positing that women are pivotal in economic development. Women are visible in all sectors of the world's economies and are pioneering innovators (Babalola, 2009; Campopiano et al., 2022; Sarfaraz et al., 2014). As Sarfaraz et al. (2014) put it: "There is consensus among scholars that women can play a key role in the entrepreneurial phenomenon." (p. 1). In conclusion, the social constructivist viewpoint fits the case study methodology within the critical realism paradigm, and is inductive and theory-building research (Yin, 2015).

4.3 The Case Study as a Research Strategy

Saunders et al. (2009) defined research strategy as "the general plan of how the researcher will go about answering the research questions" (p. 600). According to Bryman (2008), a research strategy is "a general orientation to the conduct of research" (p. 698). It is the technique of generating and analysing research content. Therefore, this study has employed the case study research strategy to generate responses to the stated research questions and objectives. The reason for using this strategy is because of its suitability for evidence gathering and decision making in contemporary studies (Amiable et al., 2001; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Yin, 2003, 2014), including family firms (Massis and Kotlar, 2014). "The case studies strategy has been the most used qualitative methodology in family business research to date and is well suited to the extreme or unexplored phenomenon," according to De Massis et al. (2014, p. 15). Understandably, Fletcher et al. (2016) affirm that the case study is an extremely practical methodology with which to advance family firm research. Like other research strategies, the case study has peculiar advantages and disadvantages, depending on three circumstances: (a) the research questions; (b) the researcher and the outcome; and (c) the contemporary study context (Creswell and Poth, 2016; Flecher et al., 2016; Leppaaho et al., 2016; Massaro et al., 2019; Yin, 2003). This study includes constant thinking and planning on the subject matter (the role of women entrepreneurs). Also, for this study, the contemporary context is future-focused on understanding the context and its influence on the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. Massaro et al. (2019) argue that the case study is well suited for the 'why' and 'how' research questions. Therefore, the 'why' and 'how' strategy is used for this study to generate novel perspectives and ideas that can be tested by other qualitative or quantitative methods. Furthermore, it enhances the diverse standpoints of the participants and helps in strengthening and illustrating theories for this study (Hussein, 2009; Massaro et al., 2019; Yin, 2003). This conforms with extant literature: that the case

study 'why' and 'how' strategy is suitable for testing and developing theories (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Freud, 2003; Jaccard and Jacoby, 2010; Yin, 2014).

Traditionally, the case study is divided into three main types – exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory cases (Dubois and Gadde, 2002; Farquhar et al., 2020; Yin, 2003). Exploratory cases are adventurous and unravel the hidden intentions of events to understand 'how' the dynamics of organisations operate in contemporary situations (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003; Yin, 2015). On the other hand, the explanatory case study answers the 'why' research questions. For instance, an explanatory case study tries to understand the specific problems or outcomes by eliciting the original intentions of the respondents (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Massaro et al., 2019; Yin, 2003, 2015). The descriptive case study type investigates events and buttresses the cultural context of crucial phenomena (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Yin, 1984), which narrates real-life scenarios (Dyek et al., 2002). Therefore, the combination of all three types gives this study credibility and enhances theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989; Jaccard and Jacoby, 2010). Furthermore, the choice to combine the three different case study types increases and generates an in-depth, multifaceted understanding of a complex issue, especially in family firms (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014).

In practice, the case study describes, explains, and explores everyday phenomena through detailed contextual and conceptual analysis (Choy, 2014; Yin, 2003, 2015). Depending on the researcher's school of thought, the case study strategy contains diverse methods to enhance the understanding of groups of people, corporate entities, social events, or government and related phenomena, using single or multiple case types (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Eisenhardt, 1989; Gerring, 2004.). While the single case study is a choice to consider for a comprehensive investigation into an event in family firm studies, it has severe limitations, especially related to the external validity of results (Reay et al., 2019; Seggelkow, 2007; Yin,

2015); hence, the multiple case approach is adopted for consistency, theory-building, and testing (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2015, 2018). The multiple case study approach has also enabled this study to eliminate bias, cross-pollinate ideas, and encourage far-reaching findings (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Yin, 2018). Furthermore, this study justifies the use of multiple case studies, as it enhances confidence in the research process by replicating the same event in different contexts. According to Butt (2020), when research findings are replicated with multiple data sources, they become more efficient. Furthermore, for creative and wide-ranging varieties, the multiple case study also encourages unique perspectives on convergent and divergent thoughts in a social group (Crick, 2020; Tellis, 1977; Yin, 2015).

Conclusively, although case studies remain a controversial method among researchers because of their narrow focus on data collection, they contribute to the extant literature on family firms and create more convincing theory building and testing (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007). While the case study strategy is appropriate for family firm study, Yin (2014) agrees that it also explores extreme and dynamic events that validate the generalisation of outcomes. One such outcome that validates the case study is evident in the data collection and sampling methods (Yin, 2015).

4.4 Sampling

A 'sample' is a subset of the population, selected to be representative of the larger population. Since we cannot study the entire population, we need to take a sample (Acharya et al., 2013). According to De Massis (2014), samples are selected because they are "particularly suitable for illuminating a phenomenon and for extending relationships and logic among variables" (p. 17). This study has drawn from qualitative sampling methods to develop a homogeneous purposeful sample criterion (Patton, 2015). Purposeful sample methods are suitable when the researcher is looking for participants who possess certain traits

or qualities (Patton, 2015). Purposeful sampling suggests that researchers have some level of degree of choice in selecting their research sample and that they have a clear purpose that guides their choice (Thomas, 2022). Hence, the study has carefully looked at participants (universities) that have certain traits and characteristics in exploring the case study approach. In this vein, such characteristics include the dimensions of corporate venturing, polygamy, and women entrepreneurs. Furthermore, according to Patton (2015), the purposeful sample method is appropriate when the primary data sources are limited but contribute to novel findings. There are a limited number of universities owned and managed by polygamists in the context of the study, hence its suitability. Finally, as Higginbottom (2004) puts it, "researchers should seek to include people who represent the widest variety of perspectives possible within the range specified by their purpose" (p. 17). The university community is diverse and multicultural, so is therefore appropriate for the study.

The researcher identified six universities (Mololo University, Torupere University, Gita University, Tari University, Ola University, and Guinea-Egbuson University) (the names of the universities are all anonymised). Preliminary investigations revealed that the sampled universities are family-owned, which fits the research objectives (Kellermans et al., 2017). Specific criteria were used to determine what constitutes a family-owned and managed university. These criteria are in conformity with extant literature, thus: (a) more than two family members are employees of the universities; (b) family members are in positions of authority; (c) the university succession policies are family member oriented (Chua et al., 1999; Gomez-Mejia et al., 2007; Handler, 1989; Kellermans et al., 2017). Furthermore, this study has relied on the official web page of the National University Commission (NUC) in Nigeria to ascertain whether the universities are privately owned and managed. The NUC is a government regulatory institution with the responsibility to approve, regulate, and sanction universities in Nigeria. It is mandatory that the NUC approves and accredits all

programmes/courses taught in any university in Nigeria. The NUC can also sanction and withdraw licenses from defaulting universities. Additionally, the researcher still depended on knowledgeable informants within the universities and communities, the social media of some family members, and the personal web pages of the owners/proprietors to ascertain whether the founders were polygamous. It was evident that the founders were polygamous from pictures that originated from social media (name of social media withheld) and reports from web pages. The choice of universities founded by polygamists is rare, which makes them eligible for selection. The researcher explained the study objectives to the potential participants (universities) via emails and phone calls. Repeated emails and phone calls were made to ask for their responses and readiness to participate. Four universities agreed to the invitation to participate (see Table 4.1), and two universities declined. The reasons for their decline were not made known.

Names of Universities	Total Number of Participants	Male	Female	Family Members	Non-family Members
Mololo	11	5	6	8	3
Torupere	9	3	6	5	4
Gita	10	3	7	9	1
Guinea-Egbuson	12	6	6	8	4
Total Number	42	17	25	30	12

Table 4.1. Partici	pant Description
-----------------------	------------------

¹All names of universities are pseudonyms to ensure anonymity.

The justification of the choice of four universities is validation of the findings through similarities and differences from diverse perspectives (De Massis et al., 2012; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Vannon, 2015). Furthermore, Saunders (2012, p. 283) argues that "there are no rules" to determine the number of qualitative participants. From the four participating universities, the study requested fifteen individual participants from each university to

constitute the research population. Creswell (2008; 2013) argues that the number of participants does not limit qualitative researchers. Creswell (2008) suggests that between six to twenty-five participants are adequate for a qualitative study. Adler and Adler (2011) advise researchers to sample between twelve and sixty individual participants. For Guest et al. (2006), qualitative studies should not have more than twelve individual participants within the same research group. Fofana et al. (2020) argue that when additional research participants do not significantly change the research findings, the researcher should stop recruiting more participants. Nevertheless, basic pre-selected criteria helped to shape the selection process of individual participants: (1) All individual participants should be employees of the universities; (2) each participant should have been employed for five years before the commencement of the study; (3) the total number of female participants should be above 60 per cent; (4) participants should be family and non-family members; (5) each participant should be at least 25 years of age but not exceed 70 years of age before the commencement of this study; and (6) the participants should not be restricted to certain departments. The above pre-selected conditions are in line with the research objective, which is to understand the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms. Nevertheless, it was the sole prerogative of the participating universities to elicit the willingness of the individual participants. This strategy allowed the universities to carefully select individual participants (employees) who were willing and ready to participate. A breakdown shows that the seventeen males (aged between 25 to 70) and twenty-five females (aged between 25 and 70) consisted of thirty family members and twelve non-family members (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Participants' Information

Names of Participants (Individuals)	Names of Participant HEIs	Age Range of Participants	Gender	Nature of Job	Duration of Interviews (in minutes)	Family/Non-family Member	Years in Service
Timi Mololo	Mololo	45-50	Male	Deputy Administrator Academic	52	Family member	10-15
Williams Mololo	Mololo	25-35	Male	Secretary	50	Family member	10-15
Akpos Denbofa	Mololo	30-40	Male	Administrative Officer	55	Family member	5-10
Ebipade Agudama	Mololo	40-50	Male	Administrative Officer	60	Family member	5-10
Ekankumo Ogbomah	Mololo	45-55	Male	Lecturer	56	Non-family member	5-10
Duamiebi Tex	Mololo	35-45	Female	Administrative Officer	55	Family member	10-15
Emmanuella Mololo	Mololo	25-35	Female	Domestic Worker	60	Family member	5-10
Odemuzi Number	Mololo	35-45	Female	Accountant	60	Family member	5-10
Edu Amadi	Mololo	50-60	Female	Lecturer	55	Non-family member	10-15
Eyilaere Christian	Mololo	40-50	Female	Lecturer	50	Non-family member	5-10
Augustine Cleaner	Mololo	55-65	Female	Lecturer	50	Non-family member	5-10
Dein Bofa	Torupere	40-50	Male	Chief	45	Family member	10-15
Oyinbra Kanu	Torupere	40-50	Male	Accountant Administrative	50	Family member	5-10
Amula	Torupere	40-50	Male	Officer Legal Adviser	55	Non-family member	5-10
Tamarakele Akpo	Torupere	30-40	Female	Accountant	40	Family member	5-10
Meiyeseigha Chuks	Torupere	40-50	Female	Lecturer	60	Family member	5-10
Ogbondah Ebi Douye	Torupere	45-55	Female	Lecturer	60	Family member	5-10
Joy Owubu	Torupere	40-50	Female	Domestic Worker	55	Non-family member	10-15
Lala King	Torupere	40-50	Female	Administrative Clerk	50	Non-family member	5-10
Agidigi Woulf	Torupere	50-60	Female	Lecturer	60	Non-family member	5-10
Gita Zida	Gita	50-60	Male	Lecturer	60	Family member	10-15
Awo Akenpia	Gita	40-50	Male	Lecturer	60	Family member	5-10
Aye Joel Akenfa	Gita	30-40	Male	Accountant	60	Non-family member	5-10
Egede Korofo	Gita	45-55	Female	Administrative Officer	50	Family member	5-10
Amigo Tokunbo	Gita	30-40	Female	Secretary, Faculty of Arts	50	Family member	5-10
Otoo Patrick Erefagha	Gita Gita	50-60 40-50	Female Female	Security Officer Lecturer	60 40	Family member Family member	5-10 5-10
Timipa Imawaigha	Gita	35-45	Female	Domestic	40	Family member	5-10
Koritugha Mary Mars	Gita	40-50	Female	Worker Lecturer	50	Family member	5-10
Ipori Tueibi	Gita	40-50	Female	Medical Doctor, Sickbay	50	Family member	5-10
Eyinanabo Guniea Egbuson	Guinea- Egbuson	45-55	Male	Chief Accountant	60	Family member	5-10
Akono Temple	Guinea- Egbuson	40-50	Male	Legal adviser	60	Family member	5-10
Ama Pamo	Guinea- Egbuson	30-40	Male	Accountant	50	Family member	5-10
Mirin Blessing	Egbuson Guinea- Egbuson	40-50	Male	Domestic Worker	45	Family member	5-10
Ebifred Ebiyerin	Guinea- Egbuson	45-55	Male	Director of Works	45	Family member	5-10
Ebitimi Ebipere	Guinea-	55-60	Male	Lecturer	45	Family member	5-10

	Egbuson						
Chukugwe Chinasa	Guinea- Egbuson	30-40	Female	Acting Registrar	50	Family member	5-10
Evelyn Suzi	Guinea- Egbuson	40-50	Female	Secretary	50	Family member	5-10
Tenant Tamaramiebi	Guinea- Egbuson	25-35	Female	Public Relations Officer	50	Non-family member	5-10
Bekebi Weks	Guinea- Egbuson	40-50	Female	Nurse	60	Non-family member	5-10
Rubi Beni-ere	Guinea- Egbuson	60-70	Female	Lecturer	60	Non-family member	5-10
Mangiri Paul	Guinea- Egbuson	50-60	Female	Domestic Worker	55	Non-family member	5-10

² All names of individual participants and universities are pseudonyms to ensure anonymity.

Individual participants voluntarily gave their consent to their various universities to participate in this study. The individual participants read the consent form and were given an opportunity to ask questions. Each university appointed a coordinator/liaison officer, at the researcher's request. Their term of reference was basically to oversee the process internally and to communicate with the researcher. This enabled the researcher to communicate with the liaison officers more often. Also, the coordinator/liaison officers served as a conduit through which questions about the research process were asked, and answers were provided before the actual data collection. After reading through the consent form, all individual participants were politely asked to sign a copy of the consent form before data were collected (see Appendix A).

4.5 Data Collection Methods

This study used three data collection methods (interviews, direct observations, and documentation) (Belrhiti et al., 2020; De Massis and Kotlar, 2014). In Cassia et al.'s (2012) study, "multiple sources of data ensured that the research followed established data collection methods and practices that contribute to the long tradition in family business research to advance theory building based on case studies" (p. 209). Therefore, the data collection methods for this study were integrated to answer the stated research questions (Belrhiti et al., 2020; De Massis and Kotlar, 2014). The data collection methods provide consistency, reduce misinterpretation, and are a rich source for evidence gathering (Kotlar and De Massis, 2013). Creswell and Miller (2000) argue that multiple data sources are "a validity procedure where

researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (p. 126). In doing so, convergent and divergent views from the methods help to eliminate unfairness and encourage rich data collection (Benbasat et al., 1987; Creswell and Creswell, 2017; Creswell and Miller, 2000).

According to Yin (2009), data collection processes are designed to accommodate the preferences of the participants. For this reason, the researcher used both Izon² and English languages in the data collection (interview) process. The Izon language is the native dialect of most participants, while English is the official language of Nigeria. Using the Izon language in the data collection process sought to uncover hidden cultural practices and norms. As a native Izon speaker, the researcher and participants were comfortable with its use. Some participants were more comfortable and preferred to discuss cultural issues in dialect; hence, the data collection processes were designed to accommodate their preferences (Siu and Bao, 2008; Yin, 2003). This allowed such participants to "express their ideas most freely" (Siu and Bao, 2008, p. 86).

This procedure created confidence within the participating institutions and boosted confidentiality (Patton, 2002). The combination of observations and interviews provided a powerful means of validating the interview data process. While the interviews in this study have been used to check inferences arising from observations, observation has been used to check the information given in interviews (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Thissen et al., 2008). Hence, with the interviews, a substantial amount of very rich data supports the data analysis. Furthermore, together with the relevance of questions and increased salience, observation has validated and supported the interview data in the analysis, as interviews can be matched to

²The Izons are indigenous inhabitants of the coastal region of Nigeria and are the fourth largest ethnic people in Nigeria.

individual circumstances. Evidence from the field notes and interviews have been merged to form the study themes (Merriam and Tisdell, 2016).

4.5.1 Interviews

Primarily, interviews are a rich source of data collection in case study research (Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007; Yin, 2018), and are appropriate when the events are uncommon and require an in-depth examination of the study objects (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Yin, 2015; 2018). This study has employed interviews as a data collection method because of their reliability in the data collection process (Ammenwerth et al., 2003; Belrhiti et al., 2020). Interviews are classified into semi-structured, structured, and unstructured (Bryson et al., 2022). Data collected through semi-structured interview methods allow research participants to express their views freely (Bartholomew, 2000). This study has also captured the natural environments, as participants use "verbal and paralinguistic exchange" (Vogl, 2013, p. 135). The semi-structured approach has been used for this study because it provided unlimited access to continually probe participant responses while maintaining the research objectives (Belrhiti et al., 2020; Bryman and Bell, 2015; Bryson et al., 2022; DiCcco-Bloom and Klebtree, 2006). Probing questions elicited more vital responses from the participants and assisted the study by providing an elaborate insight (Lepkowski et al., 2007). In the data collection process, probing questions provided prompt and precise feedback that enhanced reliability (DiCcco-Bloom and Kleb-tree, 2006). When questions were asked during the interview stage and the participants provided only short answers, the researcher used probing questions to explore the participants' thoughts (see Appendix D). Probing with further questions gave credence to the research process and helped to reduce bias (Bryson et al., 2022). Additionally, the combination of other data sources, such as direct observations, buttressed the responses from the interviews and provided an in-depth understanding of this study (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014).

4.5.2 Direct Observation

Direct observation is well suited to a natural environment because it provides in-depth, firsthand knowledge and understanding of the study objects, and it is an "iterative process that allows the data collection process to be refined and improved towards ground-breaking findings" (Bertschi-Michl et al., p. 81). Therefore, this study strictly observed individual participants who had been employed for five years and above. The reason for this strategy was that the research participants had gained the necessary work experience; hence, they constituted the sampled population (see Table 4.2). The sample population included men and women who were family and non-family employee members. Observations were restricted to the issues relating to the role of women entrepreneurs in the universities.

For effective observation, the thesis used field notes and observational protocol to gather data- see appendix F. In doing so, the researcher asked himself the following questions regarding what influenced the conduct of the direct observation for this study:

-What are the individual participants doing about the research questions?

-Are these activities relevant to my research questions and objectives?

-What do they want to accomplish?

-How exactly are they doing it?

-Is it harmful to the participants or researcher?

-Do they make any assumptions about the task ahead?

-Is the research process fair (ethical issue)?

-Will it affect the research output (reflectivity)?

(Drury, 1995).

With the approval of the participating institutions, the researcher held two formal meetings with the participants to ascertain their readiness (Bertschi-Michel et al., 2020). These interactive sessions were informative and allowed the participants and researcher to build confidence in the research process. In doing so, the researcher familiarised himself with the individual participants, thereby creating an atmosphere of acceptance. However, he ensured that such familiarity did not negatively influence the outcome of the observational process (Morgan et al., 2017). There were also informal gatherings (on five to ten occasions) with individual participants at the universities. This allowed for questions and answers to further explain the objectives of the study. The researcher observed participants and listened to their conversations as they related to this study. For an effective observational protocol, the following steps were taken: (1) determine the focus on what was to be observed; (2) document each process; (3) select where observation will take place; (4) decide on what time to conduct the observation; and (5) check the reliability of the outcome (Rolfe, 2020). This procedure created confidence within the participating institutions and boosted confidentiality (Patton, 2002; Rolfe, 2020).

One major challenge of direct observation is behavioural or attitudinal changes in participants. Put differently, research participants could easily stage-manage their behaviours, which might influence the study outcomes (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Hence, research participants were observed in their natural settings (for instance, their places of work) and at specific times and days – approximately two to twenty occasions and between Mondays and Fridays respectively. These days were convenient for the participants in Mololo and Gita Universities. Therefore, observations were done on a weekly basis for each university, whereas Torupere and Guinea-Egbuson universities had their approved days on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Significant time (on two to twenty occasions) was spent in real-life evidence gathering to discover behaviours and potentials not documented or captured during

interviews (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014). The observational process does not include the use of documentation to fill in an existing gap in the data collection process.

4.5.3 Documentation

Documents are vital sources of information in family firm research, and are either letters, memoranda, minutes of meetings, reports, meeting agendas, calendars, diaries, news articles, historical books about the firm, or any other items that are pivotal to obtaining information (Kotlar and De Massis, 2013; Yin, 1994; Myer, 2013). Documentation helps understand past events (Kotlar and De Massis, 2013). Documents are valuable research tools and provide helpful evidence in data analysis (Myer, 2013; Yins, 1994). According to De Massis and Kotlar (2014) and Yin (2015), one primary reason for documentation is to validate evidence gathered from other sources of data collection: for instance, interviews or direct observation. The researcher was clear to the participating universities about the type of documents that were needed for this study. In responding to the requests, the participating universities made available essential documents (for instance, pictorial evidence of entrepreneurial activities within and outside the universities, meeting extracts relating to corporate venturing, innovation, strategic renewal decisions and policy plans, student bulletins, ongoing businesses, the university handbook, an organogram, entrepreneurial achievements, among others) (see Appendix F). Furthermore, with other valuable resources university newspapers, university calendars, and web pages of the universities, the 'authenticity and credibility' (Harding, 2018, p. 46) of the findings from the documentation were enhanced (Kotlar and De Massis, 2013; Myer, 2013; Yin, 1994).

For this study, the participating family firms were collaborative in releasing identified documents. The researcher was satisfied with the documents released, as they answered the research questions and responded to the research objectives, although some documents

76

tagged 'classified' were not released for this study (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014; Gill et al., 2008). Classified documents are secured family secrets that are guarded with the utmost loyalty. All available documents were analysed to determine the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. The thematic method of identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns was used (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The goal of the researcher was to generate themes and patterns to explain the usefulness of the research topic. Therefore, the researcher followed the six steps thematic approach to analyse documents (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the process, themes emerged: for instance, 'women', 'family involvement', 'entrepreneurial activities', 'women's role', 'women's involvement', 'innovation', 'start-ups', 'venturing', 'co-wives', and 'women's achievements. Such documentation corroborated the interview and direct observation process. For ethical reasons, no copy or copies of the documents is/are displayed in this study (Grinyer, 2002).

4.6 Qualitative Data Analysis

This study uses the general inductive qualitative approach to analyse collected data (Guest et al., 2012; Thomas, 2006). The researcher employed this strategy to "condense raw textual data into a brief, summary format" (Thomas, 2006, p. 237). Thomas (2006) asserts that the general inductive qualitative approach "provides a simple, straightforward approach for deriving findings in the context of focused evaluation questions" (p. 237). Findings from the general inductive qualitative approach are reliable (Langley and Abdallah, 2011; Thomas, 2006), enable the building of themes and concepts (Freak-Poli and Malta, 2020; Langley and Abdallah, 2011), and require rigorous approaches in applications and interpretations (Guest et al., 2012; Langley and Abdallah, 2011). This study has adopted the assertion of Thomas (2006), that "inductive analysis refers to approaches that primarily use detailed readings of raw data to derive concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the raw data by an evaluator or researcher" (p. 238).

The inductive approach allowed the researcher to familiarise himself with the raw data. In doing so, he listened to the audio-recorded tape (from the interviews) and read the data from observation field notes and documentation extracts (see Appendices F and G) respectively. The audio records, field notes, and documentation were manually transcribed to readable text. The researcher used shorthand to capture some observations and documentation (Ferdousi et al., 2019; Hiebl and Mayrleitner, 2019; Siu and Bao, 2008). According to Banabo et al. (2014) and Wicks (2017), manually coded qualitative data allow the researcher to physically interact and build relationships with the raw data through themes and patterns. In such interaction, the researcher reads the data to understand the process. Basit (2003) conducted a comparative study of manual and automated analysis of qualitative data and concluded that "the choice will depend on the size of the project, the fund and time availability, and the inclination and expertise of the researchers" (p. 143). The choice of manual data analysis is based on the premise that "no software can analyse qualitative data"; rather, the software can only "aid the analysis process, of which the researcher must always remain in control" (Zamawe, 2015, p. 15). In this vein, the study objectives and the researcher's goal strengthened the choice of manual data analysis (Saldaña, 2015). In the data analysis process, codes emerged and were merged according to similarities and dissimilarities (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Kotlar and De Massis, 2013; Lundgren and Sinclair, 2019). Similar and divergent codes from the triangulated data were acknowledged and clustered, using cardboard, paper, colour, and pencils (Saldaña, 2015; Bryman and Bell, 2011). This exercise was conducted routinely to eliminate mistakes and ensure rigour (Thomas, 2006). The researcher ensured that the process was done repeatedly: that is, iteration was carried out to boost the reliability of the study (Ballinger, 2004).

According to Creswell (2012), qualitative researchers should be open to the possibility of bias at any level in the research process. For this reason, there was a constant reflection on the

study's outcome and systematic searching for any potential bias. This process was timeconsuming but worth the effort. According to Hidayat and Mahfus (2019), self-reflection enables the researcher to detect potential biases in the research process. Overall, the data analysis process was challenging, and the researcher did not modify the data. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006), data modifications distort the core concept. Therefore, transcription was verbatim, allowing undiluted "knowledge' from the participants" (Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2006, p. 143).

This study adopted the thematic approach to the analysis of data (Braun and Clarke, 2006) (see Table 4.3). Data were analysed on their merit to determine the extent to which they described themes. Data were generated and grouped into categories and pools (from the triangulated data sources) to form sub-themes and patterns. For instance, 'women's involvement in family firms, 'entrepreneurial activities', 'motivation', 'influencing role of women', 'women's involvement', 'innovation', 'venturing', and 'polygamy thrives' consist of sub-themes and patterns. This enabled common themes to be built up (Banabo et al., 2014; Creswell, 2003; Eisenhardt, 1989). According to Bryman and Bell (2011), the conviction and knowledge of the qualitative researcher are prerequisites to developing themes, because there are no known best practices to build them. Three themes emerged to interpret patterns of meaning and thus capture the participants' perceptions of the research questions and objectives (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

Table 4.3: Braun and Clarke's Thematic Approach

Phase	Description
Familiarising yourself with your data	Transcribing data (if necessary), reducing and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
Generating initial codes	Coding exciting data features systematically across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
Searching for themes	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.

Reviewing themes	Checking if the themes work concerning the coded extract (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic 'map' of the analysis.
Defining and naming themes	Ongoing analysis to refine each theme's specifics and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
Producing the report	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, the final analysis of the selected extract, relating the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

Source: Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87)

4.6.1 Phase 1: Familiarising Yourself with Your Data

The first step of any qualitative data analysis is to understand the dynamics of the data. Data have their own intricacies; hence, the researcher listened to the recorded audiotape, transcribed the audio into text, and read the text over and over (the interview extract is found in Appendix D). Also, field notes and extracts from the documents analysed were all included in the transcribing process (see Appendix G). The transcripts from all data sources were read to properly reduce and deduce their original meaning (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

4.6.2 Phase 2: Generating Initial Codes

This study uses the generated information from Phase 1 (Familiarising Yourself with Your Data) to form the basis to generate codes. Data were grouped according to their similarities and differences, to necessitate latent or semantic discourse. Codes emerged from the various data collection sources (interviews, direct observations, and documentation) as phrases or words that represented participants' thoughts (Garcia and Gluesing, 2013; Han and Park, 2017; Miles and Herbermann, 1994). Miles and Herbermann (1994) identify three types of codes – descriptive, interpretative, and inferential codes. Descriptive codes require little interpretation. Interpretative codes require more in-depth interpretation before the data are well understood, while inferential codes relate to data that are 'explicative and indicate casual relationships' (Labra et al., 2020, p. 189). From this classification of codes, the generated codes for this study correspond with the descriptive type. All codes were openly generated

and modified to allow for new theoretical outcomes or perspectives (Braun and Clarke, 2006). The modification of codes continued throughout the coding process (Labra et al., 2020). New codes were included, while some existing codes were deleted if they did not conform to the research questions and objectives. The coding process was done by pen and paper (manually). It was an interesting but challenging process, as it required the transcript to be read over and over. Hence, codes that corresponded to the research questions were all included to form the themes of this study (Labra et al., 2020).

4.6.3 Phase 3: Searching for Themes

As Braun and Clarke (2006) explained, themes are generated from the researchers' perception of significance. A theme is a "pattern that captures something significant or interesting about the data and/or research questions" (Maguire and Delahunt, 2017, p. 3356). All data relating to the potential theme were grouped into three pools (Labra et al., 2020). Each potential pool of themes was thoroughly checked across the data sources (interviews, direct observation, and documentation). According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017), the rules for what makes a theme are flexible, hence the overlap of themes. This study searched for themes that closely related and agreed with the research questions. While the search was ongoing, three themes emerged. For consistency, the researcher cross-checked the emerging themes between the data sources. Similar and different themes were grouped separately in the themes pool. In the themes pool, all potential themes were cross-checked and reviewed between interviews, direct observation, and documentation for similarities and differences (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

4.6.4 Phase 4: Reviewing Themes

During this phase, themes that agreed with the research questions were modified and reviewed (Maguire and Delahunt, 2017). Themes were thoroughly interrogated among the

data collection sources to ascertain their generalisability (Labra et al., 2020). In doing so, the study cross-checked data that were ignored or unnoticed in the themes searching process (see Phase 3: 4.6.3). In this vein, the themes that emerged indicated the usefulness of the process (Labra et al., 2020).

4.6.5 Phase 5: Defining and Naming Themes

In Phase 5, this study reviewed the 'pool of themes' (see Appendixes M and N) and grouped each theme into two categories, which were defining and naming themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This process is thorough and ensures that the right themes emerge (Labra et al., 2020, p. 194). As Braun and Clarke (2006) put it: "This phase identifies the essence of what each theme is about." (p. 92). The study uses terminologies that are within the business and management field to categorise themes (for instance, 'family firm', 'women's entrepreneurship', 'family goals', 'entrepreneurial orientation'). It is worth noting that there is only a thin line between phases 4 and 5, since both phases review generated themes from the data sources. To build confidence and reliability in the process, the researcher assigned names to each theme and repeatedly reviewed them to reduce ambiguity in the research process.

4.6.6 Phase 6: Producing the Report

This is the final phase of the thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). For this study, the thematic analysis mirrored the accurate account of the collected data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Hence, the reports presented in this study are descriptive (see Phase 2: 4.6.2). King (2004) suggests that participants' testimonies or direct quotes are descriptive and are pivotal to the final report. This strategy justified the research process and responded to the research questions and objectives (Labra et al., 2020). In producing the final report, this study provides

a brief, comprehensible, consistent, non-repetitive, and interesting account of the thematic data analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

4.7 Reliability and Validity

In qualitative studies, LeCompte and Goetz (1982), Joppa (2000), Trochim (2005), and Harvey (2014) argue that a consistent research outcome is proof of reliability. Reliability increases assurance and consistency in research (Carlson, 2010; Harvey, 2014; Singh, 2014). Seale (1999) argues that for an outcome to be reliable, it must be trustworthy for explicit generalisability and understanding, which allows for a "symbiotic relationship between the triangulated methods" (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551). For this reason, the researcher read each piece of data thoroughly, coded each piece of information explicitly, and independently compared the triangulated data sources. This exercise reduces any potential bias or error and ensures rigour. The codes were further revised and consolidated into merged themes (Flick, 2006; Kraus et al., 2020; Sousa, 2014). Reliability is positivist in nature; qualitative scholars prefer to use the term 'dependability' to show the uniqueness of qualitative research (Franklin and Ballan, 2001). Stenbacka (2001) is opposed to the concept of reliability in qualitative research, arguing that the issue of reliability in research is quantitative. However, Joppe (2000) agrees with Seale (1999) on the epistemology of reliability and its inherent dependability. The concept of validity is dynamic and all-encompassing in qualitative research. It gives an in-depth understanding and purpose to a research method and methodology (Davies and Dodd, 2002; Golafshani, 2003; Patton, 2002; Winter, 2000). According to Hammersley (1987): "An account is valid or true if it represents those features of the phenomena accurately that it is intended to describe, explain or theorise." (p. 69). Creswell and Miller (2000) recommend that qualitative researchers adopt a triangulating approach in evidence gathering to boost validity.

4.8 Ethics-Related Issues

Research ethics is about seeking the consent of participants and safeguarding their identities. It is also about doing what is right before, during, and after the research process. For these reasons, ethical considerations are obligatory for researchers (Ryen, 2004). This study followed the ethics committee guidelines from the Lancaster University Management School (LUMS) and the Faculty of Social Sciences at Lancaster University. The participants were asked to fill out the consent form, which contains the purpose of this study (see a sample of the consent form in Appendix A). All interviews were electronically tape-recorded and password protected. A reliable, secured deletion utility device – for instance, the disk wipe – was used to erase all the tape-recorded interviews and other stored data after use. The data collected from direct observation (for instance, field notes, see Appendix F) and documentation (for instance, extracts from historical materials see Appendix G)) were stored on hard copies and were securely kept in a password-protected cabinet. These procedures were made known to all participants (Ryen, 2004). Finally, there was no financial gratification or compensation for participating, hence participation was voluntary.

4.9 Generalisation

Qualitative researchers are meant to provide clear, rich, and contextual insights on the understanding of an event or a phenomenon rather than generalise. However, we are in an era where evidence to prove authenticity is in high demand. This is especially true in case study methodology, where specific issues or phenomena in a certain population or ethnic group, of a focused locality in a particular context, are studied (Maxwell and Chmiel, 2014). Hays and Mckibbens (2021) argue that "generalisability is not typically considered a feature or goal of qualitative research; it is an integral part of applying findings to advance knowledge" (p. 178). In this vein, to advance and extrapolate scientific knowledge and findings in the context of this research, the goal of generalisation is an integral part of this study. Therefore, analytic

generalisation is used for this study. According to Yin (2010), analytic generalisation involves a conceptual claim whereby investigators show how their case study findings bear upon a particular theory, theoretical construct, or theoretical (not just actual) sequence of events. It also involves applying the same theory to implicate other, similar situations where analogous events also might occur. In this vein, this study is "applied to wider theory based on how selected cases 'fit' with general constructs" (Curtis et al., 2000, p. 1002). The choice of analytic generalisation was made because it represents a certain group of people.

4.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has introduced the case study as the research methodology for the study. It has highlighted the importance of interviews, direct observation, and documentation as the research strategy for data collection. The chapter has discussed the methodological framework, using social constructivists' views on the socio-cultural perspectives and how gender has continually undergone the social process of construction. In doing so, sampling techniques have been used for effective research procedures. The data analysis process has also been discussed, using the thematic approach. Ethics-related issues, as well as the validity and reliability of the processes, have been discussed.

Chapter Five

The Context of Nigerian University Family Firms

5.1 Introduction

There is a consensus among scholars, government, and the public that education is the panacea for national growth and development. Education empowers people, who in turn develop societies (Akinbola et al., 2020; Omomia et al., 2014). Although the concept of education is subjective and contextual, its importance in nurturing sustainable development in Nigeria cannot be underestimated. For instance, education at all levels – primary, secondary, and university – have positively impacted the socio-economic fabric of Nigeria (Adesola et al., 2019). The focus of this study is on higher education (universities) in Nigeria. Higher education offers individuals the opportunity to develop their potential and contribute to the socio-cultural demands and developmental needs of Nigeria. Also, it addresses the shortfall in high-level workers in the Nigerian economy (Olofinyehun et al., 2022; Omomia et al., 2014). Nigerian universities are mostly government-owned and funded; however, privately owned and managed universities are an alternative (Koroye and Dada, 2022). The dilapidated academic systems and poor condition of public university infrastructure necessitate the need for private universities in Nigeria (Olofinyehun et al., 2022). For these reasons, the total number of private universities is ninety-nine, as at the time of this study (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3Breakdown of Nigerian Universities

Types of Universities	Total Number of Universities
Federal Universities	49
State Universities	57
Private Universities	99
Total	205

Source: National University Commission (NUC, 2022)

Private universities in Nigeria are regulated by a code of conduct (NUC, 2021). For instance, point 3.0 of the code of conduct of private universities stipulates that "every private

university in Nigeria shall have a proprietor. The proprietor should either be a company incorporated in Nigeria, an individual, or an association of individuals who are citizens of Nigeria." (NUC, 2021). There are fourteen mandatory step processes for the establishment of private universities in Nigeria, which are: (1) an application in writing, stating the intent for the establishment of the university; (2) interviews of prospective proprietors; (3) collection of application forms; (4) submission of application forms and relevant documents; (5) intensive review/analysis of documents by experts in relevant NUC departments; (6) revision of documents by proprietors, based on the report of the Directorate of Establishment of Private Universities; (7) interactive meeting of this Directorate with the proposed university; (8) first site assessment visit; (9) finalisation of documents; (10) second (final) site assessment visit; (11) security screening of the proprietors and the Board of Trustees; (12) approval by NUC Management; (13) approval by NUC Board; and (14) approval by the Federal Executive Council (NUC, 2022, p. 15).

In Nigeria, private universities can be divided into two categories – faith-based or familyowned (Belfield and Lerin, 2003; NUC, 2022). Faith-based universities are established by religious bodies, while family-owned universities are managed by families and constitute the bulk of private universities in Nigeria, which addresses the research gap. They have a good reputation in terms of academic standards and graduates' contribution to economic growth. Studies have shown that family influence, participation, and succession are hallmarks of most private universities (Akindele et al., 2012. Ernst et al., 2022). As shown in point 3 of the code of conduct, "the proprietor provides the finance for the university and appoints the Board of Trustees" (NUC, 2021).

5.2 Private Universities: The Nigerian Family Firm Perspective

For nearly forty years, after independence from colonial rule in 1960, Nigeria's government legislation hindered the establishment of private universities. However, private institutions, such as universities, are now encouraged, but the activities of both public and private institutions are still regulated by the government. Before the establishment of the first private university in 1999, Nigerian university education providers were monopolistic (Mogaji, 2019). However, private universities in Nigeria now complement and compete with public universities. For this study, private universities are non-governmental, owned, operated, and funded by a private individual or individuals, usually within families. Most often, these families are motivated by profits (Belfield and Lerin, 2003; Olaniya, 2001; Mogaji, 2019). Returns on investment, status, family inheritance, and the passion to deliver university education are among the reasons private universities have been established in Nigeria (Mogaji, 2019). Other reasons might include the insatiable demand of Nigerians for higher education, the ever-increasing demand for a higher educated workforce in society and the poor infrastructures of government universities (Iruonagbe et al., 2015), bureaucratic bottlenecks, and the incessant lecturers/federal government face-offs (strikes) (Mogaji, 2019). Commentaries and research findings on the influences of family on businesses are primarily from Europe and North America, and predominantly examine monogamous families (Chua et al., 1999; Witte, 2015). These narratives continually dominate the literature and have shaped the perceptions of business and management researchers (Chua et al., 1999). Therefore, there is a need to contextualise studies on other family types that concern the African (Nigerian) context, and this study addresses this research gap (Cook, 2007; Igwe et al., 2018; Welter, 2011).

In Nigeria's private universities, proprietors and the controlling families are either monogamous or polygamous. For instance, proprietors of faith-based private universities are

mostly monogamous, while polygamous ones are predominantly within the family-controlled universities. Although both types of universities (monogamous and polygamous) are controlled by families, the tendencies towards family succession in faith-based universities are within a religious ethos. Faith-based universities are in the academic spotlight and are impacting the well-being of society through knowledge transfer. There is a paucity of studies on the influence of polygamists as entrepreneurs in Nigerian private university family firms, which necessitates this study (Koroye and Dada, 2022). Furthermore, this study addresses polygamists as entrepreneurs in Nigerian private university family firms.

Etymologically, the word polygamy is rooted in Greek history, where 'poly' means plenty or multiple and 'gamos' means marriage (Amone, 2020; Zeitzen, 2020). Polygamy is the marriage of multiple spouses, and researchers use the word in a broad sense to mean various forms of union (Amone, 2020; Zeitzen, 2020). It is termed polygyny if the marriage is between one man and multiple conjugal relationships with women for social or economic gains (Amone, 2020; Dissa, 2016; Reynoso, 2019; Zeitzen, 2020). 'Gyn' is 'female' (Amone, 2020, p. 734). While polygyny is closely associated with and practiced in Nigeria, polyandry is alien. Polyandry, where a woman marries several men simultaneously, is the opposite of polygyny (Sigman, 2006; Zeitzen, 2020). Polygamists in Nigerian private universities are mostly non-sororal; that is, co-wives are not sisters (Amone and Arao, 2014). Sororal nuptials are rare in Nigeria, but are not culturally prohibited (Amone and Arao, 2014).

Although Nigerian civil law proscribes polygamy in all forms, it still thrives (Demographic and Health Survey, 2013; Mwambene, 2017; Yilmaz and Tamam, 2018). For instance, twelve northern states in Nigeria practice Sharia Muslim law, which encourages polygamy (Demographic and Health Survey, 2013; Tertilt, 2005). The contrary view holds that polygamy is "only an option and not obligatory for Muslims" (Witte, 2015, p. 19). In this context, the girl child is raised to accept polygamy as a way of life from early childhood, as

demanded by Sharia law (Nada, 2020). In the remaining twenty-four states of Nigeria, mainly in the southern and middle belt regions, polygamy is practiced and recognised by customary laws; hence, it is prevalent (Amone, 2020; Fenske, 2015). Furthermore, in the southern parts of Nigeria, where this study is situated, "it is difficult to eliminate or restrict the practices" of polygamy, which is rooted in cultural beliefs (Witte, 2015, p. 19). Ware (1979, p. 16) asserts that "polygamy is not a dying tradition, it is a flourishing institution" in Nigeria. Polygamy is deeply rooted in Africa, and in this case, Nigeria. According to Murdock (1981), only about eleven out of 585 ethnic nationalities in Africa are monogamous, with over 850 societies being polygamous worldwide.

In many African countries, including Chad, Mali, Niger, Tanzania, and Sudan, polygamy is legislated and legalised (Amone, 2020; Fenske, 2015; Mwambene, 2017: Yilmaz and Tamam, 2018). In others, polygamy flourishes under religious and customary principles – for instance, in Nigeria, Ghana, and Senegal (Mwambene, 2017; Yilmaz and Tamam, 2018). Although the decline of polygamy has been predicted, due to economic depression and social factors (Demographic and Health Survey, 2013), de facto polygamy is on the increase in Nigeria (Zeitzen, 2020). De facto polygamy is any conjugal relationship between a married man with another woman. These partners are not legally married but have a lasting relationship as husband and wife and the 'paternity of the children' is not in contention (Zeitzen, 2020). In the words of Justice Murphy (cited in Todd, 2000): "Like other forms of marriage, polygamy is a cultural institution rooted deeply in the religious beliefs and traditions of those societies in which it appears. Accordingly, it must be recognised and treated as such." (p. 534). In a supreme court judgment from the USA, delivered by Justice Murphy, cited in Todd (2000): "Polygamists should be allowed to practice their belief system under the Free Exercise Clause of the First Amendment and the right to privacy within a marriage" (p. 531).

Even though polygamy is rooted in Nigeria (Fenske, 2015; Ogundele et al., 2012; Mwambene, 2017; Ware, 1979), it is proscribed and considered repressive and barbaric in Europe and North America, and some parts of Asia, including China. However, findings show that polygamous activities are evident and disguised in these societies (Zeitzen, 2020). According to Zeitzen (2020), although the Chinese state laws prohibit such marriages, "it is customary for a rich man to marry more than one wife [if they can do so] by performing a ceremony according to customary laws" (p. 5).

Critics and feminists would argue that polygamy is an affront to women's rights and privileges (Exposito, 2017; Obonye, 2012). Others would posit that polygamy 'objectifies women' (Obonye, 2012, p. 145) and is a deliberate act that tramples on women's right to equality (Fanon, 2004). As contextual and controversial as it may seem, polygamy is said to encourage collective participation among family members and breeds socio-emotional wealth (Al-Shamsi and Fulcher, 2005). It protects widows, as they are remarried within the family, promotes family heritage and lineage through succession, and defends unmarried women (Slonim-Nevo and Al-Krenawi, 2006). Polygamy is described as a source of economic strength through multiple human resources (Mwambene, 2017), which encourages human capital development (Zeitzen, 2020). Polygamy is also a show of financial muscle (Amare et al., 2021; Amone, 2020), influences cultural practices (Garba, 2011; Koroye and Dada, 2002), and is a defence against the neo-colonialist imposition of a Westernised system of marriage in Africa (Fanon, 2004; Mwambene, 2017; Zeitzen, 2020). In this vein, Amone (2020) asserts that "polygamy should be viewed from the perspective of the culture of the affected people" (p. 733). The declaration from the United Nations General Assembly in 1948 further buttresses the argument that individuals are at liberty to practice and promote their cultural heritage (Cook, 2007). This is relevant in the current context of Nigerian private universities.

5.3 Synopsis of the Case Study Universities

As reiterated above, the failure of government-owned universities (state and federal) to meet the expectations of Nigerians necessitated the establishment of private universities. Although public universities are known for academic excellence, private universities thrive in Nigeria, due to the impact of globalisation on university education. Four Nigerian private universities are discussed. Below is a detailed synopsis of the case study universities.

5.3.1 Mololo University: Two brothers, Amapapa and Binye, founded Mololo University in the late 2000s. Mololo University is in Nigeria's southern region, at the Toru-Ama. The university is on the outskirts of Oyis city (the actual names of the state and city are anonymised). Amapapa and Binye are both polygamists. Amapapa is the eldest brother, with three wives and twelve children. Nine of Amapapa's children are adults (five males and four females) and are between thirty and forty-five years of age. The other three children are teenagers and are in secondary (high) schools. Five of the adult children are employees of the institution. The other four children are studying for their Master's degree and/or Ph.D. programmes in UK, Hungarian, and South African universities. Amapapa is the Chancellor and is between sixty-five and seventy-five years old. He is regarded as the 'arrowhead' of the institution. Binye, who is between sixty and seventy years old, is the younger brother and is highly rated as a 'workaholic' among admirers. Binye is happily married to two wives and has seven children. Three are thirty to forty years old and four are teenagers. Two of Binye's adult children are employees of the institution. The other adult child works for a construction firm. The teenagers are still in secondary schools. At Mololo University, family and nonfamily members hold strategic positions. The vision of the founders is to establish a worldclass university that would produce future leaders. The university is renowned for its entrepreneurial activities, including workshops, seminars, entrepreneurial trade fairs, and inculcating innovativeness and creativity into young minds. In addition, the vision is to build,

encourage, and foster positive entrepreneurial attitudes in the university community for sustainability and growth.

Mololo University is recognised and approved by the NUC as a private degree-awarding university in Nigeria (see Appendix I). The Nigerian University Ranking 2020 reported that it is ranked between 7th to 25th (the actual position is anonymised) among over ninety-nine private universities in Nigeria (NUC, 2022). At the time of this study, the 2019/2020 academic session, the student population of Mololo University was 3,074 students (as reported in the university's official document). Mololo University operates both full-time and part-time undergraduate programmes/courses. There are plans to start postgraduate studies soon. There are over forty-nine academic (of which nineteen are part-time) and twenty-two permanent non-academic staff. Administrative cost reduction and flexibility of work hours and time are reasons for part-time academic staff (as reported in the university's official document). There are four faculties at Mololo University: management, law, education, and agricultural sciences. Each faculty has distinct departments that offer specialised degree programmes/courses.

5.3.2 Torupere University: This is in Mon-castle state (the name of the state is anonymised). Mon-castle state is a commercial destination in the southern region and is vibrant in terms of its entrepreneurial activities. There are four universities in Mon-castle state (one state, one federal, and two private universities). There is also one polytechnic and one college of education. The influx of students into higher education has made Mon-castle state an 'educational hub'. Torupere University was established in the late 2000s. The vision statement is to provide holistic university education in character and true education, while its mission statement is to deliver a research-focused university. Chief Agbalaze is the founder of Torupere University. He has three wives; one of them lives in a different state with their children, while the other two wives live in separate houses within the university quarters with

their children. Chief Agbalaze lives alone in his house, but visits his family at will. His reasons for living alone within the university staff quarters are not explained. Chief Agbalaze has numerous children but is culturally forbidden to number/count his children, although this is perhaps just to strangers (such as the researcher). Five of his children are employees of the university, and they hold strategic positions in administration, finance, and academic departments. They are involved in the implementation of long- and short-term policies of the university. One of the founder's sons is the deputy vice-chancellor (see Appendix J, Torupere University organisational chart). Non-family members are also in the decision-making hierarchy. The university is ranked between 20th and 30th position in the total number of universities delivering quality education (the actual position is anonymised) by the Nigerian University Ranking of 2020. In the 2019/2020 academic session, the university had about 1,520 full-time and part-time students. The university runs both undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes. There are about fifty-seven teaching and thirty-three nonteaching staff (as of the time of this study). The university has five faculties: management and economics, sciences, law, engineering, and arts and social sciences. Each faculty offers specialised undergraduate degree programmes/courses. Only the faculties of management, economics, arts, and social sciences run postgraduate Master's degree programmes. A dean heads each faculty, while each department has a head of department as the administrative head, who reports directly to the dean on all matters relating to the department.

5.3.3 Gita University: This is ranked as a top ten private university in Nigeria, as reported by the Nigerian University Ranking 2020 (the actual position is anonymised). Gita University is located within the busy city capital of Angalabiri State (the name of the state and university are anonymised) in Nigeria's southern region. The university is licenced and recognised to offer degree courses at undergraduate and postgraduate levels by the NUC. Tombra, the founder and proprietor, is married to two wives, with nine children. All his children are adults

and are employees of the university. Tombra is between sixty-five and seventy-five years old and has passed on leadership to his eldest son. Tombra has two daughters, but despite their qualifications and experience, primogeniture and cultural practices have prevented them from becoming the successor. Family and non-family members are in positions of authority in the university. At the time of this study, the entire student population was about 1,723; all undergraduate courses are on a full-time basis, and there are thirty-one academic and thirtynine non-academic staff at the time of this study. Gita University has five faculties: sciences, social sciences, humanities, engineering, and management (see Appendix K). Each faculty offers specialised undergraduate degree programmes/courses at departmental levels.

5.3.4 Guinea-Egbuson University: This was founded by Dr Duff Egbuson in the late 2000s and is licensed and approved by the NUC to offer undergraduate and postgraduate degree programmes. The university is in Bouere State, in Nigeria's southern region (the names of the university, founder, and location are anonymised). Dr Duff Egbuson is the eldest sibling of six children. He is married to four wives, three of whom reside outside Bouere state. He has twenty-one children. Fourteen are adults, five are teenagers, and two are still babies. He is between seventy and seventy-five years old. There has been a generational change in leadership from the founder to his son, Paul Egbuson Jnr, who succeeded his father as the new chairman of the Board of Regents. The Board of Regents are an independent governing body that oversees the university. Guinea-Egbuson University was ranked between 10th and 20th in 2020 (the actual position is anonymised). At the time of this study, the students' total enrolment was 1,178 students. The university offers full-time and affiliate undergraduate degree programmes/courses. The full staff strength, both academic and non-academic, is sixty-three (forty-one academic and twenty-two non-academic staff). There are seven faculties at Guinea-Egbuson University: sciences, social sciences, finance and management,

humanities, law, education, and engineering. Each faculty offers undergraduate/affiliate courses (see Appendix L, for the organisational chart).

5.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discussed the influence of polygamy of families and societies, specifically private universities. Private universities in Nigeria constitute a bulk of academic quality which respond to societal demand for innovation. In Nigeria, private universities can be divided into two categories – faith-based or family-owned. Faith-based universities are operated and managed by religious bodies, while family-owned universities are managed by individual families and constitute the bulk of private universities. In Nigeria's private universities, proprietors and the controlling families are either monogamous or polygamous. Therefore, this chapter situate its findings on the polygamous family concept in the Nigerian universities. A synopsis of four universities is included in this chapter which constitute the case study.

Chapter Six

Findings from the Case Studies

6.1 Introduction

The findings from this study offer a comprehensive understanding of the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous corporate family firms in Nigeria. From the study findings, three themes emerged about the role of women entrepreneurs. These will be identified and discussed in this chapter. The concept of theme is "critical to the accurate interpretation of qualitative data" (DeSantis and Ugarriza, 2000, p. 351). According to Braun and Clarke (2013), a theme is "an idea or concept that captures and summarises the core point of a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data" (p. 235). Polit and Hungler (1997) describe a theme as a recurring idea or thought that is derived from qualitative data. This study has derived its themes from Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic model, using common, recurring patterns across a dataset. This dataset is clustered around a central organising concept (Braun and Clarke, 2013).

The following three themes are derived for this study: women entrepreneurs and their role in corporate entrepreneurship; the influencing factors of motivations for women's entrepreneurship; and the effects of polygamy on women entrepreneurs. Each theme responds to the stated research questions and objectives of this study (Hazira et al., 2021). To visualise the process, a thematic map was developed to emphasise specific categories in the subject area by a graphic representation of codes and themes, and to show how they are interrelated (see Figure 6.4). This study has carefully selected the themes from the individual participants' responses to the interview questions, the direct observations of participants, and document analysis (including pictorial evidence) (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Hazira et al., 2021).

This exercise continued until data saturation was achieved. Saturation in qualitative research is the process whereby additional codes or data are relatively insignificant in influencing extra themes (Hazira et al., 2021). The selected quotes provide the research participants with a voice in the research (Hunts, 2011). The study also included selected quotes from the document analysis (testimonials). The researcher "selects quotes that are poignant or most representative of the research findings" (Anderson, 2010, p. 3). According to Sandelowski (1994): "Quotes are used to support researcher claims, illustrate ideas, illuminate experiences, evoke emotion, and provoke a response" (p. 1). The selected quotes for this study represent the generality of the participants and a "recognition that data must always be understood concerning the context of their production" (Anderson, 2010, p. 4). According to Akerlind (2005): "The selected quotes make up the data pool of meanings to which it belongs [...] the boundaries separating individuals are abandoned and interest is focused on the pool of meanings discovered in the data." (Akerlind, 2005, p. 325). In this vein, this study is focused on the underpinning meaning in the quotes, rather than the individual subjects. This strategy has enabled robust findings to enhance generalisation. Nevertheless, contrary quotes have been included in this study to minimise bias in the interpretation process.

6.2 Theme One

Women Entrepreneurs and their Role in Corporate Entrepreneurship

The theme generated from Figure 6.1 below answers selected interview questions (7 to 18 in Appendix D), direct observation, and document analysis. These triangulated data sources are linked to Research Question One. The researcher categorised the dataset separately to generate codes specifically to answer Research Question One. In each code, ideas and thoughts that were relevant, similar, and dissimilar were kept in a pool. The researcher renamed the collective codes to suit the stated Research Question One and the objectives of the study (see Figure 6.1). For instance, in the data collection stage, the 'role of women',

'venturing', and 'innovation' dominated the interview, observation, and documentation processes as categories (see Appendixes D, E, F). The researcher renamed these categories as 'corporate entrepreneurship', 'women entrepreneurs', and 'women's innovation', to form the theme (see Figure 6.1).

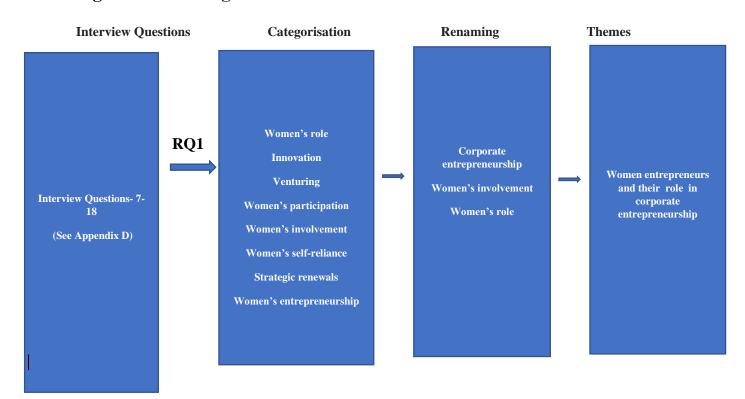


Figure 6.1 Theme generation Process

Source: Author (2022)

The findings from this study indicate that women entrepreneurs have positively influenced the entrepreneurial culture in corporate family firms. As revealed from the findings, corporate entrepreneurial activities are inherent and are not affected by family structure and family types. Below are selected quotes from the interview questions (see Appendix D) that answer Research Question One:

[&]quot;Women entrepreneurs and their corporate entrepreneurial activities have positively impacted this university. For example, we [the university] operate one of this region's most successful entrepreneurial centres. The success recorded in our entrepreneurial hub is among the many achievements of women's creativity and resilience. As an institution, we are satisfied with our female staff members. As a family, our sisters and mothers are our pride." (Timi Mololo, male family member, Mololo University).

"The activities of corporate entrepreneurship have encouraged women's participation in the university. Women's innovative ideas for revenue generation and small business start-ups have increased women's sense of entitlement and created awareness of the role of women. Even in the marketing of this university, women have excelled." (Emmanuella Mololo, female family member, Mololo University).

Findings from this study show that the role of women entrepreneurs contributes to the growth and development of corporate family firms through venture growth and profitability. This finding is consistent with extant studies (Alkhaled and Berglund, 2018; Feranita, 2021; Kelley et al., 2017; Kirkwood, 2009). Furthermore, this study reveals that women are creative in discovering new businesses and entrepreneurial opportunities through corporate venturing.

"Our sisters and mothers are resilient and dogged towards the regeneration of ideas and entrepreneurial policies. I am so proud to have this group of industrious and innovative women in our institution. One of our mothers has distinguished themselves towards building entrepreneurial legacies in the Fine and Applied Arts." (Oyinbra Kanu, male family member, Torupere University).

"Women are practically involved in the day-to-day entrepreneurial activities in this university. Women are essential for record-keeping, building, and maintaining relationships with external organisations and other stakeholders. These roles are essential towards strategic positioning, identification of new or existing business opportunities, and renewal." (Akpo Meiyeseigha, female family member, Torupere University).

The results show that women entrepreneurs are pioneering breakthrough innovations and

instigating the process of change in universities by influencing the rejuvenation of ideas and policies. Consistent with extant studies, the findings indicate that women entrepreneurs are innovative, hard-working, and have distinguished themselves in building lasting corporate entrepreneurial legacies in the university (Bock and Van der Burg, 2017; Sajuyigbe and Fadeyibi, 2017). The women entrepreneurs are a catalyst for sustainable economic development, interpersonal growth, and competitive advantage. The findings reveal that entrepreneurial culture is relatively subjective, as no customary law forbids women from being entrepreneurial in the research context. Therefore, this study's findings suggest that the emotional perceptions of individuals, usually males, that women are less entrepreneurial, are socially constructed.

[&]quot;We [women] are ready to put in our best for the progress of this institution. However, our family culture and traditional beliefs are too rigid. For example, a woman was head of the committee that mapped out the university's strategic growth plans and policies, but my brothers and other male family members highjacked the process. All the accolades go to them (male siblings). Why are women always seen to play the 'second role' in family firms?" (Egede Korofo, female family member, Gita University).

"The biological differences between men and women do not affect creativity. Creativity is inherent and gender blind. So, for the university to be competitive and sustainable, women's corporate entrepreneurship should be encouraged. Women's roles should be well defined as partners in strategic growth for competitive positioning." (Otoo Patrick, female family member, Gita University).

This study's findings show that corporate venturing is an entrepreneurial obligation for survival, and women are pivotal in this regard. Also, the findings reveal that corporate entrepreneurial activities are encouraged by building transgenerational business legacies through superior corporate decision-making ventures. Consistent with extant studies, the corporate venturing found in the study is strategic and productive in organisational renewal, by regenerating creative ideas to revitalise universities (Bettinelli et al., 2019; Samara et al.,

2019).

"Women entrepreneurs create jobs, identify business opportunities, and build strategic partnerships among the local surrounding communities. Women's desire to succeed has made the families curb family feuds through corporate venturing or start-ups." (Ebifred Ebiyerin, male family member, Guinea-Egbuson University).

The findings from this study have revealed that women entrepreneurs are excellent at breaking new entrepreneurial barriers by expanding and diversifying business ideas. Such ideas enable the university to build lasting entrepreneurial legacies and implement sustainable competitive advantages. As revealed from the findings, women entrepreneurs in the university are creating more jobs and better jobs by supporting other women entrepreneurs. This symbiotic relationship bridges the gender gap, as women-led businesses become more resilient and sustained, or increase employment over time.

6.3 Theme Two

The Influencing Factors of Motivation on Women Entrepreneurs

The procedures for how Theme Two was generated are depicted in Figure 6.2. Theme Two was generated from the triangulated data sources, interviews (see questions 19 to 24), and direct observation and documentation (see Appendices D, E, and F). Codes were categorised

[&]quot;Women are essential players in this institution. They have attracted more external funding and are instrumental to our (university's) growth and development. For instance, mothers (wives of the founder) have encouraged their sons, daughters, and even us (non-family members) to be creative and regenerate new ideas to revitalise the university. This might be because mothers (wives of the founder) believe disagreement may start when the father (founder) passed on. Hence, they are deliberately building lasting legacies and corporate businesses for their children." (Mangiri Paul, female non-family member, Guinea-Egbuson University).

according to their similarities and dissimilarities and placed in a research pool (see Appendix N). The codes include women's accomplishments, high self-esteem, inclusion, and status, among others (see Figure 6.2). The researcher renamed these codes as 'push factors', 'pull factors', 'extrinsic', and 'intrinsic', to form the theme (see Figure 6.2).

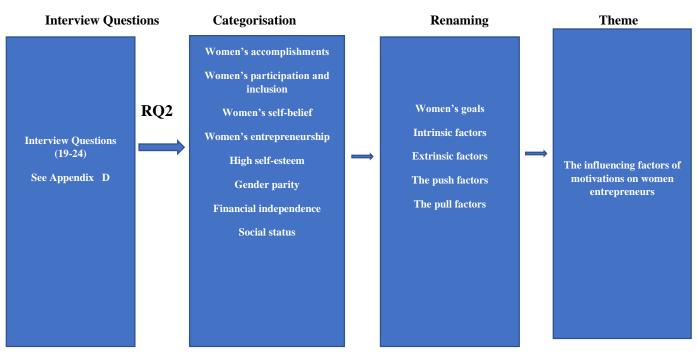


Figure 6.2 Theme generation Process

Source: Author (2022)

The thematic approach was employed to generate the theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Below are some selected quotes to ascertain the influencing factors of motivation on women

entrepreneurs in Nigerian university family firms:

"I think women entrepreneurs are motivated by a false sense of identity, most especially female family members. Their siblings [mostly males] will remind them that their entitlements are in their husband's houses whenever it comes to succession and leadership in this university." (Ekankumo Ogbomah, male non-family member, Mololo University).

"I think being an entrepreneur has drastically increased the cash inflow for women. To me, the motivating factors over the years for women include fear of poverty, competition for success among family members, and career advancement." (Williams Mololo, male family member, Mololo University).

This study shows that women entrepreneurs are identified as part of the family structure in

specific roles. However, male dominance, primogeniture, and glass-ceiling syndrome are

evidenced in succession and leadership roles. This finding is consistent with extant studies (Ahl, 2006; Jennings and Brush, 2013).

The findings show that women are motivated by pull-push factors. Women entrepreneurs in Nigerian university family firms are driven by harsh economic and social circumstances, while findings from the literature show that women in developed countries are motivated by pull factors (Brush and Cooper, 2012; Dawson, 2012; Kirkwood, 2009). Women entrepreneurs in Nigerian university family firms are also motivated by necessity, satisfaction, and fear of poverty. This has propelled them towards creativity and inclusivity. The study demonstrates that gender parity, women's participation, and inclusion motivate women entrepreneurs, and that women entrepreneurs are motivated by pull factors. Necessitated by the harsh economy and stiff competition, women's strong motivation is to provide food for their families, sustain their businesses, and become successful.

It was gathered from these comments that the income generated by women entrepreneurs

contributes to household resources, reduces gender conflicts, and increases women's self-

esteem. The findings reveal that women entrepreneurs are venture capitalists who want

financial independence from male dominance. This has helped women generate additional

income for their families and university.

[&]quot;Women have potential and are motivated by the desire to achieve. Women have the yearning to be satisfied and be included in the family and university, and this will have a positive impact on our university revenue generation. As a woman, my profits help my daily needs. Men respect women that are hardworking." (She ended with a smile). (Akpo Meiyeseighais, female family member, Torupere University).

[&]quot;Women are valuable members of this university and are influenced by the increasing desire to be protected. Women entrepreneurs want to be treated like their male counterparts. What motivates women is job satisfaction and congratulations from the management team. Women want to be heard, seen, and included at home and in the workplace." (Lala King, female non-family member, Torupere University).

[&]quot;Women entrepreneurs are motivated by a lot of factors, among which are inclusion and the freedom to choose. Nevertheless, as a family, we encourage ourselves. As a university, the policies are straightforward." (Amigo Tokunbo, female family member, Gita University).

[&]quot;The determination for success by women is motivated. Women are motivated to be entrepreneurs, leaders, and even successors. Women are now technologically advanced to create an impact in the university." (Imawaigha Koritugha, female family member, Gita University).

The findings from this study indicate that women entrepreneurs are motivated by family unity and freedom to choose; women want greater freedom to adopt their own approach to entrepreneurship. The study's findings also show that women are accomplishers and competent in entrepreneurial activities in Nigerian universities, and have acquired the necessary skills and knowledge in modern technology to do business. Technological skills have motivated women entrepreneurs in customer satisfaction and decision-making. Nigerian women entrepreneurs in the universities want to be at the forefront of technological idea. This finding debunked extant studies that Nigerian women entrepreneurs are in the 'dark' about new technologies (Bajpai, 2014). Furthermore, findings from this study indicate that women are motivated, when they are involved in leadership positions, to make policies that positively affect other women. In this vein, the driving factors for success as found in this study are venturing and exploring entrepreneurial activities in their university and in society.

Findings from this study revealed that women are motivated into entrepreneurship when they are part of the decision-making process. As shown in the findings, women want inclusion and they want to be their own bosses. Nigerian women entrepreneurs are participatory in daily entrepreneurial activities. This finding is consistent with extant studies (Ahl, 2006, 2002).

The results also indicate that there are more women entrepreneurs than men in the university, although there is a higher ratio of women entrepreneurs compared to men. This finding is consistent with extant studies – that women are more into entrepreneurship than men in Nigeria (Bajpai, 2014). From the study findings, women in Nigerian universities create an unprecedented rate of wealth growth. At the same time, they are increasingly building wealth on their own, thereby bridging the gender gap.

[&]quot;Our family continually motivates women and men into entrepreneurship, but women entrepreneurs are more. We have a family that has achieved this through women's inclusion in our daily activities in the university." (Akono Temple, male family member, Guinea Egbuson University).

6.4 Theme Three

The Effects of Polygamy on Women Entrepreneurs

This study generated Theme Three from the triangulated data sources. Figure 6.3 demonstrates the specific interview questions (25 to 31) used to generate the theme. Also see Appendices D, E, F, and G. Codes were grouped accordingly to answer the stated Research Question Three (see Chapter One). The researcher generated codes from the triangulated data sources. All codes are ideas or organised thoughts and were marked and categorised (see Figure 6.3).

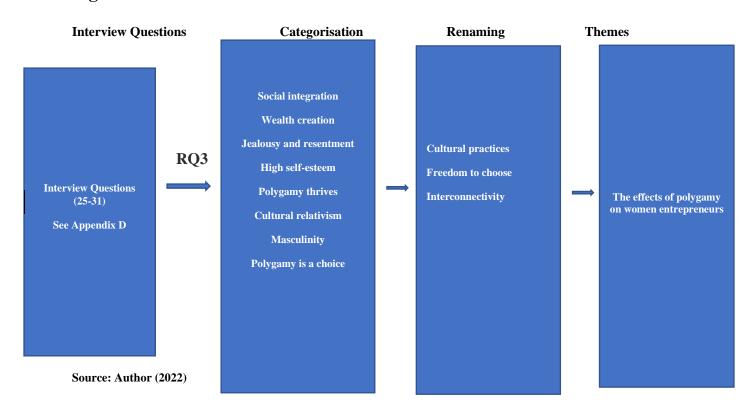


Figure 6.3: Theme Generation Process

Categorised codes were renamed to form Theme Three – the effects of polygamy on women entrepreneurs (see Appendix O). Polygamous influences on women entrepreneurs are both positive and negative. On the positive side, findings from this study support existing literature that claims polygamy to be an institutional marriage system embedded in cultural practices, and these practices have been sustained for centuries. The findings also reveal that the effects of polygamy on women entrepreneurs are rooted in nepotism, primogeniture, and family goals. It has also been found that polygamy strengthens family relationships and encourages knowledge transfer among siblings and wealth creation. Below are some selected quotes answering Research Question Three:

"Women are not a tool of polygamy. The social integration among women in this university is good and enables us to do well in entrepreneurship. I enjoy being in a polygamous relationship. It makes me feel like I am a mother of many. We [women] are keen to see our corporate start-ups grow within the university community, and this can only be achieved when there is healthy competition among family members." (Duamiebi Tex, female family member, Mololo University).

"Polygamy is an ancient practice and cannot be abolished. As for me, polygamy has positively influenced women's right to choose. But in this university, we discourage infighting and jealousy among siblings and wives. We unite our families regularly through collective entrepreneurial participation. This enhances our corporate existence as a university." (Odemuzi Number, female family member, Mololo University).

From the study findings, the effect of polygamy has been found to improve collaboration between individual families, hence enhancing social integration. The findings also revealed that polygamy promotes social harmony, which enhances women's entrepreneurship, and that the effects of polygamy on women entrepreneurs does not subjugate women's right to choose. Women in polygamous families are at liberty to choose. This finding contradicts extant studies that polygamy commodifies women's rights (Obonye, 2012).

From the findings, polygamy appears to breed healthy competition among wives and siblings, which promotes family harmony, encourages entrepreneurial excellence, and boosts sustained competitive advantage. Also, the findings revealed the effect of polygamy as promoting family and university sustainability, through interconnectivity with other families and stakeholders. This is evidenced through women's networks, brainstorming, and the integration of other minority women entrepreneurs' groups. It also promotes economic sustainability with other families.

"Polygamy has been a source of strength to our institution. In my mind, polygamy has not negatively influenced women entrepreneurs. Innovation is inherent in individuals and not in the family structure [polygamy]." (Oyinbra Kanu, male family member, Torupere University).

"Polygamy is not a practice that will fade very soon. It has its adverse effects, like every other family structure. On the positive side, polygamy has encouraged women entrepreneurs, knowledge transfer, boasts healthy entrepreneurial competition among women and other family members, increases university revenue through corporate venturing, and enhances university sustainability." (Chuks Ogbondah, female family member, Torupere University).

The findings from this study strengthen the viewpoint that polygamy is a source of strength and is transgenerational, hence it thrives (Ware, 1979; Zeitzen, 2020). Despite the negative social perception of polygamy, this study brings a positive description of polygamy to the literature and shows that polygamy instigates creativity and innovation through corporate venturing and strategic networking among co-wives and siblings. Also, the findings show that internal human resources, transfer of knowledge, and financial flows are sources of women's strength in polygamy. The findings indicate that polygamy is not a tradition that will decline, despite the negative narration from Europe, America, and elsewhere. This supports the study by Fenske (2015), which argues that polygamy is on the increase in Sub-Saharan Africa. However, these findings contrast with Hayase and Liaw's (1997) study, which suggests that polygamy has declined substantially in the southern region of Sub-Saharan Africa.

This study reveals that polygamy grants women freedom of choice in a family business. It has allowed women to own entrepreneurial ventures within the university. Findings from this study further demonstrate that polygamy is not viewed as a barrier to women's excellence. Hence, women are encouraged to promote their welfare through entrepreneurship. Extant studies argue that polygamy objectifies and restricts the freedom of women (Exposito, 2017; Obonye, 2012), whereas this study findings contradict such views, as family unity, harmony, and bonds are inherently strengthened when women are involved in entrepreneurial activities.

[&]quot;Polygamy is not the worst marriage institution. I am proud to be polygamous, and my sons will be encouraged to be polygamous too. However, I think polygamy gives women the freedom to choose and has encouraged them to express their entrepreneurial abilities. Only women that are not willing to work hide under the disguise of polygamy. [He smiled]. We do not have such women in this institution." (Awo Akenpia, male family member, Gita University).

[&]quot;Entrepreneurial activities are well expressed when the business environment is ideal. In this university, our policies allow everybody to exercise their inherent abilities towards innovation and innovative ideas. Polygamy is not a barrier to excellence. It is our culture, and we respect it. Women are given a greater chance to suggest business ideas, and this encourages our corporate existence." (Ipori Tueibi, female family member, Gita University).

To buttress this study findings, the objectification of women is not known to have emanated from polygamy; instead, it is a global social problem that needs to be addressed. In this vein, this study shows that polygamy gives women entrepreneurs an ideal business environment with which to express themselves through corporate policies and entitlement rights, reducing family feuds and resentments.

"Polygamy is an embedded cultural norm, but with divergent economic, religious, and social views. To me, social perception from external forces, like Christianity, has perceived polygamy as repressive and unacceptable. The practice of monogamy is relatively alien to us; polygamy is like any form of marriage. It amplifies women's dignity, promotes women's leadership and management skills, and women are the most beneficiaries. The university's entrepreneurship policies encourage women's excellence and boost venturing and innovation." (Chukugwe Chinasa, female family member, Guinea-Egbuson University).

The findings show that polygamy encourages women's leadership and management skills. It restores women's dignity through employment generation and innovative ideas. As revealed from the findings, polygamy boosts economic expansion through venturing. It also helps to reduce poverty through business start-ups and new ideas. From the study findings, it is shown that polygamy household income increases, since everybody contributes to the family budget. In doing so, the level of poverty reduces. Nevertheless, there are contrary views about

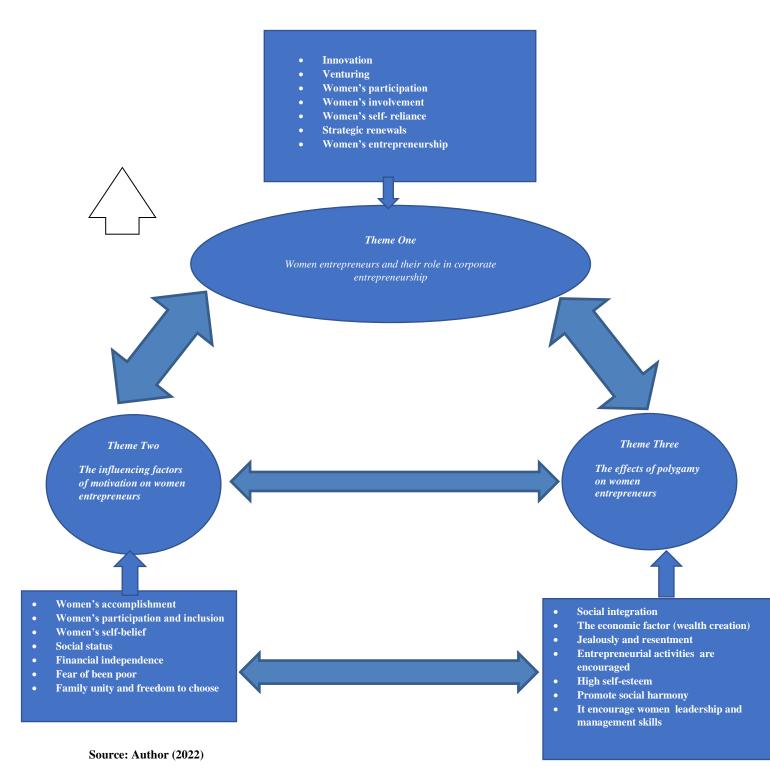
polygamy and how it affects women entrepreneurs.

According to some participants in this study, polygamy breeds hatred among family members and commodifies women, and this is consistent with extant findings (Gillett, 1999; Obonye, 2012). From the findings, women entrepreneurs lack funds to expand because the founder has so many wives and children to provide for. Also, the findings indicate that women entrepreneurs have no inheritance and are considered properties of their husbands. Although these views are the minority, divergent opinions and perspectives are essential for a robust research outcome. The study findings reveal polygamy to be a practice embedded in cultural

[&]quot;I do not like polygamy, period. Polygamy makes men superior and women inferior. It brings hatred. Deep hatred among family members. Its effects on women entrepreneurs are not palatable. Jealousy, lack of funds, resentment, backstabbing are all the gains of polygamy." (Evelyn Suzi, female family member, Guinea-Egbuson University).

norms. Despite the proliferation of Christianity in the southern part of Nigeria, the practice of polygamy thrives in patriarchal societies, and is not a cultural trait that is nearing extinction.

Figure 6.4: Thematic Map on The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms



6.5. Summary of the Chapter

The findings from this study offer a wide-ranging understanding of the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous corporate family firms in Nigeria. From the study findings, three themes emerged about the role of women entrepreneurs. A thematic map (see figure 6.4) on the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms showed the theme generation pattern. Themes are drawn from the triangulated data sources. Each theme demonstrates the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate polygamous family firms.

Chapter Seven

Cross-Case Analysis and Discussion

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the role of women entrepreneurs is compared among four corporate family firms (universities) in Nigeria, using cross-case analysis. A cross-case analysis provides an in-depth investigation and comparisons between cases, with a view to supporting empirical evidence and theoretical predictions (Carlsen and Getz, 2001; Miles and Huberman, 1994). To generate an empirical contribution, the cross-case analysis clarifies hidden questions, provokes new findings, and recommends alternative courses of action (Gersick, 1988; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Ranfagni et al., 2021). Cross-case analyses are either case-oriented or variable-oriented (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

For this study, the case-oriented approach is employed because it allows for similarities and differences across various cases of an event that may influence the outcome of this study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Also, the dynamism of family firms allows for a case-oriented approach to explore the most parsimonious means in complex phenomena (Miles and Huberman, 1994) – in this case, polygamous family firms (Koroye and Dada, 2022). In doing so, a cross-case analysis provides the researcher with an in-depth investigation and comparisons between cases, with a view to supporting empirical evidence and theoretical predictions (Carlsen and Getz, 2001; Miles and Huberman, 1994). This study has grouped individual cases "facilitate the comparison of commonalities and differences in the events, activities, and processes that are the units of analysis in case studies." In this way, the study has merged and integrated similarities and differences from each case within the descriptive context (Ranfagni et al., 2021).

From the individual cases, the researcher then conducted a cross-case analysis to examine themes. A set of three themes emerged after data familiarisation (see Chapter Six). From the thematic approach, the researcher further merged these themes based on their similarities and differences (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Getz et al., 2004). Each theme represents a collection of the ideas and experiences of the cases. The themes demonstrate the overall goal of the cross-case analysis – an important aspect of the study (see Chapter Six and Figure 6.4) – and collectively fit into the framework and approaches of the four participating institutions (Gioia et al., 2013). The researcher reflected on the generated themes to ensure clarity and trustworthiness in the research process. Accuracy and credibility are the hallmarks of reflexibility in cross-case analysis. In this vein, reflexivity in research:

"means turning the researcher's lens back onto oneself to recognise and take responsibility for one's own situatedness within the research and the effect that it may have on the setting and people being studied, the questions being asked, the data being collected, and the data's interpretation" (Beger, 2015, p. 220).

7.2 Cross-Case Analysis: An Analytical Framework

An analytical framework enhances the researcher's investigative capabilities and clearly displays them in cross-case studies (Merriam, 1998). Acknowledged for its evidence and procedures (Merriam, 1998), an analytical framework illustrates the strategy and emphasis on how the study was conducted. The researcher assessed individual statements that were grouped separately to form a pool of commonalities (see Table 7.1). In this vein, this study escaped the 'mindless' description of many case studies to enhance rigour (Adams and White, 1994, p. 573). Table 7.1., below, is a visual presentation of the understanding of the cross-case analysis for this study. The researcher demonstrated the strategy, analytical focus, and remarks to understand the individual and cross-cases.

Cross-Case Analysis Framework Table 7.1

Cases	Strategy	Analytical Focus	Remarks
Mololo University Torupere University Gita University	Critical engagement in the triangulated data sources	Across all cases	From contemporary events
Guinea-Egbuson University	Engagement of each data source	Within each case	Identifies significant statements
Mololo University Torupere University Gita University	Direct quotes extracts Significant statements reviewed	Across all cases	Identifies categories of statements common to each
Guinea-Egbuson University	from interviews, direct observation, and documentation	Across all cases	participant
	Assessment of individual statements	Within and across all cases	Triangulates original data sources
Mololo University Torupere University Gita University Guinea-Egbuson University	Reflexivity	Within and across all cases	Identifies any personal beliefs or biases. Responds to any potential bias
Mololo University Torupere University Gita University	Theme generation	Generated from the collection of significant statements or words or phrases	Birth of themes
Guinea-Egbuson University		Across all cases	Building on the themes

Source: Author 2022

7.3 Discussion

Studies have shown that "African [Nigerian] women are historically no strangers to entrepreneurship" (Okpara et al., 2011. p. 222), and this reality is the case today. From extant studies, Nigerian women entrepreneurs dominate the informal sectors (Okpara et al., 2011; Otoo et al., 2011): "The informal sector usually refers to unregistered, unregulated, and untaxed businesses, including service enterprises, production activities, and street vendor sales, while the formal sector includes taxed, registered, and regulated enterprises." (Spring, 2009, p. 12). However, this study discusses the role of women entrepreneurs in the formal sector, specifically in private universities (Kloot et al., 2004). The Nigerian government has continually focused on policies, strategies, and programmes that encourage women entrepreneurs in all sectors (Akinbami and Aransiola, 2016). Although they are on the increase in the informal sector, they remain mostly invisible in the formal sector (Halkias et al., 2011).

The literature has perceived family firms to be owned and managed in monogamous relationships, portraying widespread European culture (Chua, 1999; Kampouri et al., 2022; Wong et al., 1992), thereby creating an existing research gap in the literature. In addressing this gap, this study focuses on family-owned firms that are polygamous. While there is a paucity of research addressing polygamy and women entrepreneurs, the role of Nigerian women entrepreneurs in polygamy is acknowledged for nation-building through innovation and creativity (Koroye and Dada, 2022). Women entrepreneurs support the university economy extensively in different ways, as owners of corporate ventures. These ventures contribute to the growth and development of the universities. In a broader context, this study agrees with Alkhaled and Berglund (2018) that "women are not only good for entrepreneurship, but that entrepreneurship can also be good for women" (p. 877). In doing so, the stated research questions address the research gap.

The study contributes to the three theoretical perspectives – the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism theories – employed in the study. The resource-based view analysis links to the contribution to the family, individual- and firm-level value creation through the exploration of inherent family competencies. Family competencies include skills, knowledge, resource allocation, and capabilities. In the context of this study, multiple wives and children are inherent resources that have capabilities, are valuable, and cannot be imitated for strategic growth and competitive advantages (Barney, 1991). The resource-based view strengthens the perception and understanding of polygamy as the unique resource that creates value at the individual, family, and firm levels. This study also contributes to the theory of altruism, as shared family relationships and cultural practices – for instance, an additional wife – are the most crucial differentiators, with an effectual influence on the growth and development of polygamous family firms. Liberal feminism advocates for equality between men and women. Other scholars would argue that equality in marriage will

stop polygamists. Gender activists like Obonye (2012) would argue that women are deprived of freedom in polygamy. Obonye (2012) propounds that "polygamy constitutes a veritable assault on women's right to equality" (p. 146). While debunking Obonye's (2012) views on polygamy, this study contributes to theory and argues that polygamy is a consensual relationship based on love, choice, equality, and freedom, and these are the core concepts of liberal feminism.

7.10 Summary of the Chapter

This study has comprehensively examined the three stated research questions. This chapter has highlighted how the research questions shape an overall understanding of the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate polygamous family firms. In doing so, three theoretical perspectives (the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism) have been discussed. The resource-based view is an internalised strategic resource that firms exploit for sustained competitive advantage. The theory of altruism motivates individuals to act kindly without expecting any return (Azizi et al., 2022), while liberal feminism advocates gender equality in the family and society.

Chapter Eight Conclusions

8.1 Introduction

To conclude, this study has investigated a Nigerian contemporary polygamous family perspective and its influence on the role of women entrepreneurs. In doing so, new insights have been identified. The influence of polygamy on the role of women entrepreneurs and vice versa may seem worlds apart in Europe and elsewhere, but a closer look reveals that polygamy and women entrepreneurs pre-date modern African (Nigerian) civilisation. The role of women entrepreneurs in polygamy is deep-rooted, as its significance is diverse in the socio-economic development of Nigeria. Elsewhere it is not described as a novel cultural practice, but it is a common one in the African context. In this vein, this study situates findings and distinguishes women entrepreneurs' roles within the context of polygamy.

Although extant literature is silent on the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms, this study introduces and contributes this originality to the literature. Such contributions include the roles of women as multi-layered – as wives, co-wives, mothers, and entrepreneurs. Drawing from the blend of three theoretical perspectives (the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism), this study has debunked and confirmed existing theories on the role of women in corporate family firms. The study shows contrasting perspective to the perception that women in less developed countries are not entrepreneurial. Rather, the study confirms that entrepreneurial behaviours are gender-blind. It has also debunked the narrative that polygamy subjugates women. On the contrary, polygamy gives women the right to inherit and to provide inheritance. It gives women the freedom to venture and be entrepreneurial.

The study unravels the role of women entrepreneurs as impactful and as positively influencing the socio-cultural dynamics of polygamous family firms. All family firms are faced with conflicts, including polygamous ones. More prevalent in the latter are the cowives' and siblings' conflicts. The study concludes that co-wives' rivalries in polygamy have positively impacted the role of women entrepreneurs. In other words, corporate ventures may be reliable and strategic sources to curb infighting among family members in the polygamous context. This suggests that there is a positive outcome to conflict management in polygamous family firms. The role of women in corporate family firms is novel in the academic community; this study concludes that entrepreneurship is good for Nigerian women as managers of corporate ventures, innovators, and strategists. In this vein, women entrepreneurs are creative and innovative, and have championed breakthrough inventions and ideas in their roles as spouses, managers, and family members.

The following recommendations are made based on the study outcome. First, to the university administrators and policy makers, women entrepreneurs in universities require further training and development in new skills, knowledge, and technologies in entrepreneurship. This will help them to expand and stay competitive in business. Second, to the Nigerian government, in partnership with the universities, the government should develop vocational and entrepreneurial training centres to encourage women's corporate entrepreneurial participation. Programmes that will empower women entrepreneurs to create jobs, improve the economy, and boost family harmony should be encouraged. They will also encourage innovation, corporate venturing, creativity, and strategic renewal, which are subjective to individuals and firms. Third, to the Nigerian government (legislative arm), gender equality bill and enforcement policies will bridge the gender gap, hence such bills should be passed. Fourth, to family firm researchers and gender experts, research is silent on the positive influence of polygamy on family firms, but this study has reported views that it can create strategic economic growth and maintain family harmony. Finally, to parents and schoolteachers at all levels, gender education for boys is also recommended. Universities,

other institutions of learning, family and non-family firms, worship centres, and society at large should inculcate within young men that women and men are equal. This will forestall gender disparity and build inclusivity in society. Conclusively, more women should be in entrepreneurship. This recommendation is consistent with extant studies (Ilie et al., 2018). Therefore, family firms should consider inculcating entrepreneurial orientation at an early stage of girl-child socialisation in family firms.

8.2 Mapping Principal Findings with Research Objectives/Questions

The research objectives for this thesis are actions intended to answer the stated research questions. As argued by De Massis and Kotlar (2014), research questions are the starting point in any good research. Therefore, this thesis provides the road map to proceed and identify and focus on the research gaps and findings.

8.2.1 The First Research Question

This section discusses the first research question (see RQ1). The section shows the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate entrepreneurship, in eradicating poverty (Okpara, 2011), in employment generation, and in enhancing economic sustainability in Nigeria (Sajuyigbe and Fadeyibi, 2017). Each case has its commonalities and differences. Each response was grouped to form a central unit. In doing so, the study engaged with each data source within and across cases to identify significant statements on corporate entrepreneurship and the role of women entrepreneurs. The study identifies categories of statements common to each participant and reconnects significant statements from interviews, direct observation, and documentation. The findings show that the role of women entrepreneurs is strategic towards institutional changes, stimulating the decision-making processes in the universities, and initiating breakthrough ideas through policy implementation.

From the cross-case investigation, all four universities agreed that entrepreneurship is pivotal to addressing the economic challenges in their university and in society. From the study

findings, women entrepreneurs are found to be proactive, which has positive impacts on the universities. These findings validate extant studies that proactiveness and 'creative thoughts' are sacrosanct in entrepreneurship, which are applicable to women entrepreneurs, while "highly innovative [and] creative thoughts" inspire entrepreneurship (Adesola et al., 2019, p. 484), and various studies have shown that innovation is gender-neutral (Alkhaled and Berglund, 2018; Babalola, 2009). There is a consensus from the cross-case analysis that women entrepreneurs have the potential to turn the universities around through their roles in innovation and creativity, economic strength, and management skills. Findings across all four universities indicate that women entrepreneurs are viewed as – and view themselves – as industrious, enablers, and creative towards launching new policies and products within the universities. Also, the findings demonstrate that the roles of women entrepreneurs as managers and owners of businesses are on the increase. There are deliberate policies across the cases, to emancipate women and break the gender mirage in the universities.

From the cross-case analysis, it is observed that it is a common practice to allow wives of polygamists to own and manage corporate ventures resulting from the effect of patriarchal culturalism (succession) and family traditions. The pool of respondents indicates that when women are all engaged in entrepreneurial activities, it reduces information asymmetry and increases competition (Ogundana et al., 2021). However, there is a consensus across cases that women are systematically oppressed and frustrated within the patriarchal context. Nonetheless, women have found a way to challenge and silence their oppressors [men] through breakthrough corporate entrepreneurial activities. These research findings are consistent with extant studies (Kloot et al., 2004; Ogundana et al., 2021).

There are contrary reactions that are peculiar within cases. From Mololo University, the findings show that cultural beliefs and family traditions are peculiar in polygamous family firms, and influence women's socialisation. Family tradition influences the activities of

women, including their role in entrepreneurship and inheritance. For instance, at Mololo University, women are not allowed to inherit properties, and this has hindered their entrepreneurial abilities to achieve more. These socio-cultural challenges have caused institutional tension and family conflict and have negatively impacted women's entrepreneurial role in the university. The findings show an inclination towards discrimination in Gita University, and how it has influenced the adaptability of the socio-cultural norms of women's role in the family (Ajekwe, 2017). At Torupere University, meanwhile, cultural beliefs and family traditions appear to influence women entrepreneurs, as women are considered better in small business trading (petty) than men, while men are decision and policy makers. At Guinea-Egbuson University, women do not have the same cultural privileges as men. For instance, men are considered the better gender at keeping the university's guarded secrets than women.

8.2.2 The Second Research Question

This section discusses the second research question (see RQ2). Generally, corporate entrepreneurship is the act of entrepreneurial activities within an existing organisation. It entails innovation, proactiveness, venturing, and strategic renewal (Kuratko et al., 2017). The societal perception of the role of women is as caregivers and home managers, while men are considered as breadwinners and providers of economic goods. This social view and gender role are entrenched in families and firms. To challenge this narrative, findings from the cross-case analysis show that women are into entrepreneurship for diverse reasons. They want economic freedom, career advancement, and satisfaction. It is viewed as their fundamental right to be free economically; such economic freedom creates jobs, provides for the family and serves as spousal support, and encourages more start-ups.

The cross-case analysis shows that the desire for institutionalised change and economic emancipation are motivating factors for women entrepreneurs. The findings show that the willingness to participate equally with men in all economic endeavours resonates across cases. Also, the fear of poverty and the choice of flexible working hours motivates women entrepreneurs to be innovative. Furthermore, earning extra money for families, generating revenue for their universities, and taking control of their economic destinies through entrepreneurship are motivating factors. While all cases accord with these findings, there are also contrasting findings. One participant at Mololo University commented that once a woman entrepreneur is financially independent, it demotivates their natural obligation of being submissive to their spouses and other male family members, who may make deliberate attempts to hinder their growth through cultural barriers. At Gita University, successful women entrepreneurs are pressured to stick to the traditional gender role, rather than venture into entrepreneurship. At Torupere University, the lack of a conducive entrepreneurial environment demotivates women entrepreneurs. To some respondents, the institutional support is abysmal; hence, the university is not seen as women-friendly.

8.2.3 The Third Research Question

This section addresses the paucity of studies on women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms through the third research question (see RQ3). Studies on polygamy tend to be biased; this study brings a positive perspective of polygamy and women entrepreneurs to the literature. In doing so, the study sampled diverse participants' views and used a cross-case analysis. The findings show that there is a favourable paradigm shift in the rights of women to equality, inclusivity, and empowerment in the universities. Women entrepreneurs are more involved in the day-to-day administration of the universities and demonstrate their willingness to engage in innovation, corporate venturing, and renewal. As gathered from this study, polygamy has appeared to enable valuable social and women's cultural rights that are empowering and transformative, including their rights to entrepreneurship. From the cross-

case analysis, women's active participation in entrepreneurship unties the bounded chains of men's domination of entrepreneurship. Furthermore, there is a consensus that polygamy alters the glass-ceiling narrative through proactive engagement and encouragement of women entrepreneurs to take the initiative and to be decisive in corporate venturing. The findings also indicate that polygamy encourages women to control, plan, and organise entrepreneurial activities in their corporate entities. These managerial acts entail analytical, strategic, tactical, and operational courses of action towards survival and growth. All the cases demonstrate that polygamy reduces poverty by enabling women entrepreneurs to be corporate influencers in various ventures. This entails strategic planning and the allocation of resources to achieve set goals.

However, the decline of polygamy has been predicted, due to economic depression and social factors (Demographic and Health Survey, 2013). As evidenced across all cases, polygamy is a practice that pre-dates modern history and is not a custom near extinction. This finding is consistent with extant literature that "polygamy as a custom will remain" (Mwambene, 2017, p. 5). Contrary findings within all cases show that despite the strategic positions occupied by women, they are obliged by custom to respect and dignify their spouses, male siblings, and other male family members. However, polygamy is not always viewed in such a positive light. This socio-cultural narrative of polygamy lowers women's self-esteem and increases their risk of psychological distress. For instance, Mololo University emphasises that women are deprived of start-up funds. These acts are prevalent and precede contemporary realities of men. That is, women are perceived as inferior and men as superior, even in entrepreneurship. The university policies and gender roles clearly indicate gender supremacy in entrepreneurial activities. These claims are stereotypical and have hindered women's entrepreneurial growth in polygamous family firms. From Torupere University, the findings demonstrate that the act

of polygamy is criticised by most women entrepreneurs, but divorce was not an option for them. The factors restraining most women from divorce are their corporate ventures. At Guinea-Egbuson University, it was reported that polygamy brings loneliness and unhappiness among family members at the university. Polygamy also brings infighting and a sense of unhealthy competition among women entrepreneurs. This, in turn, affects the overall performance of the university.

8.3 Contributions to Knowledge

This thesis contributes to the theory and practice of women entrepreneurs by exploring strategies and challenges within the context of family firms, women's entrepreneurship, and corporate entrepreneurship. Extant studies indicate that a family firm has the potential to contribute to societal development through entrepreneurship (Cunningham and Seaman, 2022; Hu and Hughes, 2020; Rogoff and Heck, 2003). Therefore, men and women should be fully represented as entrepreneurs (Akanmu et al., 2018; Campopiano et al., 2017). However, women entrepreneurs are under-represented in family firms, which necessitates this study (Terjesen and Elam, 2012). To address this gap, the study explores the theories of the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism to ascertain the role of women entrepreneurs is unclear, perhaps because few efforts have been made by researchers to develop a theoretical framework for women entrepreneurs. This study contributes to the development of these theories and proffers a new direction for women entrepreneurs. The study thus develops key themes from the data collection to explore strategies and challenges for women entrepreneurs in family firms.

Recent studies have shown the advantages of the tripartite theoretical lens in the study of family firms (Bingham et al., 2011; Galan Mashenene and Kumburu, 2020; Howorth and

123

Kemp, 2019). However, this is the first known study to situate findings using tripartite theoretical lenses to provide a comprehensive overview of the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms. Therefore, the study contributes to research on the practice of polygamy, as it influences the role of women entrepreneurs in terms of family harmony, decision making, entrepreneurial legacies, and women's sense of identity. Findings from Europe, North America, and some parts of Asia have shaped the research findings and the concept of family firms in the 'traditional family context' (Cruz and Basco, 2018; Chua et al., 1999; De Massis et al., 2015; Ramadani and Roy, 2015), but there is a conceptual and theoretical gap in the literature on polygamy as a family unit within the context of family firms. This study brings the perspective of 'polygamous family firms' to the literature.

According to the United Nations (Entrepreneurship and e-Business Development for Women, 2006), there are lower participation rates of women entrepreneurs in formal larger enterprises in Nigeria, and Akpoviroro et al. (2021) argue that women have carved a niche to dominate the Nigerian informal sector. Considering the research gaps and the paucity of theoretical and empirical findings on women's entrepreneurship in formal organisations, this study contributes to the literature and develops a new gender-based model for women entrepreneurs in corporate Nigerian family firms, specifically, private universities.

8.3.1 Theoretical Contributions and Implications

From extant studies, the paucity of findings on the role of women in corporate family firms poses a research gap; hence, this study addresses the gap in the literature. In doing so, three theoretical perspectives (the resource-based view, altruism, and liberal feminism) were employed to contribute to the understanding from diverse academic theoretical lenses. Each theory employed has its comparative advantage in its response to the research questions (Tavallaei and Talib, 2010). This study contributes to the family firm literature by

introducing the polygamous family dimension, which complements the 'traditional family dimension' that has dominated the family firm literature for decades (Chua et al., 1999). In this vein, this study adds to the literature and introduces the polygamous family firm concept. The study also contributes to the literature on polygamy and women's entrepreneurship. Studies have perceived polygamy as one of the root causes of poverty in Nigeria (Fenske, 2015), but there is a paucity of studies on the benefits of polygamy, specifically how it may encourage women entrepreneurs. This study brings this perspective to the literature.

In traditional family firms, there are conflicting interests among family members. These conflicts are also echoed in polygamous families. Extant studies have mostly associated polygamous family structures with family conflicts. The most prominent of these conflicts are wives' and siblings' rivalries (Bamgbade and Saloviita, 2014; Shepard, 2013; Tertilt, 2005). However, this conflict is not "permanently conflictual, as is currently claimed by gender activists who want the practice [polygamy] criminalised" (Amone, 2020, p. 743). In polygamy, when co-wives' conflicts are understood, it has positive effects, and this study contributes to the literature that co-wives' rivalries can have a positive outcome. For example, co-wives' desire to perform better than the others, and encourage increased entrepreneurial alertness and corporate ventures.

Patriarchy thrives in societies where the history of masculinity dominates everyday lives and women are limited in opportunities, especially in family firms. This has affected women entrepreneurs' career progression and their visibility in family firms (Goettner-Abendroth, 2018). This study investigates these challenges using the social constructivism perspective. Furthermore, it contributes to the theoretical development of the resource-based view, using the polygamist vantage point. The resource-based view is a strategic management framework employed to combine organisational resources to achieve sustained competitive advantage (Madhani, 2010). Basically, this theory argues that the bundle of resources within individual

firms makes them different from one another. In this vein, the study contributes to the resource-based view theory that multiple wives and children are inherent resources that have capabilities, are valuable, and cannot be imitated, thereby reducing agency costs, and sustaining comparative advantages. In this regard, the findings from this study can help researchers, practitioners, and the Nigerian government to view women entrepreneurs from a broader perspective. It might also assist in understanding the Nigerian university family firm implications and the risks of depriving women by hindering their entrepreneurial abilities.

As related to the family member, altruism motivates individuals to act kindly without expecting any return (Azizi et al., 2022). From extant studies, altruism promotes happiness and selfless concern for other human beings. It connotes family and organisational harmony, trust, cohesion, and the social network of interconnectivity (Ault et al., 2016; Azizi et al., 2022). In this vein, this study contributes to the literature on altruism, that the shared family bond and cultural practices - for instance, an additional wife - are the most crucial differentiator, with a potent influence on the growth and development of polygamous family firms. In addition, the study contributes to the altruism literature that additional wives might bring cohesion and love to the polygamous family. Additional wives are assets that lead to sustainability and transgenerational family firms. Furthermore, this study adds that the altruist act can create agency problems in polygamy. The altruist (polygamist) is required to treat all co-wives equally. This may lead to a firm's decline if resources are not adequate. The basic goal of liberal feminism is gender parity in the family and society. Liberal feminists advocate for gender equality, equal pay, access to education, and better working conditions for women. This study contributes to the theory of liberal feminism towards diversity and equality of gender. Gender proponents like Obonye (2012) would argue that the rights of women are infringed in polygamy. Obonye (2012) propounds that "polygamy constitutes a veritable assault on women's right to equality" (p. 146). Accordingly, Sigman (2006) holds that

polygamy is synonymous with women's slavery and repressiveness. Although women's slavery is unacceptable, this study views polygamy as a consensual relationship based on love, choice, equality, and freedom, and these are the core concepts of liberal feminism. Furthermore, it is the fundamental human right of women to decide whom to love and marry.

Additionally, liberal feminism is about respect and dignity for women's choices. The study contributes to the literature that such choices also include being in polygamous relationships. Thus, polygamy provides women with the options to choose to marry and divorce if desired. Once both parties agree to divorce rights, women are empowered to reject and oppose polygamy. In this regard, this study debunks the narrative that polygamy always constitutes an affront to women's rights. Finally, this study shows that women in polygamous family firms are genuinely entrepreneurial and innovative in the Schumpeterian context. These findings debunk Drucker's (1985) theory of creative imitators, thereby justifying women as entrepreneurial, innovative, charismatic, and intelligent enough to stimulate innovative performance and productivity in polygamous family firms.

8.3.2 Practical Contributions and Implications of the Findings

Over the last three decades, there have been efforts by women as activists, governments, and researchers to overcome discrimination against women in society. These efforts are yet to yield any positive outcome, as the perception of women as second-class people in the family and workplace persists to date. Women are discriminated against in corporate and managerial roles, which has resulted in revenue and human resources losses (Alkhaled, 2020; Amone, 2020; Okpara et al., 2011, Otoo et al., 2011). Therefore, to reduce organisational losses, the findings from this study suggest that the government and family firms' hierarchies adhere to the discourse, dialogues, and findings on the role of women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. From the study findings, women entrepreneurs should be empowered to create employment,

generate revenues, and foster family unity. More particularly, women entrepreneurs bridge the gender gap and provide equal opportunities for women. Practitioners and the Nigerian government should promote entrepreneurship to reduce poverty and illiteracy among women in general. To boost their creativity within the corporate entrepreneurial dimensions, women's inter-university entrepreneurial seminars and conferences should be encouraged. These seminars will enhance more start-ups and promote existing corporate ventures. While these corporate ventures pay taxes to the government, they boost women's creativity on the corporate ladder (Dionco-Adetayo et al., 2005; Nwachukwu and Ogbo, 2012) and generate more employment (Abimbola and Agboola, 2011; Thaddeus, 2012) to reduce poverty and illiteracy among women (Otoo et al., 2011). In addition, practitioners and the government should take objective and subjective measures to boost and encourage women to increase socio-economic advantages to their firm and to society. Women's emancipation, empowerment, and the enablers of gender parity should be encouraged to enhance participatory entrepreneurship (Abimbola and Agboola, 2011; Nwachukwu and Ogbo, 2012; Thaddeus, 2012).

8.4 Limitations and Future Research

This study is not without its limitations. The study has used established theories and concepts from the literature to investigate the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms. This might limit the research outcome and generalisation. All respondents are employees, family, and non-family members, which might increase bias in the findings. The data collection process, methodology, and method of case studies used in this research pose some limitations. The generalisation of results from the case study is limited by context (Hammersley, 2000; Piekkari and Welch, 2018; Punch, 2005). As the sample population is forty-two research participants from four case studies, this restricts the generalisability of the findings.

The limitations of this study also offer opportunities for future research. First, there is a need for comprehensive and comparative studies between polygamous and traditional family firms on the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms, enabling a holistic view. This study situates findings within Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). More studies can focus on different sectors, such as the manufacturing and the health sectors of the economy to ascertain the role of women entrepreneurs. As Dada et al. (2016) suggest, findings from higher education can influence other sectors of the economy.

Furthermore, because research is inexhaustible, future researchers can deepen the study area with larger sample sizes and research populations, buttressing and validating the findings from this study. Moreover, family firm scholars' preference for qualitative methods is well documented (De Massis and Kotlar, 2014). This study has used the qualitative case study methodology, comprising interviews, observations, and documentation, for an in-depth understanding of the study area. Future research can utilise quantitative methods or mixed methods to enhance generalisability. This study sample is limited to forty-two participants from four case studies. Future researchers might expand the cases and sample size and population. Finally, the findings from this study provide interesting dimensions for future studies to further develop the concept and context of the role of women in polygamous family firms. In this vein, future research can examine issues related to: (a) the psychological influence on women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms; (b) co-wives' influence on corporate entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms; and (c) the benefits and challenges of women entrepreneurs in polygamous family firms. Insights from such studies could shape the development of the concept of polygamous family firms.

8.5 Summary of the Chapter

This study has investigated a Nigerian contemporary polygamous family perspective and its influence on the role of women entrepreneurs. In doing so, new insights have been identified through three stated research questions. This chapter has highlighted how the research questions shape and map an overall understanding of the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate polygamous family firms. In doing so, three theoretical perspectives (the resourcebased view, altruism, and liberal feminism) have been discussed. The resource-based view is an internalised strategic resource that firms exploit for sustained competitive advantage. The theory of altruism motivates individuals to act kindly without expecting any return (Azizi et al., 2022), while liberal feminism advocates gender equality in the family and society. The chapter contributes to knowledge by situating findings in a novel context, polygamy. In addition, the chapter has highlighted the beneficiaries or practical implications of the study and discusses the challenges and potential of Nigerian polygamous universities. Recommendations are made to strategically position Nigerian polygamous universities to foster corporate entrepreneurship among women. Like every other academic research study, the chapter has discussed the actual and potential limitations. Finally, the chapter has provided dimensions for future research studies to further develop the concept and context of the role of women in polygamous family firms.

REFERENCES

Abdi, M., Kazemiolum, M., Mohammadpoorzanjani, M. and Parvizi, A., 2020. Gender diversity within audit committee, board of directors and chief financial officer and disclosure of corporate social responsibility: An altruism theory test. *Accounting and Auditing Review*, *26*(4), pp.544-569.

Abdullahi, A.A., Adekeye, S.D. and Shehu, R.A., 2011. Towards improving gender relations in Nigeria: Implications for sustainable development. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, *13*(8), pp.239-253.

Abimbola, O.H. and Agboola, M.G., 2011. Environmental factors and entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 13(4), pp.166-176.

Abiodun-Oyebanji, O. and Olaleye, F., 2011. Women in university management: The Nigerian experience. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research (CIER)*, 4(9), pp.19-28.

Abouzaid, S. (2008). IFC family business governance handbook, Retrieved from http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/159c9c0048582f6883f9ebfc046daa89/FB_English_final_2008.pdf?MOD = AJPERES.

Acharya, A.S., Prakash, A., Saxena, P., and Nigam, A., 2013. Sampling: Why and how of it. *Indian Journal of Medical Specialties*, 4(2), pp.330-333.

Adams, G. And White, J., 1994. "Dissertation Research in Public Administration and Cognate Fields: An Assessment of Methods and Quality", *Public Administration Review*, 54(6), pp. 565-76.

Adawo, L., Gikonyo, L.W., Kudu, R.M. And Mutoro, O., 2011. History of Feminism in Kenya. Kenya: AECID.

Adebowale, A., 2012. A study of women attitudes toward their socioeconomic and political empowerment: Nigeria women and national development. *Global Advanced Research Journal of Management and Business Studies*, 1(7), pp.228-239.

Adegbite, O.O. and Machethe, C.L., 2020. Bridging the financial inclusion gender gap in smallholder agriculture in Nigeria: An untapped potential for sustainable development. *World Development*, *127*, p.104755.

Ademiluyi, L.F., 2019. Institutional Inhibitions to Female Entrepreneurship in Nigeria: Implications for Entrepreneurship Education. *Business Education Innovation Journal*, 11(2).

Ademokun, F. And Ajayi, O., 2012. Entrepreneurship Development, Business Ownership, And Women Empowerment in Nigeria. *Journal of Business Diversity*, *12*(1), pp.72-87.

Adesola, S., Den Outer, B. And Mueller, S., 2019. New Entrepreneurial Worlds: Can the Use of Role Models in Higher Education Inspire Students? The Case of Nigeria. *Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies*, 11(4), pp. 465-491.

Adler, P.A. and Adler, P., 2011. The tender cut. In The Tender Cut. New York: New York University Press.

Agarwal, R. and Helfat, C.E., 2009. Strategic renewal of organizations. *Organization science*, 20(2), pp.281-293.

Aguoru, A., 2020. Women Emancipation and The Politics of Biography in The Narratives of Dr. Bola Kuforiji-Olubi of Nigeria and Princess Elizabeth Bagaaya of Uganda. In *Women's Political Communication in Africa* (pp. 43-59). Cham.: Springer.

Ahl, H., 2002. The Construction of The Female Entrepreneur as The Other. In B. Czarniawska and H.J. Hopfl (Eds.) *Casting the Other. The Production and Maintenance of Inequalities in Work Organizations*, pp.52-67. Abingdon: Routledge.

Ahl, H., 2006. Why Research on Women Entrepreneurs Needs New Directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 30(5), pp.595-621.

Ahl, H., 2012. Gender, organizations, and entrepreneurship. *Handbook on Organisational Entrepreneurship*, pp.134-150. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar.

Ahl, H., Berglund, K., Pettersson, K. and Tillmar, M., 2016. From feminism to Fem Inc. ism: On the uneasy relationship between feminism, entrepreneurship, and the Nordic welfare state. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, *12*(2), pp.369-392.

Ajayi, I.A. and Haastrup, E.T., 2008. Management of university education in Nigeria: Problems and possible solutions. *Revitalization of African Higher Education*, 4, pp.222-235.

Ajekwe, C.C., 2017. Effect of culture on entrepreneurship in Nigeria. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(2), pp.1-6.

Akanmu, P.M., Clement, J.O. and Samaila, M., 2018. Impact of cooperative microfinance on the performance of women entrepreneurship in Kwara state Nigeria. *Financial Markets, Institutions and Risks (FMIR)*.2(8), pp.20-28.

Akehurst, G., Simarro, E. and Mas-Tur, A., 2012. Women entrepreneurship in small service firms: Motivations, barriers and performance. *The Service Industries Journal*, *32*(15), pp.2489-2505.

Akhmedova, A., Cavallotti Oldani, R. and Marimon Viadiu, F., 2018. Barriers or motivation? Career progress in the family firm: daughters' perspective. *European Journal of Family Business*, 8(2), pp. 103-115.

Akinbami, C.A.O. and Aransiola, J.O., 2016. Qualitative exploration of cultural practices inhibiting rural women entrepreneurship development in selected communities in Nigeria. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 28(2), pp.151-167.

Akinbola, A.O., Alaka, N.S., Kowo, S.A. and Adeyemo, A.A., 2020. Family Business Operations and Sequel of Internationalisation in Nigeria. *Economics and Business*, *34*(1), pp.126-138.

Akinbola, O. A., Ogunnaike, O. O., and Amaihian, A. B., 2013. The influence of contextual factors on entrepreneurial intention of university student in Nigeria. Creating Global Competitive Economies: 2020 Vision Planning and Implementation, pp. 2297-2309.

Akindele, R.I., Oginni, B.O. and Omoyele, S.O., 2012. Survival of private universities in Nigeria: Issues, challenges, and prospects. *International Journal of Innovative Research in Management*, *1*(2), pp.30-43.

Akinpelu, O.R., Modupe, O. and Ajayi Olayemi, O. 2019. Influence of Culture on the Operations of Entrepreneurial Family Business in Nigeria. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, *3*(5), pp.245-252.

Akpoviroro, K.S., Oba-Adenuga, O.A. and Akanmu, P.M., 2021. The role of business incubation in promoting entrepreneurship and SME development. *Management and Entrepreneurship: Trends of Development*, 2(16), pp.82-100.

Aladejebi, O., 2020. 21st century challenges confronting women entrepreneurs in Southwest Nigeria. Archives of Business Research, 8(3), pp.261-280.

Alkhaled, S. and Berglund, K., 2018. 'And now I'm free': Women's empowerment and emancipation through entrepreneurship in Saudi Arabia and Sweden. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, *30*(7-8), pp.877-900.

Alkhaled, S., 2020. Women's Entrepreneurship and Political Engagement: The Impact of the Arab Spring. In Academy of Management Proceedings. 20(1), pp. 147-157

Al-Shamsi, M.S.A. and Fulcher, L.C., 2005. The impact of polygamy on United Arab Emirates' first wives and their children. *International Journal of Child and Family Welfare*, 8(1), pp.46-55.

Alshenqeeti, H., 2014. Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics Research*, 3(1), pp.39-45.

Aluko, Y.A., 2015. Patriarchy and property rights among Yoruba women in Nigeria. *Feminist Economics*, 21(3), pp.56-81.

Amare, M., Arndt, C., Mahrt, K. and Mavrotas, G., 2021. Polygynous family structure and child undernutrition in Nigeria. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 57(1) pp.1-22.

Ammenwerth, E., Iller, C. and Mansmann, U., 2003. Can evaluation studies benefit from triangulation? A case studies. *International Journal of Medical Informatics*, 70(2-3), pp.237-248.

Åmo, B.W. and Kolvereid, L., 2018. Corporate entrepreneurship. *The SAGE Handbook of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*. New York: Routledge, pp.289-278.

Amone, C. and Arao, M., 2014. The values of polygamy among the Langi People of Northern Uganda. *Religion*, *12*(5), p.6.

Amone, C., 2020. Polygamy as a dominant pattern of sexual pairing among the acholi of Uganda. *Sexuality and Culture*, 24(3), pp.733-748.

Amore, M.D., Schneider, C. and Žaldokas, A., 2013. Credit supply and corporate innovation. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 109(3), pp.835-855.

Anderson, C., 2010. Presenting and evaluating qualitative research. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 74(8).

Anderson, S. and Ray, D., 2012. The age distribution of missing women in India. *Economic and Political Weekly*, 47(47), pp.87-95.

Ang, J.S., Cole, R.A., and Lin, J.W., 2000. Agency costs and ownership structure. *The Journal of Finance*, 55(1), pp.81-106.

Antoncic, B. and Hisrich, R.D., 2001. Intrapreneurship: Construct refinement and cross-cultural validation. *Journal of business venturing*, *16*(5), pp.495-527.

Archibong, B., 2018. Historical origins of persistent inequality in Nigeria. Oxford Development Studies, 46(3), pp.325-347.

Aronoff, C. and Ward, J., 2016. Family business governance: Maximizing family and business potential. Springer.

Aronoff, C.E., 1998. Megatrends in family business. Family Business Review, 11(3), pp.181-186.

Arosa, B., Iturralde, T. and Maseda, A., 2010. Ownership structure and firm performance in non-listed firms: Evidence from Spain. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 1(2), pp.88-96.

Arteaga, R. and Escribá-Esteve, A., 2020. Heterogeneity in family firms: contextualising the adoption of family governance mechanisms. *Journal of Family Business Management*,11(2), pp.200-222.

Astrachan, J.H., and Shanker, M.C., 2003. Family businesses' contribution to the US economy: A closer look. *Family Business Review*, 16(3), pp.211-219.

Astrachan, J.H., Klein, S.B. and Smyrnios, K.X., 2002. The F-PEC scale of family influence: A proposal for solving the family business definition problem. *Family Business Review*, 15(1), pp. 45-58.

Audretsch, D., 2013. Entrepreneurship research. Management decision, 50(5), pp.755-764.

Ault, M.K. and Van Gilder, B., 2016. Polygamous family structure: How communication affects the division of household labour. *Western Journal of Communication*, 80(5), pp.559-580.

Azizi, M., Bidgoli, M.S., Maley, J.F. and Dabić, M., 2022. A stewardship perspective in family firms: A new perspective for altruism and social capital. *Journal of Business Research*, 144, pp.764-775.

Baaken, T., Alfert, C. and Kliewe, T., 2019. Corporate venturing-a new way of creating a company's future. *Optimum. Economic Studies*, (1 (99)), pp.3-21.

Babalola, S.S., 2009. Women entrepreneurial innovative behaviour: The role of psychological capital. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(11), pp.184-192.

Bai, W., Lind, C.H. and Johansson, M. (2016). The performance of international returnee ventures: the role of networking capability and the usefulness of international business knowledge. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 28(9/10), 657-680.

Bajpai, G.C., 2014. African women entrepreneur: Problems, challenges, and future opportunities. *International Journal of Managerial Studies and Research*, 2(5), pp.17-22.

Bamgbade, E.O. and Saloviita, T., 2014. School performance of children from monogamous and polygamous families in Nigeria. *Journal of Black Studies*, 45(7), pp.620-634.

Banabo, E., Ndiomu, K., and Sekeme, T., 2014. Entrepreneurship Concepts, Most-Virtue Publishers.

Barontini, R. and Bozzi, S., 2018. Family firm heterogeneity and CEO compensation in Continental Europe. *Journal of Economics and Business*, 97, pp.1-18.

Barontini, R. and Caprio, L., 2006. The effect of family control on firm value and performance: evidence from Continental Europe, *European Financial Management*, *12*(5), pp.689–723.

Basco, R., Calabrò, A. and Campopiano, G., 2019. Transgenerational entrepreneurship around the world: Implications for family business research and practice. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 10(4), pp.1-16.

Beckhard, R. and Dyer Jr, W.G., 1983. Managing continuity in the family-owned business. *Organizational Dynamics*, *12*(1), pp.5-12.

Belghiti-Mahut, S., Lafont, A.L., Rodhain, A., Rodhain, F., Temri, L. and Yousfi, O., 2016. Gender and Frugal Innovation: Four Cases of Women Innovators. *Innovations*, (3), pp.69-93.

Bernard, C., 2015. European Family Business Trends (pp. 1-24). KPMG Enterprise.

Bjuggren, P.O. and Sund, L.G., 2001. Strategic decision making in intergenerational successions of small-and medium-sized family-owned businesses. *Family Business Review*, 14(1), pp.11-23.

Block, J., Miller, D., Jaskiewicz, P. and Spiegel, F., 2013. Economic and technological importance of innovations in large family and founder firms: An analysis of patent data. *Family Business Review*, 26(2), pp.180-199.

Blundell, R. and Lockett, N. 2011. *Exploring Entrepreneurship: Practices and Perspectives*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bock, B.B. and Van der Burg, M., 2017. Gender and International Development. In B. B. Bock and M. Van der Burg (Eds.) *Gender and Rural Globalization*, pp.245-252.

Bourne, K.A., 2010. The paradox of gender equality: an entrepreneurial case study from Sweden. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 2(1), pp.10-26.

Braun, V., and Clarke, V., 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative research in psychology, 3(2), 77-101.

Braun, V., and V. Clarke. 2013. Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners. London: Sage.

Brush, C.G., 2006. Women entrepreneurs: A research overview. In A. Basu, M. Casson, N. Wadeson and B. Yeung (Eds.), *The Oxford Book of Entrepreneurship*. Oxford: OUP

Brush, C.G., and Cooper, S.Y., 2012. Female entrepreneurship and economic development: An international perspective. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 24(1-2), pp.1-6.

Brush, C.G., Carter, N.M., Greene, P.G., Hart, M.M. and Gatewood, E., 2002. The role of social capital and gender in linking financial suppliers and entrepreneurial firms: A framework for future research. *Venture Capital: An International Journal of Entrepreneurial Finance*, 4(4), pp.305-323.

Bryson, J.R., Billing, C., Hales, C., Mulhall, R. and Ronayne, M., 2022. Corporate interviewing and accessing elites in manufacturing companies: a framework to guide qualitative semi-structured interviews. In *A Research Agenda for Manufacturing Industries in the Global Economy*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Busenitz, L.W., Plummer, L.A., Klotz, A.C., Shahzad, A. and Rhoads, K., 2014. Entrepreneurship research (1985–2009) and the emergence of opportunities. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 38(5), pp.1-20.

Buttner, E.H., and Moore, D.P., 1997. Women's organizational exodus to entrepreneurship: self-reported motivations and correlates with success. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 35, pp.34-46.

Cabrera-Suárez, K., De Saá-Pérez, P. and García-Almeida, D., 2001. The succession process from a resource-and knowledge-based view of the family firm. *Family Business Review*, *14*(1), pp.37-48.

Calabrò, A., Vecchiarini, M., Gast, J., Campopiano, G., De Massis, A. and Kraus, S., 2019. Innovation in family firms: A systematic literature review and guidance for future research. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, *21*(3), pp.317-355.

Campopiano, G., De Massis, A., Rinaldi, F.R. and Sciascia, S., 2017. Women's involvement in family firms: Progress and challenges for future research. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 8(4), pp.200-212.

Campopiano, Giovanna, Patricia Gabaldón, and Daniela Gimenez-Jimenez. "Women Directors and Corporate Social Performance: An Integrative Review of the Literature and a Future Research Agenda." *Journal of Business Ethics* (2022): 1-30.

Carlsen, J., Getz, D. and Ali-Knight, J. (2001) Environmental attitudes and practices of family 198 Bibliography businesses in the rural tourism and hospitality sectors. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 9(4), pp.281–297.

Carlson, J. A. (2010). Avoiding traps in member checking. *Qualitative Report*, 15(5), pp.1102-1113.

Carnes, C. M., and Ireland, R. D. (2013). Familiness and innovation: Resource bundling as the Missing link. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 37(6), pp.1399-1419.

Carney, M. (2005). Corporate governance and competitive advantage in family-controlled firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(3), pp.249-265.

Carrasco-Hernández, A. and Jiménez-Jiménez, D., 2013. Can family firms innovate? Sharing internal knowledge from a social capital perspective. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 11(1), pp.30-37.

Carsrud, A.L., 1994. Meanderings of a resurrected psychologist or, lessons learned in creating a family business program. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *19*(1), pp.39-48.

Carsrud, A.L., 2006. Commentary: "Are we family and are we treated as family? Nonfamily employees' perceptions of justice in the family firm": It all depends on perceptions of family, fairness, equity, and justice. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *30*(6), pp.855-860.

Cassia, L., De Massis, A. and Pizzurno, E., 2012. Strategic innovation and new product development in family firms: An empirically grounded theoretical framework. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*. 18(2), pp 198-232.

Casson, M., 1982. The entrepreneur, Totowa. NJ: Barnes and Noble Books.

Casson, M., 1999. The economics of the family firm. Scandinavian economic history review, 47(1), pp.10-23.

Chesson, L.A., Howa, J.D., Lott, M.J. and Ehleringer, J.R., 2016. Development of a methodological framework for applying isotope ratio mass spectrometry to explosive components. *Forensic Chemistry*, 2, pp.9-14.

Chetty, S., 1996. The case study method for research in small-and medium-sized firms. *International Small Business Journal*, 15(1), pp.73-85.

Chirico, F., Welsh, D.H., Ireland, R.D. and Sieger, P., 2021. Family versus non-family firm franchisors: Behavioural and performance Differences. *Journal of Management Studies*, 58(1), pp.165-200.

Choy, L.T., 2014. The strengths and weaknesses of research methodology: Comparison and complimentary between qualitative and quantitative approaches. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *19*(4), pp.99-104.

Chrisman, J.J., Chua, J.H. and Sharma, P., 2005. Trends and directions in the development of a strategic management theory of the family firm. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(5), pp.555-575.

Chrisman, J.J., Chua, J.H. and Steier, L., 2005. Sources and consequences of distinctive familiness: An introduction. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(3), pp.237-247.

Chua, J. H., Chrisman, J. J. and Chang, E. P. C. (2004). 'Are family firms born or made? An exploratory investigation. *Family Business Review*, 17, 37–54.

Chua, J.H., Chrisman, J.J. and Sharma, P., 1999. Defining the family business by behavior. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23(4), pp.19-39.

Chua, J.H., Chrisman, J.J., Steier, L.P. and Rau, S.B., 2012. Sources of heterogeneity in family firms: An introduction. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 36(6), pp.1103-1113.

Churchill, H. and Sanders, T., 2007. *Getting Your PhD: A Practical Insider's Guide*. Sage Clarke, V., Braun, V. and Hayfield, N., 2015. Thematic analysis. In Smith, J.A. (Ed.), *Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods*, 222, p.248.

Colli, A., 2003. The history of family business, 1850-2000 (No. 47). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Conway, C.M. ed., 2014. The Oxford Handbook of Qualitative research in American Music Education. Oxford University Press.

Cook, C.T., 2007. Polygyny: did the Africans get it right?. Journal of Black studies, 38(2), pp.232-250.

Coughlin, J.H. and Thomas, A.R., 2002. The rise of women entrepreneurs: People, processes, and global trends. Greenwood Publishing Group.

Covin, J.G. and Miles, M.P., 1999. Corporate entrepreneurship and the pursuit of competitive advantage. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23(3), pp.47-63.

Covin, J.G. and Miller, D., 2014. International entrepreneurial orientation: Conceptual considerations, research themes, measurement issues, and future research directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 38(1), pp.11-44.

Covin, J.G. and Slevin, D.P., 1991. A conceptual model of entrepreneurship as firm behaviour. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *16*(1), pp.7-26.

Covin, J.G., Garrett Jr, R.P., Kuratko, D.F. and Shepherd, D.A., 2020. Short leash or long leash? Parenting style, initial strategic clarity, and the development of venture learning proficiency. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *35*(4), pp.1-21

Craig, J. and Dibrell, C., 2006. The natural environment, innovation, and firm performance: A comparative study. *Family Business Review*, 19(4), pp.275-288.

Craig, J.B. and Moores, K., 2006. A 10-year longitudinal investigation of strategy, systems, and environment on innovation in family firms. *Family Business Review*, *19*(1), pp.1-10.

Creswell, J.W. and Creswell, J.D., 2017. Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach. Sage publications.

Creswell, J.W. and Miller, D.L., 2000. Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, *39*(3), pp.124-130.

Creswell, J.W., 2008. Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative ad quantitative research. *Educational Research*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Creswell, J.W., and Poth, C.N., 2016. *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J.W., 2012. Educational Research: Planning. Conducting, and Evaluating, pp.375-382. Pearson

Crick, J.M., 2021. Qualitative? Journal of Strategic Marketing, 29(5), pp.390-429.

Croson, R. and Gneezy, U., 2009. Gender differences in preferences. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 47(2), pp.448-74.

Cross, M., 2021. Social Constructivism. In *The Palgrave Handbook of EU Crises* (pp. 195-211). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Cruz, A.D., and Basco, R., 2018. Family perspective on entrepreneurship. In *The Palgrave Handbook of Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Entrepreneurship*, pp. 147-175. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cruz, C., Justo, R., and De Castro, J.O., 2012. Does family employment enhance MSEs performance? Integrating socioemotional wealth and family embeddedness perspectives. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 27(1), pp.62-76.

Curimbaba, F., 2002. The dynamics of women's roles as family business managers. *Family Business Review*, 15(3), pp.239-252.

Curtis, S., Gesler, W., Smith, G. and Washburn, S., 2000. Approaches to sampling and case selection in qualitative research: examples in the geography of health. Social Science and Medicine, 50(7-8), pp.1001-1014.

Dada, O., Jack, S. and George, M., 2016. University–business engagement franchising and geographic distance: A case study of a business leadership programme, *Regional Studies*, *50*(7), pp.1217-1231.

Dada, O., Watson, A., and Kirby, D.A., 2012. Toward a model of franchisee entrepreneurship. *International Small Business Journal*, 30(5), pp.559-583.

Dada, O.L., Watson, A. and Kirby, D., 2015. Entrepreneurial tendencies in franchising: Evidence from the UK. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 22(1), pp. 82-98.

Daily, C.M. and Dollinger, M.J., 1992. An empirical examination of ownership structure in family and professionally managed firms. *Family Business Review*, 5(2), pp.117-136.

Danes, S.M., Lee, J., Stafford, K. and Heck, R.K.Z., 2008. The effects of ethnicity, families and culture on entrepreneurial experience: An extension of sustainable family business theory. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *13*(03), pp.229-268.

Danneels, E., 2002. The dynamics of product innovation and firm competences. *Strategic Management Journal*, 23(12), pp.1095-1121.

Davidsson, P., 2005. Researching Entrepreneurship. Springer, pp.1-16.

Davidsson, P., Delmar, F. and Wiklund, J., 2006. Entrepreneurship as growth; growth as entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship and the Growth of Firms*.UK: Edward Elgar, pp.21-38.

Davies, D., and Dodd, J., 2002. Qualitative research and the question of rigour. *Qualitative Health Research*, 12(2), pp.279-289.

Davis, J., and Tagiuri, R., 1985. Bivalent attitudes of the family firms. In Western Academy of Management Meeting, March (29).

Dawson, C. and Henley, A., 2012. "Push" versus "pull" entrepreneurship: an ambiguous distinction? *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, *18*(6), pp. 697-719.

De Massis, A. and Kotlar, J., 2014. The case study method in family business research: Guidelines for qualitative scholarship. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 5(1), pp.15-29.

De Massis, A., Di Minin, A. and Frattini, F., 2015. Family-driven innovation: Resolving the paradox in family firms. *California Management Review*, 58(1), pp.5-19.

De Massis, A., Frattini, F. and Lichtenthaler, U., 2013. Research on technological innovation in family firms: Present debates and future directions. *Family Business Review*, 26(1), pp.10-31.

De Massis, A., Frattini, F., Pizzurno, E. and Cassia, L., 2015. Product innovation in family versus nonfamily firms: An exploratory analysis. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53(1), pp.1-36.

De Massis, A., Sharma, P., Chua, J.H. and Chrisman, J.J., 2012. Family Business Studies: An Annotated Bibliography. Edward Elgar Publishing.

De Rosa, M., McElwee, G. and Smith, R., 2019. Farm diversification strategies in response to rural policy: A case from rural Italy. *Land Use Policy*, *81*, pp.291-301.

De Vries, K., Randel S. Carlock and Florent-Treacy, E., 2007. *Family Business on the Couch: A Psychological Perspective*. John Wiley and Sons.

Dedunu, H. and Anuradha, P., 2020. Impact of board diversity on firm performance: Evidence from Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Management, Innovation and Entrepreneurial Research*, *6*(1), pp.23-31.

Dees, G., 1998. Enterprising Non-profits. Harvard Business Review, 76(1) p.55.

Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. eds., 2011. The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research. Sage.

DeSantis, L. and Ugarriza, D.N., 2000. The concept of theme as used in qualitative nursing research. *Western Journal of Nursing Research*, 22(3), pp.351-372.

Desman, R. and Brush, T., 1991. Family Business: State of the notion. In annual meeting of the Family Firm Institute, Beaver Creek, CO.

Dess, G.G., and Lumpkin, G.T., 2005. The role of entrepreneurial orientation in stimulating effective corporate entrepreneurship. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 19(1), pp.147-156.

DeTienne, D.R. and Chandler, G.N., 2007. The role of gender in opportunity identification. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *31*(3), pp.365-386.

Dew, K., 2007. A health researcher's guide to qualitative methodologies. *Australian And New Zealand Journal of Public Health*, 31(5), pp.433-437.

Dhaliwal, A., 2022. The Mompreneurship Phenomenon: An Examination of the Antecedents and Challenges of Mothers in Business. *International Journal of Service Science, Management, Engineering, and Technology*, *13*(1), pp.1-17.

Dheepa, T. and Barani, G., 2009. Emancipation of Women through Empowerment. SIES Journal of Management, 6(2), pp. 92-101

Drury, C.G., 1995. Evaluation of human work. J. Wilson and N. Corlet. London, Taylor.

Diaz-Moriana, V., Clinton, E., Kammerlander, N., Lumpkin, G.T. and Craig, J.B., 2020. Innovation motives in family firms: A transgenerational view. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 44(2), pp.256-287.

DiCicco-Bloom, B. and Crabtree, B.F., 2006. The qualitative research interviews. *Medical Education*, 40(4), pp.314-321.

Dionco-Adetayo, E.A., Makinde, J.T. and Adetayo, J.O., 2005. Evaluation of policy implementation in women entrepreneurship development. In *ICSB-2005 Conference, Washington, DC*. available at www.womenable.com/userfiles/ downloads/ICSB_bestWOBpaper_2005.pdf (accessed January 2021).

Dissa, Y., 2016. Polygamy in Mali: social and economic implications on families. *International Journal of African and Asian Studies*, (27), pp.99-108.

Doss, C., 2013. Intrahousehold bargaining and resource allocation in developing countries. *The World Bank Research Observer*, 28(1), pp.52-78.

Drover, W., Busenitz, L., Matusik, S., Townsend, D., Anglin, A., and Dushnitsky, G., 2017. A review and road map of entrepreneurial equity financing research: venture capital, corporate venture capital, angel investment, crowdfunding, and accelerators. *Journal of Management*, *43*(6), pp.1820-1853.

Drucker, P., 2014. Innovation and entrepreneurship. Routledge.

Drucker, P.F., 2002. The discipline of innovation. Harvard Business Review, 80(8), pp.95-102.

Dubois, A., and Gadde, L.E., 2002. Systematic combining: an abductive approach to case research. *Journal of Business Research*, 55(7), pp.553-560.

Duflo, E., 2012. Women empowerment and economic development. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 50(4), pp.1051-79.

Dumas, C., 1989. Understanding of father-daughter and father-son dyads in family-owned businesses. *Family Business Review*, 2(1), pp.31-46.

Dumas, C., Dupuis, J.P., Richer, F. and St.-Cyr, L., 1995. Factors that influence the next generation's decision to take over the family firm. *Family Business Review*, 8(2), pp.99-120.

Dyck, B. and Neubert, M.J., 2009. Principles of Management. South-Western Cengage Learning.

Dyck, B., Mauws, M., Starke, F.A. and Mischke, G.A., 2002. Passing the baton: The importance of sequence, timing, technique, and communication in executive succession. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *17*(2), pp.143-162.

Eddleston, K.A. and Powell, G.N., 2008. The role of gender identity in explaining sex differences in business owners' career satisfier preferences. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 23(2), pp.244-256.

Eddleston, K.A., Kellermanns, F.W. and Zellweger, T.M., 2012. Exploring the entrepreneurial behaviour of family firms: Does the stewardship perspective explain differences? *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *36*(2), pp.347-367.

Edlund, L. and Lagerlöf, N.P., 2012. Polygyny and its discontents: Paternal age and human capital accumulation. Department of Economics, Columbia University, pp. 1-38.

Eisenhardt, K.M. and Graebner, M.E., 2007. Theory building from cases: Opportunities and challenges. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(1), pp.25-32.

Eisenhardt, K.M., 1989. Building theories from case study research. Academy of Management Review, 14(4), pp.532-550.

Ekpe, D.E., Eja, A.E. and John, E.I., 2014. Women, gender equality in Nigeria: a critical analysis of socioeconomic and political (gender issues). *Journal Research in Peace Gender and Development*, *4*(1), pp.15 20.

Elbedour, S., Onwuegbuzie, A.J., Caridine, C. and Abu-Saad, H., 2002. The effect of polygamous marital structure on behavioral, emotional, and academic adjustment in children: A comprehensive review of the literature. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, *5*(4), pp.255-271.

Elenurm T. and Vaino E. (2011), Interpretations of Entrepreneurial Success Factors by Female Entrepreneurs and Executives in a Catch-up Economy, ICSB World Conference Proceedings, Washington: International Council for Small business (ICSB), pp. 1-20.

Enslin, P., 2003. Liberal feminism, diversity, and education. Theory And Research in Education, 1(1), pp.73-87.

Enyew, B.E. and Mihrete, A.G., 2018. Liberal feminism: Assessing its compatibility and applicability in Ethiopia context. *International Journal of Sociology and Anthropology*, *10*(6), pp.59-64.

Enyioko, N., 2021. Aba Women's Riots (November to December 1929). Available at SSRN 3818954.

Erdirençelebi, M. and Ertürk, E., 2020. Conflict Management in the Family Business: A Case Study from Turkey. In *Handbook of Research on the Strategic Management of Family Businesses* (pp. 414-434). IGI Global.

Erdogan, I., Rondi, E. and De Massis, A., 2020. Managing the tradition and innovation paradox in family firms: A family imprinting perspective. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 44(1), pp.20-54.

Ernst, R.A., Gerken, M., Hack, A. and Hülsbeck, M., 2022. Family firms as agents of sustainable development: A normative perspective. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *174*, pp.121135.

Exposito, N., 2017. The negative impact of polygamy on women and children in Mormon and Islamic cultures. WUNRN

Eze, B.U., 2018. Corporate entrepreneurship and manufacturing firms' performance. *EMAJ: Emerging Markets Journal*, 8(1), pp.12-17.

Familusi, O.O., 2012. African culture and the status of women: The Yoruba example. *The Journal of Pan African Studies*, 5(1), pp.299-313.

Fang, H.C., Memili, E., Chrisman, J.J. and Penney, C., 2017. Industry and information asymmetry: The case of the employment of non-family managers in small and medium-sized family firms. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 55(4), pp.632-648.

Fang, J.W. and Chiu, Y.H., 2017. Research on innovation efficiency and technology gap in China's economic development. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Operational Research*, 34(02), pp.1750005.

Farquhar, J., Michels, N. and Robson, J., 2020. Triangulation in industrial qualitative case study research: Widening the scope. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 87, pp.160-170.

Fehr, E. and Fischbacher, U., 2003. The nature of human altruism. Nature, 425(6960), pp.785-791.

Fenske, J., 2015. African polygamy: Past and present. Journal of Development Economics, 117, pp.58-73.

Feranita, F., 2021. The transaction cost approach to collaborative innovation in family firms: a process of internal collaboration through integration of human assets. *Journal for International Business and Entrepreneurship Development*, 13(1), pp.91-113.

Ferdousi, F. and Mahmud, P., 2019. Role of social business in women entrepreneurship development in Bangladesh: perspectives from Nobin Udyokta projects of Grameen Telecom Trust. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 9(1), pp.1-21.

Ferrari, F., 2022. The Daughter's Career in Family Firms: A Reflection on the Cultural/Contextual Aspects. In Research Anthology on Strategies for Maintaining Successful Family Firms (pp. 543-563). IGI Global.

Ferreira, J.J., Fernandes, C.I., Schiavone, F. and Mahto, R.V., 2021. Sustainability in family business–A bibliometric study and a research agenda. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *173*, p.121077.

Firfiray, S., Cruz, C., Neacsu, I., and Gomez-Mejia, L. R., 2018. Is nepotism so bad for family firms? A socioemotional wealth approaches. *Human Resource Management Review*, 28(1), pp. 83-97.

Fischer, E.M., Reuber, A.R. and Dyke, L.S., 1993. A theoretical overview and extension of research on sex, gender, and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 8(2), pp.151-168.

Flick, U., 2006. An Introduction to Qualitative Research. London: Sage Publications.

Floyd, S.W. and Wooldridge, B., 1999. Knowledge creation and social networks in corporate entrepreneurship: The renewal of organizational capability. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23(3), pp.123-144.

Flyvbjerg, B., 2006. Five misunderstandings about case-study research. *Qualitative inquiry*, 12(2), pp.219-245.

Fofana, F., Bazeley, P. and Regnault, A., 2020. Applying a mixed methods design to test saturation for qualitative data in health outcomes research. *PloS one*, *15*(6), p.e0234898.

Fowler, E., 2012. A Queer Critique on the Polygamy Debate in Canada: Law, Culture, and Diversity. *Dalhousie Journal of. Legal Studies*, 21, pp.93.

Frank, H., Lueger, M., Nosé, L. and Suchy, D., 2010. The concept of "Familiness": Literature review and systems theory-based reflections. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 1(3), pp.119-130.

Franklin, C. and Ballan, M., 2001. Reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Handbook of Social Work Research Methods*, 4(273-292).

Freak-Poli, R. and Malta, S., 2020. An overview of sexual behaviour research in later life - Quantitative and qualitative findings. *Australasian Journal on Ageing*, *39*, pp.16-21.

Gabarret, I. and D'Andria, A., 2021. Improving gender equality through entrepreneurship: The role of womendedicated business incubators. *Journal of the International Council for Small Business*, 2(2), pp.79-89.

Galan Mashenene, R. And P. Kumburu, N., 2020. Performance of Small Businesses in Tanzania: Human Resources-Based View. *Global Business Review*, pp. 1-15.

Galletta, A., 2013. Mastering the semi-structured interview and beyond. In *Mastering the semi-structured interview and beyond*. New York: New York University Press.

Gallo, M.A. and Sveen, J., 1991. Internationalizing the family business: Facilitating and restraining factors. *Family Business Review*, 4(2), pp.181-190.

Gammelgaard, B., 2004. Schools in logistics research? A methodological framework for analysis of the discipline. *International Journal of Physical Distribution and Logistics Management*, 34(6), pp.479-491.

Garba, A.S., 2011. Stumbling block for women entrepreneurship in Nigeria: How risk attitude and lack of capital mitigates their need for business expansion. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences*, *36*(3), pp.38-49.

Garcia, D. and Gluesing, J.C., 2013. Qualitative research methods in international organizational change research. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 26(2), 423-444.

Gartner, W.B., 1988. "Who is an entrepreneur?" is the wrong question. American Journal of Small Business, 12(4), pp.11-32.

Gedajlovic, E., Carney, M., Chrisman, J.J. and Kellermanns, F.W., 2012. The adolescence of family firm research: Taking stock and planning for the future. *Journal of Management*, *38*(4), pp.1010-1037.

Geringer, J.M. and Hebert, L., 1991. Measuring performance of international joint ventures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(2), pp.249-263.

Gerring, J., 2004. What is a case study and what is it good for? *American Political Science Review*, 98(2), pp.341-354.

Gersick, C.J., 1988. Time and transition in work teams: Toward a new model of group development. Academy of Management Journal, 31(1), pp.9-41.

Gersick, K.E., Lansberg, I., Desjardins, M. and Dunn, B., 1999. Stages and transitions: Managing change in the family business. *Family Business Review*, *12*(4), pp.287-297.

Getz, D., Carlsen, J. and Morrison, A., 2004. The family business in tourism and hospitality. CABI.

Gherardi, S. and Perrotta, M., 2016. Daughters taking over the family business: Their justification work within a dual regime of engagement. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*, 8(1) pp.28-47.

Ghouse, S., McElwee, G., Meaton, J. and Durrah, O., 2017. Barriers to rural women entrepreneurs in Oman. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 23(6) pp.998-1016.

Gilding, M., Gregory, S. and Cosson, B., 2015. Motives and outcomes in family business succession planning. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *39*(2), pp.299-312.

Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E. and Chadwick, B., 2008. Methods of data collection in qualitative research: interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, 204(6), pp.291-295.

Gill, R. and Ganesh, S., 2007. Empowerment, constraint, and the entrepreneurial self: A study of white women entrepreneurs. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *35*(3), pp.268-293.

Gillett, T.M., 1999. The Absolution of Reynolds: The Constitutionality of Religious Polygamy. *William and Mary Bill Rights Journal*, 8(2), p.497.

Gioia, D.A., Corley, K.G. and Hamilton, A.L., 2013. Seeking qualitative rigor in inductive research: Notes on the Gioia methodology. *Organizational Research Methods*, *16*(1), pp.15-31.

Glaser, B.G. (1992), Basics of Grounded Theory Analysis, Sociology Press, Mill Valley, CA

Glaser, L., Fourné, S.P. and Elfring, T., 2015. Achieving strategic renewal: The multi-level influences of top and middle managers' boundary-spanning. *Small Business Economics*, 45(2), pp.305-327.

Glinyanova, M., Bouncken, R.B., Tiberius, V. and Ballester, A.C.C., 2021. Five decades of corporate entrepreneurship research: measuring and mapping the field. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, pp.1-27.

Glover, J.L., 2014. Gender, power, and succession in family farm business. *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship*,6(3), pp. 276-295.

Goddard, W. and Melville, S., 2004. Research methodology: An introduction. Juta and Company Ltd.

Goettner-Abendroth, H., 2018. Re-thinking 'Matriarchy' in modern matriarchal studies using two examples: the khasi and the mosuo. *Asian Journal of Women's Studies*, 24(1), pp.3-27.

Goh, S.K. and Sandhu, M.S., 2013. Knowledge sharing among Malaysian academics: Influence of affective commitment and trust. *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 11(1), pp.38-48.

Golafshani, N., 2003. Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 8(4), pp.597-607.

Goldberg, S.D., 1996. Research note: Effective successors in family-owned businesses: Significant elements. *Family Business Review*, 9(2), pp.185-197.

Gómez-Mejía, L.R. and Herrero, I., 2022. Back to square one: The measurement of Socioemotional Wealth (SEW). Journal of Family Business Strategy, p.100480.

Gómez-Mejía, L.R., Haynes, K.T., Núñez-Nickel, M., Jacobson, K.J. and Moyano-Fuentes, J., 2007. Socioemotional wealth and business risks in family-controlled firms: Evidence from Spanish olive oil mills. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 52(1), pp.106-137.

Gomez-Mejia, L.R., Makri, M. and Kintana, M.L., 2010. Diversification decisions in family-controlled firms. *Journal of Management Studies*, 47(2), pp.223-252.

Gramm, V., Dalla Torre, C. and Membretti, A., 2019. *Providing childcare services as a means of empowering women farmers in South Tyrol, Italy?* In XXVIII European Society for Rural Sociology Congress.

Greene, P.G., Hart, M.M., Gatewood, E.J., Brush, C.G. and Carter, N.M., 2003. Women entrepreneurs: Moving front and center: An overview of research and theory. *Coleman White Paper Series*, *3*(1), pp.1-47.

Grinyer, A., 2002. The anonymity of research participants: assumptions, ethics and practicalities. *Social Research Update*, *36*(1), p.4.

Grote, J., 2003. Conflicting generations: A new theory of family business rivalry. *Family Business Review*, 16(2), pp.113-124.

Guest, G., Bunce, A. and Johnson, L., 2006. How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), pp.59-82.

Guest, G., MacQueen, K.M. and Namey, E.E., 2012. Validity and reliability (credibility and dependability) in qualitative research and data analysis. *Applied Thematic Analysis*, 79, p.106.

Gulzar, M.A. and Wang, Z., 2010. Corporate governance and non-listed family-owned businesses: an evidence from Pakistan. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 1(2), p.124.

Gupta, V. and Levenburg, N.M., 2013. Women in family business: three generations of research. In *Handbook* of *Research on Family Business, Second Edition*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Guth, W.D. and Ginsberg, A., 1990. Guest editors' introduction: Corporate entrepreneurship. *Strategic Management Journal*, pp.5-15.

Habbershon, T.G. and Williams, M.L., 1999. A resource-based framework for assessing the strategic advantages of family firms. *Family Business Review*, *12*(1), pp.1-25.

Habbershon, T.G., Williams, M., and MacMillan, I.C., 2003. A unified systems perspective of family firm performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(4), pp.451-465.

Hadary, S., 2010. Why are women-owned firms smaller than men-owned ones? The Wall Street Journal, 17.

Halkias, D., Nwajiuba, C., Harkiolakis, N. and Caracatsanis, S.M., 2011. Challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Management Research Review*. 34(2) pp. 221-235.

Hamel, G. (2000). Leading the revolution. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Hammersley, M., 1987. Some notes on the terms 'validity 'and 'reliability'. *British Educational Research Journal*, 13(1), pp.73-82.

Hammersley, M., Foster, P. and Gomm, R., 2000. Case study and generalisation. In R. Gomm, M. Hammersley, and P. Foster (Eds.) *Case Study Method: Key Issues, Key Texts*. London: Sage, pp. 98–115.

Hammond, N.L., Pearson, A.W. and Holt, D.T., 2016. The quagmire of legacy in family firms: Definition and implications of family and family firm legacy orientations. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 40(6), pp.1209-1231.

Han, J., and Park, C.M., 2017. Case study on the adoption of new technology for innovation: the perspective of institutional and corporate entrepreneurship. *Asia Pacific Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship*, *11*(2), pp. 144-158.

Handler, W.C., 1989. Methodological issues and considerations in studying family businesses. *Family Business Review*, 2(3), pp.257-276.

Harvey, M., and Evans, R.E., 1994. Family business and multiple levels of conflict. *Family Business Review*, 7(4), pp.331-348.

Hassan, R., 1999. Feminism in Islam. Feminism and world religions, pp.248-279.

Hayase, Y. and Liaw, K.L., 1997. Factors on polygamy in Sub-Saharan Africa: Findings based on the demographic and health surveys. *The Developing Economies*, 35(3), pp.293-327.

Hays, D.G. and McKibben, W.B., 2021. Promoting rigorous research: Generalizability and qualitative research. *Journal of Counselling and Development*, 99(2), pp.178-188.

Hechavarria, D.M., Kwapisz, A., Brownell, K., Yu, Z. and Hamner, K., 2021. Power to the she: how gender homogeneity among nascent entrepreneurial teams influences innovation. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2021, No. 1, p. 16124). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

Heidari Tari, N., 2020. The Evolution of Psychological Altruism.

Hernández-Perlines, F., Ariza-Montes, A. and Araya-Castillo, L., 2020. Socioemotional wealth, entrepreneurial orientation, and international performance of family firms. *Economic research-Ekonomska istraživanja*, 33(1), pp.3125-3145.

Herrmann, E., Engelmann, J.M. and Tomasello, M., 2019. Children engage in competitive altruism. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 179, pp.176-189.

Hesse-Biber, S., 2010. Qualitative approaches to mixed methods practice. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 16(6), pp.455-468.

Hesse-Biber, S.N. and Leavy, P., 2010. The Practice of Qualitative Research. Sage.

Hessels, J., 2008. International entrepreneurship: An introduction, framework, and research agenda. *Business Policy and Research*. pp.1-23.

Hidayat, M.C. and Mahfud, C., 2019. Potential Development Management of Students in Islam. *Ta'dib: Jurnal Pendidikan Islam*, 24(2), pp.293-302.

Hiebl, M.R. and Mayrleitner, B., 2019. Professionalization of management accounting in family firms: the impact of family members. *Review of Managerial Science*, *13*(5), pp.1037-1068.

Higginbottom, G. M. A. (2004). Sampling issues in qualitative research. Nurse Researcher, 12(1), 7-19. Hill, R.M. and Hlavacek, J.D., 1972. The venture team: A new concept in marketing organization. *Journal of Marketing*, *36*(3), pp.44-50.

Hisrich, R. and Brush, C., 1984. The woman entrepreneur: Management skills and business problems. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 22(1), pp.30–37.

Hisrich, R.D. and Brush, C.G., 1985. Women and minority entrepreneurs: A comparative analysis. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship Research*, pp. 566-587.

Hollander, B.S. and Bukowitz, W.R., 1990. Women, family culture, and family business. *Family Business Review*, 3(2), pp.139-151.

Holt, D.T., Pearson, A.W., Payne, G.T. and Sharma, P., 2018. Family business research as a boundary-spanning platform, *Family Business Review*, *31*(1), pp. 14-31.

Hoobler, J.M., Lemmon, G., and Wayne, S.J., 2011. Women's underrepresentation in upper management. *Organizational Dynamics*, *3*(40), pp.151-156.

Hornsby, J.S., Kuratko, D.F. and Zahra, S.A., 2002. Middle managers' perception of the internal environment for corporate entrepreneurship: assessing a measurement scale. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *17*(3), pp.253-273.

Hornsby, J.S., Kuratko, D.F., Shepherd, D.A. and Bott, J.P., 2009. Managers' corporate entrepreneurial actions: Examining perception and position. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(3), pp.236-247.

Hossain, A., Naser, K., Zaman, A. and Nuseibeh, R., 2009. Factors influencing women business development in the developing countries: Evidence from Bangladesh. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 17(3), pp. 202-224.

Hosseini, S.J.F. and McElwee, G., 2011. Improving the entrepreneurial potential of rural women entrepreneurs in Northern Iran. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, *12*(1), pp.15-27.

https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/fr293/fr293.pdf

https://www.nuc.edu.ng/tag/monday-bulletin/

https://www.who.int/teams/sexual-and-reproductive-health-and-research/key-areas-of-work/sexual-health/defining-sexual-health

https://www.worldometers.info/world-population/nigeria-population.

Hu, Q., and Hughes, M., 2020. Radical innovation in family firms: a systematic analysis and research agenda. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 26(6), pp.1199-1234.

Hughes, P., Hodgkinson, I.R., Elliott, K., and Hughes, M., 2018. Strategy, operations, and profitability: the role of resource orchestration. *International Journal of Operations and Production Management*, 38(4), pp.1125-1143.

Hussein, A., 2009. The use of triangulation in social sciences research. *Journal of Comparative Social Work*, 4(1), pp.106-117.

Ibrahim, H., Zulkafli, A.H. and Jabeen, G., 2020. Board Education, Growth and Performance of Family CEO Listed Firms in Malaysia. *International Journal of Banking and Finance*, 15(2), pp.25-46.

Igwe, P.A., Madichie, N.O. and Amoncar, N., 2020. Transgenerational business legacies and intergenerational succession among the Igbos (Nigeria). *Small Enterprise Research*, 27(2), pp.165-179.

Igwe, P.A., Newbery, R., Amoncar, N., White, G.R. and Madichie, N.O., 2018. Keeping it in the family: exploring Igbo ethnic entrepreneurial behaviour in Nigeria. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 26(1), pp. 34-53.

Iheduru, N.G., 2002, July. Women entrepreneurship and development: The gendering of microfinance in Nigeria. In 8th International Interdisciplinary Congress on Women (pp. 21-26).

Ilie, C., Cardoza, G., Fernandez, A. and Tejada, H., 2018. Entrepreneurship and Gender in Latin America. *Available at SSRN 3126888*.

International Family Enterprise Research Academy (IFERA), 2003. Family businesses dominate: International Family Enterprise Research Academy (IFERA). *Family Business Review*, *16*(4), pp.235-240.

Iqbal, M. and Gusman, Y., 2015. Pull and Push Factors of Indonesian women migrant workers from Indramayu (West Java) to work abroad. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(5 S5), pp.167-167.

Ireland, R.D., Kuratko, D.F. and Covin, J.G., 2003, August. Antecedents, Elements, And Consequences of Corporate Entrepreneurship Strategy. In *Academy of management proceedings* (Vol. 2003, No. 1, pp. L1-L6). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

Iruonagbe, C. T., Imhonopi, D. and Egharevba, M. E., 2015. Higher education in Nigeria and the emergence of private universities. International *Journal of Education and Research*, 3(2), pp. 49-64.

Isiwu, P.I. and Onwuka, I., 2017. Psychological factors that influence entrepreneurial intention among women in Nigeria: A study based in Southeast Nigeria. *The Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 26(2), pp.176-195.

Islam, N. and Khan, F., Push and Pull Factors of Women Entrepreneurship Development in Bangladesh: *A Principal Component Analysis*. 28(3), pp.109-128.

Jaccard, J. and Jacoby, J., 2019. *Theory Construction and Model-Building Skills: A Practical Guide for Social Scientists*. Guilford publications. pp.235-240.

Jaskiewicz, P., Combs, J.G. and Rau, S.B., 2015. Entrepreneurial legacy: Toward a theory of how some family firms nurture transgenerational entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *30*(1), pp.29-49.

Jaskiewicz, P., Uhlenbruck, K., Balkin, D.B. and Reay, T., 2013. Is nepotism good or bad? Types of nepotism and implications for knowledge management. *Family Business Review*, 26(2), pp.121-139.

Jennings, J.E. and Brush, C.G., 2013. Research on women entrepreneurs: challenges to (and from) the broader entrepreneurship literature? *Academy of Management Annals*, 7(1), pp.663-715.

Jensen, R., Thursby, J. and Thursby, M.C., 2010. University-industry spill overs, government funding, and industrial consulting (No. w15732). National Bureau of Economic Research.

Jocic, M.R., Morris, M.H. and Kuratko, D.F., 2021. Familiness and innovation outcomes in family firms: The mediating role of entrepreneurial orientation. *Journal of Small Business Management*, pp.1-33.

Kammerlander, N. and van Essen, M., 2017. Family firms are more innovative than other companies. *Harvard Business Review* (2017).

Kampouri, K., Hajidimitriou, Y. and Mouratidou, E., 2022. Innovation Tendencies in Internationalised Family Firms During Periods of Crisis: A Conceptual Framework. In Business Under Crisis, Volume III (pp. 257-279). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Karra, N., Tracey, P. and Phillips, N., 2006. Altruism and agency in the family firm: Exploring the role of family, kinship, and ethnicity. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *30*(6), pp.861-877.

Kellermanns, F.W. and Eddleston, K.A., 2004. Feuding families: When conflict does a family firm good. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28(3), pp.209-228.

Kellermanns, F.W. and Eddleston, K.A., 2006. Corporate entrepreneurship in family firms: A family perspective. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *30*(6), pp.809-830.

Kelley, D.J., 2013. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: 2010 Women's Report*. Centre for Women's Leadership at Babson College.

Kelley, D.J., Brush, C.G., Green, P.G. and Litovski, Y., 2011. *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2010 women's report*. GERA/GEM.

Kelley, D.J., Brush, C.G., Greene, P.G. and Litovsky, Y., 2013. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor 2010 Women's Report, 2011. *Doi: www. gemconsortium. org.*

Kemelgor, B.H., 2002. A comparative analysis of corporate entrepreneurial orientation between selected firms in the Netherlands and the USA. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, *14*(1), pp.67-87.

Kepner, E., 1991. The family and the firm: A coevolutionary perspective. *Family Business Review*, 4(4), pp.445-461.

Kern, F.G., 2018. The trials and tribulations of applied triangulation: Weighing different data sources. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, *12*(2), pp.166-181.

Ketokivi, M. and Choi, T., 2014. Renaissance of case research as a scientific method. *Journal of Operations Management*, 32(5), pp. 232-240.

Khan, B.Z., 2016. Invisible women: Entrepreneurship, innovation, and family firms in nineteenth-century France. *The Journal of Economic History*, 76(1), pp.163-195.

Kim, Y., and Gao, F.Y., 2013. Does family involvement increase business performance? Family-longevity goals' moderating role in Chinese family firms. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(2), pp.265-274.

King, A.W. and Zeithaml, C.P., 2001. Competencies and firm performance: Examining the causal ambiguity paradox. *Strategic Management Journal*, 22(1), pp.75-99.

King, M.R., and Santor, E., 2008. Family values: Ownership structure, performance, and capital structure of Canadian firms. *Journal of Banking and Finance*, *32*(11), pp.2423-2432.

King, N. (2004). Using templates in the thematic analysis of text. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential Guide to Qualitative Methods in Organizational Research* (pp. 257–270). London, UK: Sage.

Kirkwood, J., 2009. Motivational factors in a push-pull theory of entrepreneurship. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 24(5), pp. 346-364.

Kirkwood, J., 2009. Spousal roles on motivations for entrepreneurship: A qualitative study in New Zealand. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues*, 30(4), pp.372-385.

Klein, S.B., 2000. Family businesses in Germany: Significance and structure. *Family Business Review*, 13(3), pp.157-182.

Kloot, L., 2004. Women and leadership in universities: A case study of women academic managers. *International Journal of Public Sector Management* 17(6), pp. 470-485.

Kobeissi, N., 2010. Gender factors and female entrepreneurship: International evidence and policy implications. *Journal of International Entrepreneurship*, 8(1), pp.1-35.

Koroye, B.H. and Dada, O.L., 2022. Cultural Effects on Women's Entrepreneurial Behaviours in Higher Education Institutions: A Study of The Polygamous Family Firm Context in the Southern Region of Nigeria. In *The African Context of Business and Society* (pp. 97-113). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Kotlar, J. and De Massis, A., 2013. Goal setting in family firms: Goal diversity, social interactions, and collective commitment to family–centered goals. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *37*(6), pp.1263-1288.

Kotlar, J., De Massis, A., Frattini, F., Bianchi, M. and Fang, H., 2013. Technology acquisition in family and nonfamily firms: A longitudinal analysis of Spanish manufacturing firms. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *30*(6), pp.1073-1088.

Kraiczy, N.D., Hack, A. and Kellermanns, F.W., 2014. New product portfolio performance in family firms. *Journal of Business Research*, 67(6), pp.1065-1073.

Kraus, S., Clauss, T., Breier, M., Gast, J., Zardini, A. and Tiberius, V., 2020. The economics of COVID-19: initial empirical evidence on how family firms in five European countries cope with the corona crisis. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*,26 (5), pp. 1067-1092.

Kumar, A., Nigam, N.K. and Singh, K., 2020. Do Women Directors Impact Financial Outcomes? The Indian Evidence. *Indian Journal of Corporate Governance*, *13*(2), pp.119-139.

Kuratko, D. F., 2017. Corporate entrepreneurship 2.0: research development and future directions. *Foundations and Trends*® *in Entrepreneurship*, 13(6), 441-490.

Kuratko, D. F., and Audretsch, D. B., 2013. Clarifying the domains of corporate entrepreneurship. International *Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 9(3), 323–335.

Kuratko, D.F. and Audretsch, D.B., 2009. Strategic entrepreneurship: exploring different perspectives of an emerging concept. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *33*(1), pp.1-17.

Kuratko, D.F. and Audretsch, D.B., 2013. Clarifying the domains of corporate entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 9(3), pp.323-335.

Kuratko, D.F. and Ireland, R.D., 2001. The power of entrepreneurial actions: Insights from Acordia Inc. Academy of Management Executive, 16(4), pp. 1–12.

Kuratko, D.F. and Morris, M.H., 2018. Corporate entrepreneurship: A critical challenge for educators and researchers. *Entrepreneurship Education and Pedagogy*, 1(1), pp.42-60.

Kuratko, D.F., 2010. Corporate entrepreneurship: An introduction and research review. *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research*, pp.129-163.

Kuratko, D.F., 2017. Corporate entrepreneurship 2.0: research development and future directions. Foundations and Trends® in Entrepreneurship, 13(6), pp.441-490.

Kuratko, D.F., Covin, J.G. and Garrett, R.P., 2009. Corporate venturing: Insights from actual performance. *Business Horizons*, 52(5), pp.459-467.

Kuratko, D.F., Hornsby, J.S. and Hayton, J., 2015. Corporate entrepreneurship: the innovative challenge for a new global economic reality. *Small Business Economics*, 45(2), pp.245-253.

Kuratko, D.F., Hornsby, J.S. and McKelvie, A., 2021. Entrepreneurial mindset in corporate entrepreneurship: Forms, impediments, and actions for research. *Journal of Small Business Management*, pp.1-23.

Kusi, N.K., Mintah, F., Nyame, V., Chigbu, U.E., Mabakeng, M.R., Ansah, B.O. and Dachaga, W., 2022. 11 Discourse on Women and Land Tenure in Ghana: Does Land Tenure System Make for Women? *Land Governance and Gender: The Tenure–Gender Nexus in Land Management and Land Policy*, pp.129.

Labra, O., Castro, C., Wright, R. and Chamblas, I., 2020. Thematic analysis in social work: A case study. *Global Social Work-Cutting Edge Issues and Critical Reflections*, pp.1-20.

LaChapelle, K. and Barnes, L.B., 1998. The trust catalyst in family-owned businesses. Family Business Review, 11(1), pp.1-17.

Langley, A. and Abdallah, C., 2011. Templates and turns in qualitative studies of strategy and management. In D.D. Bergh and D.J. Ketchen (Eds.), *Building Methodological Bridges*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Lank, A. G., 1997. Making sure the dynasty does not become a Dallas. In S. Birley and D. F. Muzyka (Eds.), *Mastering Enterprise*, pp. 154-160. London: Pitman Publishing.

Lansberg, I. and Astrachan, J.H., 1994. Influence of family relationships on succession planning and training: The importance of mediating factors. *Family Business Review*, 7(1), pp.39-59.

Lansberg, I., 1988. The succession conspiracy. Family Business Review, 1(2), pp.119-143.

Lansberg, I., Perrow, E.L. and Rogolsky, S., 1988. Family business as an emerging field. *Family Business Review*, 1(1), pp.1-8.

Lapeira, M. and Kundu, S., 2020. Daughters in the Spotlight: A Study on Becoming Legitimate Members of the Family Business. *Academy of Management Global Proceedings*, pp.274-282.

Lattuch, F., 2019. Family firm innovation strategy: contradictions and tradition. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 40(3), pp. 36-42.

Le Breton-Miller, I. and Miller, D., 2016. Family firms and practices of sustainability: A contingency view. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 7(1), pp.26-33.

Lea, J., 1998. What is a family business? More than you think. Available: <u>http://www.bizjournals.com/triangle/stories/1998/11/02/smallb3.html</u>

LeCompte, M.D. and Goetz, J.P., 1982. Problems of reliability and validity in ethnographic research. *Review of Educational Research*, 52(1), pp.31-60.

LeCounte, J. F., 2020. Founder-CEOs: Succession planning for the success, growth, and legacy of family firms. *Journal of Small Business Management*, pp.1-18.

Lee, J. and Tan, F., 2001. Growth of Chinese family enterprises in Singapore. *Family Business Review*, 14(1), pp.49-74.

Lee, J., 2006. Family firm performance: Further evidence. Family Business Review, 19(2), pp.103-114.

Lee, Lim, G.H. and Lim, W.S., 2003. Family business succession: Appropriation risk and choice of successor. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(4), pp.657-666.

Lei, X. and Kantor, J., 2020. Study on family cohesion and adaptability of caregivers of children with ASD and its influencing factors. *Social Psychology and Society*, *11*(3), pp.70-85.

Leibenstein, H., 1968. Entrepreneurship and development. The American Economic Review, 58(2), pp.72-83.

Lekshmi, P.S., Radhakrishnan, K., Narayanakumar, R., Vipinkumar, V.P., Parappurathu, S., Salim, S.S., Johnson, B. and Pattnaik, P., 2022. Gender and small-scale fisheries: Contribution to livelihood and local economies. *Marine Policy*, *136*, pp.1-11.

Leon-Guerrero, A.Y., McCann III, J.E. and Haley, Jr, J.D., 1998. A study of practice utilization in family businesses. *Family Business Review*, 11(2), pp.107-120.

Lepkowski, J.M., Tucker, N.C., Brick, J.M., De Leeuw, E.D., Japec, L., Lavrakas, P.J., Link, M.W. and Sangster, R.L., 2007. *Advances In Telephone Survey Methodology* (Vol. 538). John Wiley and Sons.

Leppäaho, T. and Metsola, J., 2020. Family Firms and Internationalisation. In T. Leppäaho, J. Metsola (Eds.). *Family Firm Internationalisation*. Cham.: Palgrave Pivot, pp.1-37.

Leppäaho, T., Plakoyiannaki, E. and Dimitratos, P., 2016. The case study in family business: An analysis of current research practices and recommendations. *Family Business Review*, 29(2), pp.159-173.

Leten, B., and Van Dyck, W. (2012). Corporate venturing: Strategies and success factors. *Review of Business and Economic Literature*, 57(4), 243–257.

Leten, B., and Van Dyck, W. 2012. Corporate venturing: Strategies and success factors. Review of Business and Economic Literature, 57(4), pp. 243–257.

Leuffen, D., Rittberger, B. and Schimmelfennig, F., 2022. Constructivism. In *Integration and Differentiation in the European Union* (pp. 117-142). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Levinson, R.E., 1989. Problems in managing a family–owned business. In Aronoff, C.E. & Ward, J.L. (Eds.), Family business sourcebook (pp. 169–174). Detroit: Omnigraphics

Liamputtong, P., 2007. Researching the Vulnerable: A Guide to Sensitive Research Methods. Sage.

Littunen, H. and Hyrsky, K., 2000. The early entrepreneurial stage in Finnish family and nonfamily firms. *Family Business Review*, 13(1), pp.41-53.

Liu, Y. and Xi, M., 2020. CEO Strategic Leadership, High-performance Work Systems, and Corporate Entrepreneurship. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2020, No. 1, p. 13320). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

Lourenço, F., Sappleton, N., Dardaine-Edwards, A., McElwee, G., Cheng, R., Taylor, D.W. and Taylor, A.G., 2014. Experience of entrepreneurial training for female farmers to stimulate entrepreneurship in Uganda. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 29(7), pp. 382-40.

Low, M.B. and MacMillan, I.C., 1988. Entrepreneurship: Past research and future challenges. *Journal of Management*, 14(2), pp.139-161.

Lumpkin, G.T. and Dess, G.G., 1996. Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1), pp.135-172.

Lundgren, O. and Sinclair, P., 2019. *Cross-functional challenges: a case study of a project in a Swedish retail company*. Uppsala: Uppsala University, pp.1-50.

Lyman, A.R., 1991. Customer service: does family ownership make a difference? *Family Business Review*, 4(3), pp.303-324.

MacIntosh, R. and MacLean, D., 1999. Conditioned emergence: A dissipative structures approach to transformation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(4), pp.297-316.

Mack, N., 2005. Qualitative research methods: A data collector's field guide. s Final Report.

Madanoglu, M., Altinay, L. And Wang, X.L., 2016. Disentangling The Effect of Family Involvement on Innovativeness and Risk Taking: The Role of Decentralization. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(5), pp.1796-1800.

Madhani, P.M., 2010. Resource based view (RBV) of competitive advantage: an overview. In P. Madhani (Ed.) *Resource Based View: Concepts and Practices*, Telangana, India: Icfai University Press, pp.3-22.

Madichie, N.O., 2009. Breaking The Glass Ceiling in Nigeria: A Review of Women's Entrepreneurship. *Journal of African Business*, *10*(1), pp.51-66.

Madichie, N.O., 2011. Setting an agenda for women entrepreneurship in Nigeria: A commentary on Faseke's journey through time for The Nigerian Woman. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*. 26(3), pp. 212-219.

Maguire, M. and Delahunt, B., 2017. Doing a thematic analysis: A practical, step-by-step guide for learning and teaching scholars. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, 9(3).

Makadok, R., 2001. Toward A Synthesis of The Resource-Based and Dynamic-Capability Views of Rent Creation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 22(5), pp.387-401.

Mandal, K.C., 2013. May. Concept And Types of Women Empowerments. International Forum of Teaching and Studies 9(2).

Mandl, I., 2008. Overview of Family Business Relevant Issues Contract No. 30-CE-0164021/00-51.

Marchisio, G., Mazzola, P., Sciascia, S., Miles, M. And Astrachan, J., 2010. Corporate Venturing in The Family Business: The Effects on The Family and Its Members. *Entrepreneurship And Regional Development*, 22(3-4), pp.349-377.

Marjański, A. And Sułkowski, Ł., 2021. Consolidation StratRisk-Takings of Small Family Firms in Poland During Covid-19 Crisis. *Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review (Eber)*, 9(2).

Markham, S.K., Gentry, S.T., Hume, D., Ramachandran, R., And Kingon, A.I., 2005. Strategies and Tactics for External Corporate Venturing. *Research-Technology Management*, 48(2), pp.49-59.

Markoczy L, Sun SL and Zhu J., 2020. Few women on boards: What's identity got to do with it? Journal of Business Ethics 165: 311–327.

Marlow, S. And Patton, D., 2005. All Credit to Men? Entrepreneurship, Finance, and Gender. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(6), pp.717-735.

Marques, C.S., Santos, G., Galvão, A., Mascarenhas, C. and Justino, E. (2018), Entrepreneurship education, gender, and family background as antecedents on the entrepreneurial orientation of university students. *International Journal of Innovation Science*, *10* (1), pp. 58-70.

Marshall, C. And Rossman, G.B., 2014. Designing Qualitative Research. Sage Publications.

Martinez Jimenez, R., 2009. Research On Women in Family Firms: Current Status and Future Directions. *Family Business Review*, 22(1), pp.53-64.

Martinez, M. And Aldrich, H., 2014. Sociological Theories Applied to Family Businesses. *The Sage Handbook of Family Business*, pp.83-99.

Massaro, M., Dumay, J. And Bagnoli, C., 2019. Transparency And the Rhetorical Use of Citations to Robert Yin in Case Study Research. *Meditari Accountancy Research*. 27(1), pp. 44-71.

Mathew, V., 2010. Women Entrepreneurship in The Middle East: Understanding Barriers and Use of ICT For Entrepreneurship Development. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 6(2), pp.163-181.

Mathison, S., 1988. "Why Triangulate?" Educational Researcher, 17(2), pp.13-17.

Matzler, K., Veider, V., Hautz, J. And Stadler, C., 2015. The Impact of Family Ownership, Management, And Governance on Innovation. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, *32*(3), pp.319-333.

Maxwell, J.A. and Chmiel, M., 2014. Generalization in and from qualitative analysis. The SAGE handbook of qualitative data analysis, 7(37), pp.540-553.

Maxwell, J.A., 2012. The Importance of Qualitative Research for Causal Explanation in Education. *Qualitative Inquiry*, *18*(8), pp.655-661.

Mazzelli, A., Kotlar, J. and De Massis, A. (2018). 'Blending in while standing out: Selective conformity and new product introduction in family firms. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 42, 206–30.

Mccann III, J.E., Leon-Guerrero, A.Y., and Haley Jr, J.D., 2001. Strategic Goals and Practices of Innovative Family Businesses. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 39(1), pp.50-59.

Mckinsey Global Institute., 2015. The Power of Parity: How Advancing Women's Equality Can Add \$12 Trillion To Global Growth. London: Mckinsey Global Institute.

McMeekin, N., Wu, O., Germeni, E. and Briggs, A., 2020. How methodological frameworks are being developed: evidence from a scoping review. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 20(1), pp.1-9.

McMullen, J.S., Plummer, L.A. and Acs, Z.J., 2007. What is an entrepreneurial opportunity? *Small Business Economics*, 28(4), pp.273-283.

Medland, D., 2016. Today's gender reality in statistics or making leadership attractive to women. *Forbes Magazine*.

Memili, E., Eddleston, K.A., Kellermanns, F.W., Zellweger, T.M. and Barnett, T., 2010. The critical path to family firm success through entrepreneurial risk-taking and image. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, *1*(4), pp.200-209.

Memili, E., Fang, H., Chrisman, J.J. and De Massis, A., 2015. The impact of small-and medium-sized family firms on economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, 45(4), pp.771-785.

Merono-Cerdan, A.L. and Lopez-Nicolas, C., 2017. Women in management: Are family firms somehow special? *Journal of Management and Organization*, 23(2), pp.224-240.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). Qualitative research and case study applications in education (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Merriam, S.B. and Tisdell, E.J., 2015. *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation*. John Wiley and Sons.

Miles, M.B. and Huberman, A.M., 1994. Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook. Sage.

Miles, M.P. and Covin, J.G., 2002. Exploring the practice of corporate venturing: Some common forms and their organizational implications. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 26(3), pp.21-40.

Miles, Matthew B., and A. Michael Huberman, 1984. *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Sourcebook of New Methods. Beverly Hills.* CA: Sage.

Miller, D., and Friesen, P.H., 1983. Strategy-making and environment: the third link. *Strategic Management Journal*, 4(3), pp.221-235.

Miller, D., Le Breton-Miller, I. and Scholnick, B., 2008. Stewardship vs. stagnation: An empirical comparison of small family and non-family businesses. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(1), pp.51-78.

Miller, D., Le Breton-Miller, I., Lester, R.H. and Cannella Jr, A.A., 2007. Are family firms really superior performers? *Journal of Corporate Finance*, 13(5), pp.829-858.

Miller, D., Steier, L. and Le Breton-Miller, I., 2003. Lost in time: Intergenerational succession, change, and failure in family business. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(4), pp.513-531.

Minola, T., Brumana, M., Campopiano, G., Garrett, R.P. and Cassia, L., 2016. Corporate venturing in family business: A developmental approach of the enterprising family. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, *10*(4), pp.395-412.

Minola, T., Kammerlander, N., Kellermanns, F.W. and Hoy, F., 2021. Corporate entrepreneurship and family business: Learning across domains. *Journal of Management Studies*, 58(1), pp.1-26.

Mitchelmore, S., Rowley, J. and Shiu, E., 2014. Competencies associated with growth of women-led SMEs. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development*, 21(4), pp. 588-601.

Mogaji, E., 2019. Types and Location of Nigerian Universities. Research Agenda Working Papers. (7). pp 92-103.

Moreno-Gómez, J., Lafuente, E. and Vaillant, Y., 2018. Gender diversity in the board, women's leadership, and business performance. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, (33)2, pp. 104-122.

Morgan, S.J., Pullon, S.R., Macdonald, L.M., McKinlay, E.M. and Gray, B.V., 2017. Case study observational research: A framework for conducting case study research where observation data are the focus. *Qualitative Health Research*, 27(7), pp.1060-1068.

Morikawa, M., 2013. Productivity and survival of family firms in Japan. *Journal of Economics and Business*, 70, pp.111-125.

Morris, M.H., 1998. Entrepreneurial intensity: Sustainable advantages for individuals, organizations, and societies. Greenwood Publishing Group.

Morris, M.H., Kuratko, D.F. and Covin, J.G., 2010. Corporate entrepreneurship and innovation. Cengage Learning.

Morse, C.W., 1986. The delusion of intrapreneurship. Long Range Planning, 19(6), pp.92-95.

Muhammad, N., McElwee, G. and Dana, L.P., 2017. Barriers to the development and progress of entrepreneurship in rural Pakistan. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, (23)2, pp. 279-295.

Muñoz-Bullón, F. and Sanchez-Bueno, M.J., 2011. The impact of family involvement on the R&D intensity of publicly traded firms. *Family Business Review*, 24(1), pp.62-70.

Murphy, D.L., 2005. Understanding the complexities of private family firms: An empirical investigation. *Family Business Review*, *18*(2), pp.123-133.

Mwambene, L., 2017. What is the Future of Polygyny (Polygamy) in Africa? Southern African Legal Information Institute. Available at: http://www.saflii.org/za/journals/PER/2017/63.html

Myers, M.D., 2019. Qualitative Research in Business and Management. Sage.

Nada, A.C., 2020. Exploring Polygamous Marriage in Indonesia through Gender Theories and Quality of Life Perspective (Doctoral dissertation, Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University). Goggle Scholar

Nagy, D., Schuessler, J. and Dubinsky, A., 2016. Defining and identifying disruptive innovations. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 57, pp.119-126.

Naudé, W., 2011. Entrepreneurship is not a binding constraint on growth and development in the poorest countries. *World Development*, 39(1), pp.33-44.

Nduka, U., and Ozioma, N. G., 2019. Chinua Achebe's Things Fall Apart and the Role of Women in Igbo Traditional Religious Culture. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(12), pp. 273.

Neubauer, F. and Lank, A.G., 2016. The Family Business: Its Governance for Sustainability. Springer.

Nguyen, K.N.D. and Peltoniemi, M., 2019, July. Strategic Renewal: Very Hard, Nearly Impossible. In *Academy* of *Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2019, No. 1, p. 11693). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.

Niaz, U., 2003. Violence against Women in South Asian Countries. Archives of Women's Mental, *Health* 6 (3), pp. 173–184.

Nielsen, S.L., Klyver, K., Evald, M.R. and Bager, T., 2021. *Entrepreneurship in Theory and Practice*. Edward Elgar, pp.173184.

Ninan, J., 2020. Online naturalistic inquiry in project management research: Directions for research. *Project Leadership and Society*, *1*, pp.1-9.

Nonaka, I. and Toyama, R., 2002. A firm as a dialectical being towards a dynamic theory of a firm. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 11(5), pp. 995-1009.

Noor, K.B.M., 2008. Case study: A strategic research methodology. *American Journal of Applied Sciences*, 5(11), pp.1602-1604.

Nordqvist, M. and Melin, L., 2010. Entrepreneurial families and family firms. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 22, 211–39.

Nordqvist, M., 2005. Familiness in top management teams: Commentary on Ensley and Pearson's "an exploratory comparison of the behavioural dynamics of top management teams in family and nonfamily new ventures: Cohesion, conflict, potency, and consensus". *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(3), pp.285-291.

Nwachukwu, A.C. and Ogbo, A., 2012. The role of entrepreneurship in economic development: The Nigerian perspective. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 4(8), pp.96.

Nwachukwu, C., Fadeyi, O., Paul, N. And Vu, H.M., 2021. Women Entrepreneurship in Nigeria Drivers, Barriers and Coping Strategies. In *South African Sociological Association (SASA) Annual Congress*.

Obadan, J.A. and Ohiorenoya, J.O., 2013. Succession planning in small business enterprises in Edo State of Nigeria. *European Scientific Journal*, 9(31), pp. 64-76.

Obigbemi, I. F., 2015. Women entrepreneurship in Nigeria: Policy framework, challenges, and remedies. *Kasmera*, 43(2), pp.2-21.

Odoemene, A.C., 2003. African women and economic development, 1900-1995: The Nigerian experience. In South African Sociological Association (SASA) Annual Congress.

Odometer, A.C., 2003. African Women and Economic Development, 1900-1995: The Nigerian Experience. Ogbechie, R. and Anetor, F., 2015. An appraisal of succession planning in family-owned businesses in Lagos State, Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(12).

Ogbor, J.O., 2000. Mythicizing and reification in entrepreneurial discourse: Ideology-critique of entrepreneurial studies. *Journal of Management Studies*, *37*(5), pp.605-635.

Ogundana, O., 2020. Obstacles facing women-owned enterprises: A case for Sub-Sahara African women. World Review of Entrepreneurship, Management, and Sustainable Development.

Ogundana, O.M., Simba, A., Dana, L.P. and Liguori, E., 2021. Women entrepreneurship in developing economies: A gender-based growth model. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 59(sup1), pp. 42-S72.

Ogundele, O.J.K., Idris, A.A. and Ahmed-Ogundipe, K.A., 2012. Entrepreneurial succession problems in Nigeria's family businesses: A threat to sustainability, *European Scientific Journal*, 8(7), pp.208-227.

Ogunyomi, I.O. and Casper, W.J., 2021. The work-family interface and polygamy in Africa: A demands-resources perspective. *Africa Journal of Management*, pp.1-20.

Okafor, E.E. and Akokuwebe, M.E., 2015. Women and leadership in Nigeria: Challenges and prospects. *Developing Country Studies*, 5(4), pp,1-10.

Okeke, O.J.P., 2017. Nigerian culture: A barrier to the career progress of women in Nigeria. *Global Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(5), pp.1-11.

Okolie, U.C., Ehiobuche, C., Igwe, P.A., Agha-Okoro, M.A. and Onwe, C.C., 2021. Women entrepreneurship and poverty alleviation: Understanding the economic and socio-cultural context of the Igbo Women's basket weaving enterprise in Nigeria. *Journal of African Business*, 22(4), pp.448-467.

Okpara, J. O., Halkias, D., Nwajiuba, C., Harkiolakis, N., and Caracatsanis, S. M., 2011. Challenges facing women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. *Management Research Review*, 34(2), pp. 221-235.

Oladeye, D., 2011. In Retrospect: 2011 April Polls and Gender Ranking in Nigeria. At: http://www.cpafrica.com/2011/05/17/in-retrospect-2011-april-polls-and-gender-rankingin-nigeria/#/news.

Olaluwoye, T., Hoban, E., Connors, P. and Williams, J., 2022. Sexual Violence Against Men in Conflict and Post-Conflict Settings: A Qualitative Research Methodology. *American Journal of Men's Health*, *16*(2), p.15579883221084496.

Olofinyehun, A., Egbetokun, A. and Adelowo, C., 2022. Pooled dataset on entrepreneurial characteristics of undergraduates in selected universities in Nigeria. *Data in Brief*, 40, pp.107718.

Olowookere, E. and Oluwadamilola, E., 2014. Relevance of prosocial behaviours to rural entrepreneurship development in Nigeria. *International Journal of Case Studies*, *3*(4).

Olson, P.D., Zuiker, V.S., Danes, S.M., Stafford, K., Heck, R.K. and Duncan, K.A., 2003. The impact of the family and the business on family business sustainability. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(5), pp.639-666.

Omisore, S.; Madichie, N.; Qingan, A.H.; Nwankwo, S. Corporate Entrepreneurship, Environmental Influences, and the Performance of the Nigerian Manufacturing Firms; University of East London: London, UK, 2017.

Omomia, O.A., Omomia, T.A. and Babalola, J.A., 2014. The history of private sector participation in university education in Nigeria (1989-2012). *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences*, *14* (8), 425, 439.

Onuoha, B.C., 2012. Professionalizing family businesses in the south-east region of Nigeria. *International Business and Management*, 5(1), pp.153-161.

Onwuteka, V. C. "The Aba Riot of 1929 and its relation to the system of 'indirect rule". *The Nigerian Journal of Economic and Social Studies*, 7(3), pp. 273-282.

Onwutuebe, C.J., 2019. Patriarchy and women's vulnerability to adverse climate change in Nigeria. Sage Open, 9(1), p.2158244019825914.

Orhan, M. and Scott, D., 2001. Why women enter into entrepreneurship: an explanatory model. Women in Management Review.

Orhan, M. And Scott, D., 2001. Why Women Enter into Entrepreneurship: An Explanatory Model. *Women In Management Review*, (16)5, pp. 232-247.

Oshikoya, T.W., 2008. Nigeria in the global economy. Business Economics, 43(1), pp.31-43.

Otoo, M., Fulton, J., Ibro, G. and Lowenberg-DeBoer, J., 2011. Women entrepreneurship in West Africa: The cowpea street food sector in Niger and Ghana. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, *16*(01), pp.37-63.

Overbeke, K.K., Bilimoria, D. and Perelli, S., 2013. The dearth of daughter successors in family businesses: Gendered norms, blindness to possibility, and invisibility. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 4(3), pp.201-212.

Özdemirci, A., 2011. Corporate entrepreneurship and strategy process: A performance-based research on Istanbul market. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 24, pp. 611-626.

Pandian K. and Jesurajan V. (2011), An empirical investigation on the factors determining the success and problems faced by women entrepreneurs in Tiruchirapalli district – Tamilnadu, Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business, 3(3), pp. 914-922.

Pandian, K. and Jesurajan, V., 2011. An empirical investigation on the factors determining the success and problems faced by women entrepreneurs in Tiruchirapalli district–Tamilnadu. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 3(3), pp. 914-922.

Para-Mallam, F.J., 2017. Gender equality in Nigeria. *Gender Equality in a Global Perspective*, 23(53), pp.23-53.

Pasillas, M.R. and Lundberg, H., 2022. Corporate Social Venturing: An Agenda for Researching the Social Dimension of Corporate Venturing by Family-Owned Businesses. In Research Anthology on Strategies for Maintaining Successful Family Firms (pp. 47-66). IGI Global.

Patton, M. Q., 2015. Qualitative research and evaluation methods (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Sage

Patton, M.Q., 1990. Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Patton, M.Q., 2005. Qualitative research. Encyclopedia of Statistics in Behavioral Science. Sage Publications

Peltola, S., 2012. Can an old firm learn new tricks? A corporate entrepreneurship approach to organizational renewal. *Business Horizons*, 55(1), pp.43-51.

Pérez-González, F., 2006. Inherited control and firm performance. *American Economic Review*, 96(5), pp.1559-1588.

Peris-Ortiz, M., Rueda-Armengot, C. and Benito Osorio, D., 2012. Women in business: entrepreneurship, ethics and efficiency. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 8(3), pp.343-354.

Peruffo, E., 2017. Theoretical Perspectives on Family Firms. In *Family Business and Technological Innovation*. Cham.: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 9-40.

Peterson, J.S., 2019. Presenting a qualitative study: A reviewer's perspective. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 63(3), pp.147-158.

Peterson, R.A., and Berger, D.G., 1971. Entrepreneurship in organizations: Evidence from the popular music industry. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, pp.97-106.

Pettersson, K., 2012. Support for Women's Entrepreneurship: A Nordic Spectrum. International, Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 4(1), pp. 4–19.

Pettersson, K., 2012. Support for women's entrepreneurship: a Nordic spectrum. International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship. 4 (1), pp.4–19.

Pettigrew, A.M., and R. Whipp 1991. Managing Change for Competitive Success. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Phan, P.H., Wright, M., Ucbasaran, D. and Tan, W.L., 2009. Corporate entrepreneurship: Current research and future directions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 24(3), pp.197-205.

Phillips, N.J., 2006. Women In Business, 1700-1850. Boydell and Brewer Ltd.

Piekkari, R. and Welch, C., 2018. The case study in management research: Beyond the positivist legacy of Eisenhardt and Yin. *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Business and Management Research Methods*, pp.345-358.

Pieper, T.M., Astrachan, J.H. and Manners, G.E., 2013. Conflict in family business: Common metaphors and suggestions for intervention. *Family Relations*, 62(3), pp.490-500.

Pinchot III, G., 1985. Intrapreneuring: Why you don't have to leave the corporation to become an entrepreneur. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign's Academy for Entrepreneurial Leadership Historical Research Reference in Entrepreneurship.

Pinfield, L.T., 1986. A field evaluation of perspectives on organizational decision making. Administrative Science Quarterly, pp.365-388.

Poggesi, S., Mari, M. and De Vita, L., 2016. What's new in female entrepreneurship research? Answers from the literature. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, *12*(3), pp.735-764.

Polit, D. E., & Hungler, B. P., 1997. Essentials of nursing research: Methods, appraisal, and utilization (4th ed.). Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott.

Post, S.G., Underwood, L.G., Schloss, J.P. and Hurlbut, W.B., 2002. Altruism and Altruistic Love: Science, Philosophy, and Religion in Dialogue. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Poutziouris, P., 2001. The views of family companies on venture capital: Empirical evidence from the UK small to medium-size enterprising economy. *Family Business Review*, *14*(3), pp.277-291.

Powell, B. ed., 2008. *Making Poor Nations Rich: Entrepreneurship and the Process of Economic Development*. Stanford Economics and Finance.

Poza, E. J., and Daugherty, M. S. (2014). *Family Business* (4th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Pratt, M.G., 2009. From the editors: For the lack of a boilerplate: Tips on writing up (and reviewing) qualitative research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(5), pp.856-862.

Priyanka, K. and Surender, M., 2020. Innovation in Women-Managed Micro-Businesses in India. Advances in Management, 13(3), pp.26-34.

Purkayastha, S., Veliyath, R. and George, R., 2019. The roles of family ownership and family management in the governance of agency conflicts. *Journal of Business Research*, *98*, pp.50-64.

Robbins, D.K. and Pearce J.A., 1992. Turnaround: Retrenchment and Recovery. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13, pp.287-309.

Quinn, J.B., 1979. Technological innovation, entrepreneurship, and strategy. *Sloan Management Review (pre-1986)*, 20(3), pp.19.

Rabaa'i, A., Bandara, W. and Gable, G.G., 2009. ERP systems in the higher education sector: a descriptive case study.

Ramadani, V., Bexheti, A., Rexhepi, G., Ratten, V. and Ibraimi, S., 2017. Succession issues in Albanian family businesses: exploratory research. *Journal of Balkan and Near Eastern Studies*, *19*(3), pp.294-312.

Ramadani, V., Memili, E., Palalić, R. and Chang, E.P., 2020. Socioemotional Wealth in Family Businesses. In *Entrepreneurial Family Businesses* (pp. 101-119). Springer, Cham.

Randolph, R.V., Li, Z. and Daspit, J.J., 2017. Toward a typology of family firm corporate entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 55(4), pp.530-546.

Ranfagni, S., Runfola, A. and Sarti, D., 2021. Family firms between territory and internationalization: an authenticity-based perspective. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 33(7-8), pp.555-579.

Rashid, S. and Ratten, V., 2020. A systematic literature review on women entrepreneurship in emerging economies while reflecting specifically on SAARC countries. *Entrepreneurship and Organizational Change*. Springer, pp.37-88.

Ratten, V., Dana, L.P. and Ramadani, V., 2017. Internationalisation of family business groups in transition economies. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, *30*(4), pp.509-525. Reynolds, S., Cotrino, F., Ifedi, C., and Donthu, N., 2020. An exploratory study of executive factors that lead to technology adoption in small businesses. *Journal of Small Business Strategy*, *30*(2), pp.1-16.

Rhode, D.L. and Packel, A.K., 2014. Diversity on corporate boards: How much difference does difference make. *Delaware. Journal of Corporate Law.*, *39*, p.377.

Rogoff, E. G., and Heck, R. K. Z. (2003). Evolving research in entrepreneurship and family business: Recognizing family as the oxygen that feeds the fire of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(5), 559-566.

Rosenblatt, P.C., 1985. *The family in business: [understanding and dealing with the challenges entrepreneurial families face]*. Jossey-Bass.

Reay, T., Zafar, A., Monteiro, P. and Glaser, V., 2019. Presenting findings from qualitative research: One size does not fit all!. In *The production of managerial knowledge and organizational theory: new approaches to writing, producing and consuming theory*. Emerald Publishing Limited.

Rennie, D.L., 2004. Reflexivity and person-centered counselling. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 44(2), pp.182-203.

Reynos, A., 2019. Polygamy, co-wives' complementarities, Delaware Journal of Corporate Lawhe and intrahousehold inequality. *Working. Paper, University. Michigan., Ann Arbor, 10.*

Reynolds, S., Cotrino, F., Ifedi, C. and Donthu, N., 2020. An exploratory study of executive factors that lead to technology adoption in small businesses. *Journal of Small Business Strategy*, *30*(2), pp.1-16.

Richards, L. and Morse, J.M., 2012. Readme first for a user's guide to qualitative methods. Sage.

Ridder, H.G., Hoon, C. and McCandless, A., 2009. The theoretical contribution of case study research to the field of strategy and management. *Research Methodology in Strategy and Management*, (5) pp. 137-175.

Rigtering, J.P. and Behrens, M.A., 2021. The Effect of Corporate—Start-Up Collaborations on Corporate Entrepreneurship. *Review of Managerial Science*, *15*(8), pp.2427-2454.

Rogoff, E.G. and Heck, R.K.Z., 2003. Evolving research in entrepreneurship and family business: Recognizing family as the oxygen that feeds the fire of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(5), pp.559-566.

Rolfe, G., 2014. Rethinking reflective education: what would Dewey have done? *Nurse Education Today*, *34*(8), pp.1179-1183.

Rondi, E., Sciascia, S. and De Massis, A.V., 2020. Innovation In Small Family Firms (No. 1, pp. 10-19).

Rosenblatt, P.C., 1985. *The family in business: [understanding and dealing with the challenges entrepreneurial families face]*. Jossey-Bass.

Rowe, B.R. and Hong, G.S., 2000. The role of wives in family businesses: The paid and unpaid work of women. *Family Business Review*, 13(1), pp.1-13.

Runyan, R.C., Huddleston, P. and Swinney, J., 2006. Entrepreneurial orientation and social capital as small firm strategies: A study of gender differences from a resource-based view. *The International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 2(4), pp.455-477.

Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L., 2020. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation from a self-determination theory perspective: Definitions, theory, practices, and future directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, *61*, p.1-11.

Ryen, A., 2004. Ethical issues. Qualitative Research Practice, pp.230-247.

Sacristán-Navarro, M., Gómez-Ansón, S. and Cabeza-García, L., 2011. Family ownership and control, the presence of other large shareholders, and firm performance: Further evidence. *Family Business Review*, 24(1), pp.71-93.

Sadi, M.A. and Al-Ghazali, B.M., 2012. The dynamics of entrepreneurial motivation among women: A comparative study of businesswomen in Saudi Arabia and Bahrain. In *The GCC Economies* (pp. 217-227). Springer, New York, NY.

Sahi, A., 2022. Demographics and financial risk tolerance among investors of Punjab: an empirical analysis. *International Journal of Economic Policy in Emerging Economies*, 15(2-4), pp.153-163.

Sajuyigbe, A.S. and Fadeyibi, I.O., 2017. Women entrepreneurship and sustainable economic development: Evidence from Nigeria. *Journal of Entrepreneurship, Business and Economics*, 5(2), pp.19-46.

Saldaña, J., 2021. The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers. Sage.

Salvato, C. and Aldrich, H.E., 2012. "That's interesting!" in family business research. Family Business Review, 25(2), pp.125-135.

Salvato, C., 2004. Predictors of entrepreneurship in family firms. The Journal of Private Equity, 7(3), pp.68-76.

Samara, G., Jamali, D. and Lapeira, M., 2019. Why and how should SHE make her way into the family business boardroom? *Business Horizons*, 62(1), pp.105-115.

Samei, H. and Feyzbakhsh, A., 2015. A framework of successor competencies to promote corporate entrepreneurship in family firms. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 23(03), pp.321-355.

Sandelowski, M., 1994. Focus on qualitative methods. The use of quotes in qualitative research. *Research in Nursing and Health*, 17(6), pp.479-482.

Sarfaraz, L., Faghih, N. and Majd, A.A., 2014. The relationship between women entrepreneurship and gender equality. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 4(1), pp.1-11.

Sathe, V., 1989. Fostering entrepreneurship in the large, diversified firm. Organizational Dynamics, 18(1), pp.20-32.

Saunders, M., 2012. Choosing research participants. In G. Symons and C. Cassell (Eds.) *The Practice of Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges*. London: Sage, pp. 37-55.

Schatzman, L. and Strauss, A.L., 1973. Field Research: Strategies for a Natural Sociology. Prentice-Hall.

Schjoedt, L. and Shaver, K.G., 2007. Deciding on an entrepreneurial career: A test of the pull and push hypotheses using the panel study of entrepreneurial dynamics data. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *31*(5), pp.733-752.

Schmitt, A., Raisch, S. and Volberda, H.W., 2018. Strategic renewal: Past research, theoretical tensions, and future challenges. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 20(1), pp.81-98.

Schmitt, M., 2020. Career success factors of women engineers in leadership positions. *Journal of Applied Leadership and Management*, 8, pp.115-133.

Scholes, L. and Wilson, N., 2014. The importance of family firm trusts in family firm governance. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *38*(6), pp.1285-1293.

Schröder, E., Schmitt-Rodermund, E. and Arnaud, N., 2011. Career choice intentions of adolescents with a family business background. *Family Business Review*, 24(4), pp.305-321.

Schulze, W.S., Lubatkin, M.H. and Dino, R.N., 2003. Toward a theory of agency and altruism in family firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(4), pp. 473-490.

Schulze, W.S., Lubatkin, M.H., Dino, R.N. and Buchholtz, A.K., 2001. Agency relationships in family firms: Theory and evidence. *Organization Science*, *12*(2), pp.99-116.

Schumpeter, JA, 1934. The Theory of Economic Development. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Sciascia, S. and Bettinelli, C., 2015. Corporate family entrepreneurship: the seven circumstances. *Family Entrepreneurship: Rethinking the Research Agenda*, pp.47-70.

Sciascia, S. and Mazzola, P., 2008. Family involvement in ownership and management: Exploring nonlinear effects on performance. *Family Business Review*, 21(4), pp.331-345.

Scott, A.F., 1984. Making the Invisible Woman Visible. University of Illinois Press.

Seale, C., 1999. Quality in qualitative research. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 5(4), pp. 465-478.

Sen, A., 1992. Missing women. BMJ: British Medical Journal, 304(6827), p.587.

Setiawan, H. and Erdogan, B., 2020. Key factors for successful corporate entrepreneurship: a study of Indonesian contractors. *International Journal of Construction Management*, 20(3), pp.252-268.

Shamsuddin, S., Othman, J., Shahadan, M.A. and Zakaria, Z., 2012. The dimensions of corporate entrepreneurship and the performance of established organization. *ACRN Journal of Entrepreneurship Perspectives*, *1*(2), pp.111-131.

Shane, S. and Venkataraman, S., 2000. The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Academy of* Shanker, M.C. and Astrachan, J.H., 1996. Myths and realities: Family businesses' contribution to the US economy—A framework for assessing family business statistics. *Family Business Review*, 9(2), pp.107-123.

Sharma, P. and Manikutty, S., 2005. Strategic divestments in family firms: Role of family structure and community culture. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(3), pp.293-311.

Sharma, P., 2002. Stakeholder mapping technique: Toward the development of a family firm typology. 62nd meeting of the *Academy of Management*, Denver, August, pp.1-25.

Sharma, P., 2004. An overview of the field of family business studies: Current status and directions for the future. *Family Business Review*, 17(1), pp.1-36.

Sharma, P., and Chrisman, S.J.J., 2007. Toward a reconciliation of the definitional issues in the field of corporate entrepreneurship. In *Entrepreneurship* (pp. 83-103). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

Sharma, P., Chrisman, J.J. and Chua, J.H., 2003. Predictors of satisfaction with the succession process in family firms. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(5), pp.667-687.

Sharma, P., Chrisman, J.J. and Gersick, K.E., 2012. 25 years of family business review: Reflections on the past and perspectives for the future. *Family Business Review*, 25(1), pp.5-15.

Sharma, P., Chrisman, J.J., and Chua, J.H., 1997. Strategic management of the family business: Past research and future challenges. *Family Business Review*, 10(1), 1–36.

Sharma, P., Salvato, C. and Reay, T., 2014. Temporal dimensions of family enterprise research. *Family Business Review*, 27(1), pp.10-19.

Shepard, J. M., 2013. "Small business incubators in the USA: a historical review and preliminary research findings", *Journal of Knowledge -based Innovation in China*, 5(3), pp. 213-233.

Shepard, L. D., 2013. The impact of polygamy on women's mental health: A systematic review. Epidemiology and Psychiatric Sciences, 22, 47-62.

Shi, H.X. and Dana, L.P., 2013. Market orientation and entrepreneurship in Chinese family business: A socialisation view. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business*, 20(1), pp.1-16.

Shinnar, R.S., Giacomin, O. and Janssen, F., 2012. Entrepreneurial perceptions and intentions: The role of gender and culture. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *36*(3), pp.465-493.

Sieger, P., Zellweger, T., Nason, R.S. and Clinton, E., 2011. Portfolio entrepreneurship in family firms: a resource-based perspective. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, *5*(4), pp.327-351.

Siggelkow, N., 2007. Persuasion with case studies. Academy of Management Journal, 50(1), pp.20-24.

Sigman, S.M., 2006. Everything lawyers know about polygamy is wrong. *Cornell Journal and Public Policy*, *16*, pp.101.

Simon, D. and Hitt, M.A., 2003. Creating wealth in family business through management resources. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 27, pp.339-58.

Singh, A.S., 2014. Conducting case study research in non-profit organisations. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 17(1), pp. 77-84.

Singh, S., Simpson, R., Mordi, C. and Okafor, C., 2011. Motivation to become an entrepreneur: a study of Nigerian women's decisions. *African Journal of Economic and Management Studies*, 2(2), pp. 202-219

Siu, W.S. and Bao, Q., 2008. Network strategies of small Chinese high-technology firms: a qualitative study. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 25(1), pp.79-102.

Slonim-Nevo, V. and Al-Krenawi, A., 2006. Success and failure among polygamous families: The experience of wives, husbands, and children. *Family Process*, 45(3), pp.311-330.

Smith, B.G. and Robinson, N. eds., 2022. The Routledge Global History of Feminism. Routledge.

Sonfield, M.C. and Lussier, R.N., 2012. Gender in family business management: A multinational analysis. *Journal of Family Business Management*, 2 (2), pp. 110-129.

Sorenson, R. L., 1999. Conflict management strategies used by successful family businesses. *Family Business Review*, 12(4), pp.325-340.

Sousa, D., 2014. Validation in qualitative research: General aspects and specificities of the descriptive phenomenological method. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 11(2), pp.211-227.

Spring, A., 2009. African women in the entrepreneurial landscape: Reconsidering the formal and informal sectors. *Journal of African Business*, 10(1), pp.11-30.

Squires H, Chilcott J, Akehurst R, Burr J, Kelly M.P., 2016. A Framework for Developing the Structure of Public Health Economic Models. *Value Health*.;19(5):588–601.

Squires, D., 2016. Firm behavior under quantity controls: The theory of virtual quantities. *Journal of Environmental Economics and Management*, 79, pp.70-86.

Stamm, I. and Lubinski, C., 2011. Crossroads of family business research and firm demography—A critical assessment of family business survival rates. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 2(3), pp.117-127.

Starman, A.B., 2013. The case study as a type of qualitative research. *Journal of Contemporary Educational Studies/Sodobna Pedagogika*, 64(1), pp. 28–43

Steier, L.P. and Ward, J.L., 2006. If theories of family enterprise really do matter, so does change in management education. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *30*(6), pp.887-895.

Stel, A.V., Carree, M. and Thurik, R., 2005. The effect of entrepreneurial activity on national economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3), pp.311-321.

Stenbacka, C., 2001. Qualitative research requires quality concepts of its own. *Management Decision*. 39(7), pp. 551-556.

Stengel, Emily, "Supporting A Growing Agricultural Economy by Understanding Child Care In Farm Families" 2015. Graduate College Dissertations and Theses. 418. <u>https://scholarworks.uvm.edu/graddis/418</u>

Stern, J., 2004, September. Succession and Business Transfer. In Two Different Processes–Two Different Outcomes. Presented to EFMD 34th EISB Conference Turku, Finland, pp. 8-10.

Stevenson, H. H., and Gumpert, D. E., 1985. The heart of entrepreneurship. *Harvard Business Review*, 63(2), 85–94.

Stevenson, R.J. and Mahmut, M.K., 2013. Using response consistency to probe olfactory knowledge. *Chemical Senses*, *38*(3), pp.237-249.

Stewart, A. and Hitt, M. A. (2012). 'Why can't a family business be more like a nonfamily business? Modes of professionalization in family firms'. *Family Business Review*, 25, 58–86.

Stewart, A. and Hitt, M.A., 2012. Why can't a family business be more like a nonfamily business? Modes of professionalisation in family firms. *Family Business Review*, 25(1), pp.58-86.

Stewart, A., 2003. Help one another, use one another: Toward an anthropology of family business. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 27(4), pp.383-396.

Steyaert, C., 2007. 'Entrepreneuring'as a conceptual attractor? A review of process theories in 20 years of entrepreneurship studies. *Entrepreneurship and regional development*, 19(6), pp.453-477.

Stoecker, R., 1991. Evaluating and rethinking the case study. The Sociological Review, 39(1), pp.88-112.

Stokes, J., Riger, S. and Sullivan, M., 1995. Measuring perceptions of the working environment for women in corporate settings. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *19*(4), pp.533-549.

Stopford, J.M. and Baden-Fuller, C.W., 1994. Creating corporate entrepreneurship. *Strategic Management Journal*, 15(7), pp.521-536.

Strauss, A. and Corbin, J., 1994. *Grounded theory methodology. An Overview*. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.) Handbook of Qualitative Research. London: Sage.

Sueda, K., 2022. Japanese women managers' employee-oriented communication styles: An analysis using constructivist grounded theory. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 59(1), pp.22-47.

Sundaramurthy, C., 2008. Sustaining trust within family businesses. Family Business Review, 21(1), pp.89-102.

Tagiuri, R. and Davis, J., 1996. Bivalent attributes of the family firm. *Family Business Review*, 9(2), pp.199-208.

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C., 2003. Issues and dilemmas in teaching research methods courses in social and behavioural sciences: US perspective. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6(1), pp.61-77.

Tavallaei, M. and Talib, M.A., 2010. A general perspective on role of theory in qualitative research. *Journal of International Social Research*, 3(11).

Tavallaei, M. and Talib, M.A., 2010. A general perspective on role of theory in qualitative research. *Journal of International Social Research*, 3(11).

Teece, D.J., Pisano, G. and Shuen, A., 1997. Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. *Strategic Management Journal*, *18*(7), pp.509-533.

Tellis, W., 1997. Application of a case study methodology. The Qualitative Report, 3(3), pp.1-19.

Tertilt, M., 2005. Polygyny, fertility, and savings. Journal of Political Economy, 113(6), pp.1341-1371.

Thackeray, R., Neiger, B.L., Bartle, H., Hill, S.C. and Barnes, M.D., 2002. Elementary school teachers' perspectives on health instruction: implications for health education. *Journal of Health Education*, *33*(2), pp.77-82.

Thaddeus, E., 2012. Perspectives: Entrepreneurship development and growth of enterprises in Nigeria. *Entrepreneurial Practice Review*, 2(2), pp.31-35.

Thebaud, S., 2013. Entrepreneurship. In V. Smith (Ed). Sociology of Work: An Encyclopaedia. California: Thousand Oaks.

Theeuwen, A., Duplat, V., Wickert, C. and Tjemkes, B., 2021. How do women overcome gender inequality by forming small-scale cooperatives? The case of the agricultural sector in Uganda. *Sustainability*, *13*(4), pp.1797.

Thissen, M.R., Fisher, C., Barber, L. and Sattaluri, S., 2008. Computer audio-recorded interviewing (CARI): A tool for monitoring field interviewers and improving field data collection. In *Proceedings of the International Methodology Symposium*, (11), pp. 522-535.

Thomas, D.R., 2003. A general inductive approach for qualitative data analysis, pp.2-11.

Thomas, D.R., 2006. A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American journal* of evaluation, 27(2), pp.237-246.

Thomas, F.B., 2022. The Role of Purposive Sampling Technique as a Tool for Informal Choices in a Social Sciences in Research Methods. 2(5)

Thomas, F.B., 2022. The Role of Purposive Sampling Technique as a Tool for Informal Choices in a Social Sciences in Research Methods. *Just Agriculture*, 2(5).

Thursby, J.G. and Thursby, M.C., 2001. Industry perspectives on licensing university technologies: Sources and problems. *Industry and Higher Education*, 15(4), pp.289-294.

Todd, G.M., 2000. The absolution of Reynolds: The constitutionality of religious polygamy. Williams and Mary Bill of Rights Journal, 8(2), pp. 498-534.

Trochim, W. M., 2005. Research Methods: The Concise Knowledge Base. Atomic Dog Publishing.

United Nations, 2006. Entrepreneurship and e-Business Development for Women, 1-14. United Nations

Upton, N., Teal, E.J. and Felan, J.T., 2001. Strategic and business planning practices of fast growth family firms. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 39(1), pp.60-72.

Upton, N., Teal, E.J., and Felan, J.T. (2001). Strategic and business planning practices of fast growth family firms. Journal of Small Business Management, 39(1), 60–72.

Urbano, D., Turro, A., Wright, M. And Zahra, S., 2022. Corporate Entrepreneurship: A Systematic Literature Review and Future Research Agenda. *Small Business Economics*, pp.1-25.

Urbano, D., Turro, A., Wright, M. and Zahra, S., 2022. Corporate entrepreneurship: a systematic literature review and future research agenda. *Small Business Economics*, pp.1-25.

Vago, M., 2004. Integrated Change Management: Challenges for family business clients and consultants. *Family Business Review*, 17(1), pp.71-80.

Van de Ven, A.H., 2017. The innovation journey: you can't control it, but you can learn to manoeuvre it. *Innovation*, 19(1), pp. 39-42.

van der Wath, A. and van Wyk, N., 2020. A hermeneutic literature review to conceptualise altruism as a value in nursing. *Scandinavian Journal of Caring Sciences*, *34*(3), pp.575-584.

Van Stel, A., Carree, M. and Thurik, R., 2005. The effect of entrepreneurial activity on national Economic growth. *Small Business Economics*, 24(3), pp.311-321.

Vaz-Curado, S.F.L. and Mueller, A.P., 2019. The concept of entrepreneur of Schumpeter in comparison to Kirzner. *MISES: Interdisciplinary Journal of Philosophy, Law and Economics*, 7(3), pp.129-136.

Venter, E. and Farrington, S., 2009. The nature of family businesses and their importance for economic development. *New Contree*, 58.

Venter, E., Boshoff, C. and Maas, G., 2005. The influence of successor-related factors on the succession process in small and medium-sized family businesses. *Family Business Review*, *18*(4), pp.283-303.

Vera, C.F. and Dean, M.A., 2005. An examination of the challenges daughters faces in family business succession. *Family Business Review*, 18(4), pp.321-345.

Villalonga, B. and Amit, R., 2020. Family ownership. Oxford Review of Economic Policy, 36(2), pp.241-257.

Vogl, S., 2013. Telephone versus face-to-face interviews: Mode effect on semi-structured interviews with children. *Sociological Methodology*, 43(1), pp.133-177.

Volberda, H.W., Baden-Fuller, C. and Van Den Bosch, F.A., 2001. Mastering strategic renewal: Mobilising renewal journeys in multi-unit firms. *Long Range Planning*, *34*(2), pp.159-178.

Von Hippel, E., 1977. Successful and failing internal corporate ventures: An empirical analysis. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 6(3), pp.163-174.

Wadhwani, R.D., Kirsch, D., Welter, F., Gartner, W.B. and Jones, G.G., 2020. Context, time, and change: Historical approaches to entrepreneurship research. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, *14*(1), pp.3-19.

Wadhwani, R.D., Kirsch, D., Welter, F., Gartner, W.B. and Jones, G.G., 2020. Context, time, and change: Historical approaches to entrepreneurship research. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal*, *14*(1), pp.3-19.

Wang, D., Ma, G., Song, X. and Liu, Y., 2016. Political connection and business transformation in family firms: Evidence from China. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 7(2), pp.117-130.

Wang, D., Ma, G., Song, X. and Liu, Y., 2016. Political connection and business transformation in family firms: Evidence from China. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, 7(2), pp.117-130.

Waqar, S., Hanif, R. and Loh, J., 2021. Invisibility not invincibility: Pakistani women and the lack of career ascendance. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 36(6), pp. 731-744.

Ward, J.L. (1987). Keeping the family business healthy: How to plan for continuing growth. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ward, J.L., 1997. Growing the family business: Special challenges and best practices. *Family Business Review*, 10(4), pp.323-337.

Ward, J. 1987. Keeping the Family Business Healthy: How to Plan for Continuing Growth, Profitability and Family Leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Weimann, V., Gerken, M. and Hülsbeck, M., 2021. Old flames never die-the role of binding social ties for corporate entrepreneurship in family firms. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, pp.1-24.

Welsch, J.H., 1993. The impact of family ownership and involvement on the process of management succession. *Family Business Review*, 6(1), pp.31-54.

Welter, F., 2011. Contextualizing entrepreneurship—conceptual challenges and ways forward. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 35(1), pp.165-184.

Wernerfelt, B., 1984. A resource-based view of the firm. Strategic Management Journal, 5(2), pp.171-180.

Westhead, P. and Cowling, M., 1998. Family firm research: The need for a methodological rethink. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23(1), pp.31-56.

Wicks, D., 2017. The coding manual for qualitative researchers. *Qualitative Research in Organizations and Management: An International Journal*, 12(2), pp.169-172.

Wijaya Kusuma, G. and Sudhartio, L., 2020. The Impact of Strategic Renewal in Banking Industry Performance. Available at SSRN 3623905.

Wilson, N., Wright, M. and Altanlar, A., 2014. The survival of newly incorporated companies and founding director characteristics. *International Small Business Journal*, *32*(7), pp.733-758.

Winn, J., 2004. Entrepreneurship: Not an easy path to top management for women. *Women in Management Review*, 19(3), pp.143-153.

Winter, G., 2000. A comparative discussion of the notion of validity in qualitative and quantitative research. *The Qualitative Report*, 4(3), pp.1-14.

Witte Jr, J., 2015. The Western Case for Monogamy over Polygamy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Woldesenbet Beta, K., Mwila, N.K. and Ogunmokun, O., 2022. Deconstructing the Myth: African Women Entrepreneurs' Access to Resources. In *The Palgrave Handbook of African Entrepreneurship*. Cham.: Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 517-542.

Wong, B., McReynolds, B.S. and Wong, W., 1992. Chinese family firms in the San Francisco Bay area. *Family Business Review*, 5(4), pp.355-372.

Wong, B., McReynolds, B.S. and Wong, W., 1992. Chinese family firms in the San Francisco Bay area. *Family Business Review*, 5(4), pp.355-372.

Wu, A., Song, D. and Yang, Y., 2020. Untangling the effects of entrepreneurial opportunity on the performance of peasant entrepreneurship: The moderating roles of entrepreneurial effort and regional poverty level. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, *32*(1-2), pp.112-133.

Yadav, V. and Unni, J., 2016. Women entrepreneurship: research review and future directions. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 6(1), pp.1-18.

Yanagisako, S., 2019. Family firms as kinship enterprises. *Economics Discussion Papers*, No 2019-12. Kiel Institute for the World Economy. http://www. economics-e-journal. org/economics/discussion papers/2019-12 Accessed February 4, 2021.

Yearbook, E.F.B., 2015. Global family business index. The University of St. Gallen, Centre for Family Business, World Bank.

Yılmaz, E. and Tamam, L., 2018. The relationship between polygamy and psychiatric disorders in Turkish women. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry*, 64(8), pp.821-827.

Yin, R., 2010. Analytic Generalization. In Albert J. Mills, G. Durepos, & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research*. (pp. 21-23). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Yin, R.K., 1994. Discovering the future of the case study. Method in evaluation research. *Evaluation Practice*, 15(3), pp.283-290

Yin, R.K., 2003. Case Study Research, Design and Methods. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K., 2009. Case study research: Design and Methods. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K., 2015. Qualitative Research from Start to Finish. New York: Guilford publications.

Yin, R.K., 2018. Case Study Research and Applications: Design and Methods: Sage Publications.

Yun, K.H., You, Y.Y., Park, I.C. and Park, H.S., 2021. A Study on the Effects of Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Pre-knowledge of Office Workers on the Hybrid Start-up Intention. Journal of Convergence for Information Technology, 11(6), pp.83-98.

Zahra, S.A. and Covin, J.G., 1995. Contextual influences on the corporate entrepreneurship-performance relationship: A longitudinal analysis. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *10*(1), pp.43-58.

Zahra, S.A., 1991. Predictors and financial outcomes of corporate entrepreneurship: An exploratory study. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 6(4), pp.259-285.

Zahra, S.A., 1995. Corporate entrepreneurship and financial performance: The case of management leveraged buyouts. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *10*(3), pp.225-247.

Zahra, S.A., 1996. Governance, ownership, and corporate entrepreneurship: The moderating impact of industry technological opportunities. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(6), pp.1713-1735.

Zahra, S.A., 2003. International expansion of US manufacturing family businesses: The effect of ownership and involvement. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *18*(4), pp.495-512.

Zahra, S.A., 2012. Organizational learning and entrepreneurship in family firms: Exploring the moderating effect of ownership and cohesion. *Small Business Economics*, *38*(1), pp.51-65.

Zahra, S.A., 2020. Technological capabilities and international expansion: The moderating role of family and non-family firms' social capital. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, *37*(2), pp.391-415.

Zahra, S.A., Hayton, J.C. and Salvato, C., 2004. Entrepreneurship in family vs. non-family firms: A resource-based analysis of the effect of organizational culture. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28(4), pp.363-381.

Zahra, S.A., Neubaum, D.O. and Huse, M., 2000. Entrepreneurship in medium-size companies: Exploring the effects of ownership and governance systems. *Journal of Management*, 26(5), pp.947-976.

Zahra, S.A., Nielsen, A.P. and Bogner, W.C., 1999. Corporate entrepreneurship, knowledge, and competence development. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 23(3), pp.169-189.

Zamawe, F.C., 2015. The implication of using NVivo software in qualitative data analysis: Evidence-based reflections. *Malawi Medical Journal*, 27(1), pp.13-15.

Zameer, H., Wang, Y., Yasmeen, H. and Mubarak, S., 2020. Green innovation as a mediator in the impact of business analytics and environmental orientation on green competitive advantage. *Management Decision*, 60(2), pp. 488-507.

Zeitzen, M.K., 2020. Polygamy: A cross-cultural analysis. Routledge.

Zellweger, T. and Sieger, P., 2012. Entrepreneurial orientation in long-lived family firms. *Small Business Economics*, 38(1), pp.67-84.

Zellweger, T.M., Eddleston, K.A. and Kellermanns, F.W., 2010. Exploring the concept of familiness: Introducing family firm identity. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*, *1*(1), pp.54-63.

Zellweger, T.M., Nason, R.S. and Nordqvist, M., 2012. From longevity of firms to transgenerational entrepreneurship of families: Introducing family entrepreneurial orientation. *Family Business Review*, 25(2), pp.136-155.

Zollo, L., Faldetta, G., Pellegrini, M.M. and Ciappei, C., 2017. Reciprocity and gift-giving logic in NPOs. *Journal*

of Managerial Psychology, 32(7), pp. 513-526.

Zoogah, D.B., Peng, M.W. and Woldu, H., 2015. Institutions, resources, and organizational effectiveness in Africa. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 29(1), pp.7-31.

Appendix A Consent form

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Name of Researcher: **Koroye, Braye Henry** Email: <u>b.koroye@lancaster.ac.uk</u>

Please tick each box

•	I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily	
•	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time during my participation in this study and within x weeks after I took part in the study, without giving any reason. If I withdraw within [8 weeks] of taking part in the study, my data will be removed. If I am involved in focus groups and then withdraw, my data will remain part of the study. PLEASE NOTE: Withdrawing from a focus group can be difficult and if your study involves focus groups you may want to add the following: I understand that as part of the focus group I will take part in, my data is part of the ongoing conversation and cannot be destroyed. I understand that the researcher will try to disregard my views when analysing the focus group data, but I am aware that this will not always be possible.	
•	If I am participating in the focus group, I understand that any information disclosed within the focus group remains confidential to the group, and I will not discuss the focus group with or in front of anyone who was not involved unless I have the relevant person's express permission	
•	I understand that any information given by me may be used in future reports, academic articles, publications, or presentations by the researcher/s, but my personal information will not be included, and I will not be identifiable. PLEASE NOTE: if you intend to make your data available to future researchers via a data archive, you need to add a sentence to point 4 or add a separate point to request consent for this. You could say: Fully anonymised data will be offered to (name of the archive) and will be made available to genuine research for re-use (secondary analysis)	
•	I understand that my name/my organisation's name will not appear in any reports, articles, or presentations without my consent.	
•	I understand that any interviews or focus groups will be audio-recorded and transcribed and that data will be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure.	
•	I understand that data will be kept according to university guidelines for a minimum of 10 years after the end of the study.	
•	I agree to take part in the above study.	

 Date
 Signature
 Name

I confirm that the participant was given an opportunity to ask questions about the study, and all the questions asked by the participant have been answered correctly and to the best of my ability. I confirm that the individual has not been coerced into giving consent, and the consent has been given freely and voluntarily.

Signature of Researcher /person taking the consent	_ Date	Day/month/year
--	--------	----------------

One copy of this form will be given to the participant and the original kept in the files of the researcher at Lancaster University

Appendix B Participant Letter of Invitation

Entrepreneurship and Strategy Department,

Lancaster University Management School,

Lancaster University,

The United Kingdom.

21/03/2019

Participant letter of invitation

Thesis Title: The Role of Women entrepreneurs in Corporate family firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Student Researcher:

Name: Koroye Braye Henry Email address: <u>b.koroye@lancaster.ac.uk</u> Contact telephone number: +44(0)0785865423 +234 (0) 8037764576

The Registrar

Mololo University

Toru-Ama state

Nigeria.

Sir/Madam,

This is a letter of invitation to inquire if some staff members (family and non-family) would like to participate in a postgraduate research project titled "The Role of Women entrepreneurs in Corporate family firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria"

Before you decide if you would like to participate, you need to understand why the study is being done and its involvement. Would you please take the time to carefully read the Participant Information sheet on the following pages and discuss it with others if you wish? Contact me if there is anything you need clarification on or if you would like more information.

If you do not want your family members to participate in this study, kindly complete and return the Informed Consent Declaration form. Would you please not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions. However, if you wish to participate, it is your university's prerogative to recruit participants. All participants should be employees of the university, family, and non-family members, and should have been employed for a minimum of five years. It will be much appreciated if women constitute about 60 percent of all participants.

Thanks, in anticipation

Yours faithfully,

Koroye, Braye Henry

Appendix C Interview Questions

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate family firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Section A

Name of the interviewee (optional)

Age bracket:

I. 18-30

II. 31-40

III. 41 and above

Sex:

IV. Male/Female

Educational level

V. Secondary School certificate

VI. National Diploma/ Higher National Diploma

VII. Bachelor's degree

VIII. Master's degree

XI. PhD

Others, please specify

Section B Questions

- 1. For how long has this university been in operation?
- a. Less than one year
- b. Between three-five years
- c. Longer than five years
- 2. Do you classify this university as family-owned and managed?
- 3. What percentage of share does the family own?
- a. Less than 50 per cent
- b. More than 51 per cent
- 4. Why did you choose to work in this university and what is/are your role (s)?
- 5. What aspect of your job is exciting?
- 6. Is there any job meant for only women at the university?
- 7. Do you think the role of women entrepreneurs should be encouraged in this university?
- 8. Does the presence of male family members intimidate women entrepreneurs in this university?

9. Do women's entrepreneurial roles contribute to the success of the university?

10 Do women occupy managerial positions presently or previously in the university?

11 Do women contribute to the success of the university?

12. Have there been any generational transfer of leadership from the founder (s) to their sons, daughter, or family members? To your knowledge, are women entrepreneurs well experienced and positioned for such transfer?

13. Are there incentives for women entrepreneurs in this university?

- 14. Are women's innovative ideas accepted as sustained advantages in the university?
- 15. Do other family members consider women's ideas as creative?
- 16. Are there rewards for women's creativity and breakthrough innovations in the university?
- 17. What is the role of women in entrepreneurship in the university?
- 18. What is the role of women entrepreneurs in diversifying the university's resources
- 19. What specific entrepreneurial role do women carry out amidst their male siblings in the university?
- 20. Are women entrepreneurs' part of any joint team to make policies?
- 21. Are women entrepreneurs in strategic positions to make decisions that influence their businesses?
- 22. Does the university's competitive strategies motivate the role of women entrepreneurs?
- 23. Do women play any role in transforming this university?
- 24. Does polygamy and preference for a wife/ child influence the firm's decision-making?
- 25. Does polygamy influence the role of women entrepreneurs in this university?
- 26. How has polygamous marriage affected women's productivity, family culture, and internal tension in the university?
- 27. Does polygamous marriage affect the role of women entrepreneurs?
- 28. How does polygamy affect family cohesion, family harmony, and trust in the university?
- 29. Are women glass-ceiling prevalent in polygamous family firms? What role do women play in such a glass ceiling?
- 30. What is the relationship of father and daughter regarding the role of women entrepreneurs in polygamy?
- 31. Can polygamous relationships survive in today's generation?

Appendix D

Interview Transcript

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Participant Name- Timi Mololo

Participating University - Mololo

Sex of Participant- Male

Duration of Interview: 52mins

Status - Family Member

Transcript type - Audio

Interview Question 1

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Survival
For how long has this university been in operation?	
Participant	
Our institution has been operational for more than five	
years now.	

Interview Question 2

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	
Do you classify this university as family-owned and	
managed?	Entropy on annial arientation
Participant	Entrepreneurial orientation
It <mark>depends on how</mark> you define family firm.	
The interviewer explained the core concepts of the family firm, including family members' participation, succession, control, and leadership.	
Participant	
Yes. From your definition, I think we are a family	
university. Certainly, we will inherit the institution when	
our father is no more.	

Interview Question 3

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question What percentage of share does the family own?

Participant

100 per cent in management and control.

Decision making Control

Decision making

Management

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question Why did you choose to work at this university and what is/are your role (s)?	Selflessness
what is/are your role (s)?ParticipantHe smiled, why should I go elsewhere when I have an important role to impact here.I choose to work in this institution because I am a family member, and my father owns this institution. Also, I have a very strong feeling to stimulate educational achievements in people's lives, most especially, the youth.It is a family tradition to support one another. So I am supporting my father to achieve his dreams and	Family involvement Family goals Altruism
goals.	

Interview Question 5

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question What aspect of your job is exciting? Participant To me, I think the most exciting aspect of this job is family involvement and determination to succeed as a team and family.	Family involvement Family unity Teamwork
Probing question	
Can you elaborate more on what you mean by family involvement please?	
Participant	
When family members are participating in all	
aspects of the institution. For instance, when (there	
was an interruption-phone rang).When family	
togetherness, trust, and transparency are	
enshrined in us as family members.	

Interview Question 6

Interview question Is there any job meant for only women at this university?	Gender friendly
Participant	
No, all jobs are for everybody in this institution. If	Women involvement

you are qualified and can do it. We have women in
all departments in this institution. Women are in the
Works departments. We do not discriminate based on
gender.

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question Do you think the role of women entrepreneurs should	Women entrepreneurial
be encouraged in this university?	Entrepreneurial sustainability
Participant	Transgenerational business
Yes, Probing question Why do you say so?	Entrepreneurial leadership
Participant	
I think encouraging women entrepreneurs will be an additional stream of creativity and revenue. Women have created legacies within the institution. And this has been emulated. Women entrepreneurs are the bedrock of employment. And women are also knowledgeable in management and encouraged. Women entrepreneurs should be encouraged to bridge the gender gap and for legacies.	Family unity and trust Corporate venturing

Interview Question 8

Interview question	Gender parity
Does the presence of male family members intimidate women entrepreneurs in this university?	Equality at work
	Subjectiveness
Participant	
No. women in this institution are not intimidated	Family tradition
based on gender, in fact, gender does not play any significant role in the workplace. In the family or	Condon equality
culture, the gender gap may occur but at work, we	Gender equality
focus on competence.	
Probing question	
Are women treated as second-class family members	
in the firm?	
Participant	
I just told you No. We are an institution that	
advocates for gender equality. As I said, in the	
family culture or tradition, women may suffer such a	
gap but as an institution, it is a No-no.	

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question Do women's entrepreneurial roles contribute to the success of the university?	Women achievement
ParticipantYes, Women are contributory to theentrepreneurial achievements in this university,Women are business risk risk-takers and aresupportive of entrepreneurship	Risk takers <i>Family involvement</i> Women carry out supportive entrepreneurship
Probing question Do you mean the role of women includes or is restricted to supportive entrepreneurship?	
Participant [He Smiles.] No that is not what I mean. I mean women are innovative and can also be supported by men. Women can lead this institution. Women have distinguished themselves in all departments in this institution and can fit into any duty just like men.	

Interview Question 10

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Women presence
Have women occupied managerial positions	
presently or previously in this university?	Women's sense of belonging
Participant Yes. Women are presently at the Board of Directors and were present at the formative stage. Remember, that the founder has wives and they	Women participation Gender equality
assisted him in his desire to start this university. Women have always been in the heat of affairs. Besides, our women are highly rated. We have women as deans of faculties. A woman is the	Polygamy is by choice
director of the entrepreneurial hub.	Family cohesion
	Family togetherness

Interview Question 11

Interview question	Women involvement
Do women contribute to the success of the	
university?	Women empowerment
Participant	
Very well. Women have contributed to the	Women innovativeness

development and success of this institution. Probing question	
In what area, please?	
Participant	Entrepreneurial empowerment
In all ramifications.	· · ·
Probing question	Strategy formulation
Can you be more specific about women's	
involvement in corporate entrepreneurship,	
please?	Family involvement
Participant	
Women are innovative and resilient. This has	
led us to strategically position our institution	
in the committee of higher institutions in this	
region. We have various smaller businesses that	
are owned and managed by women. O, boy I	
dey proud of our women. In the local parlance,	
this means, Gentleman. I am proud of the	
achievements of women	

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Gender inequality Culture
Have there been any generational transfer of leadership from the founder (s) to their sons, daughter, or family members? To your knowledge, are women entrepreneurs well experienced and positioned for such transfer?	Masculinity
Participant I don't know what you mean by my generational transfer. If you mean succession, I just told you we have an unwritten plan which favours men more. We have not yet transcended. But why not. If women are in the right position and qualified.	

Interview Question 13

Interview question	Encourage women to be Self-reliant
Is there any incentive for women entrepreneurs?	
Participant	Family involvement
Yes. There are incentives	
	Family bond
Interview question	
Can you kindly elaborate more on it?	Entrepreneurship in inherent
Participant	
One major incentive is self-reliance. If a woman	
brings additional streams of income into the	
family, that should be applauded.	

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Women are innovative
Are women's innovative ideas accepted as sustained	tromen are innovative
advantages in the university?	
Participant	
To my mind, innovation is subjective. While other	
participants may disagree, I think women in this	
institution are innovative. Women are	
significantly responsible for their innovative	
activities.	
Probing question:	
Thank you very much. It seems we are not on the	
same track. I want to know if women's innovative	
ideas are acceptable to develop the institution.	
Participant	
Oh. Okay. If the ideas are worth it and achievable,	
why not?	
Probing question:	
Can you state any innovative idea (s) that has been	
accepted in this institution?	
1	
Participant	
Fully automated workplace, design craft products,	
delivery services among others.	

Interview Question 15

Transcripts -English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question Do other family members consider women's ideas as	Family integration
creative?	
Participant	Family altruism
From the inception of the family, I can confirm it	
is a Yes. Any creative idea that is capable to reconstruct the university, why not. It will be	
accepted.	Creative ideas

Interview Question 16

Interview question	Women involvement
Are there rewards for women's creativity and breakthrough innovations in the university?	
Participant Women are part of this family institution . Who will reward men? We are a team.	
Probing question : Can you explain further, please?	
Participant	
Explain what? We are a team and family.	

Interviewer Thank you

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	
What is the role of women in entrepreneurship in family firms?	Crisis managemnt
Participant	Decision making
Umm. Women are integral in all departments and	
are practically involved in all decisions made	
either as board members or directors or even as	Entrepreneurial orientation
employees	
Probing question:	
Can you explain how risk-taking affects women's corporate entrepreneurial ability?	
Participant.	
Risk is in every business and activity. Women are	
not passive risk-takers. Women are active in risk-	
taking but are gamblers. He smiled	

Interview Question 18

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Entrepreneurial orientation
What is the role of women entrepreneurs in diversifying the university's resources?	Entrepreneurial/ economic prosperity
Participant Diversification is a source of strength in our institution. We have family members mostly co- wives that own and manage start-ups. Diversification makes all family members, especially wives and co-wives be strategic in their thinking. Everybody is busy with their business, less family chaos. He Laughed	Women and corporate venturing Women's sense of identity

Interview Question 19

	Familiness
Interview question	
What specific entrepreneurial role do women carry	Family bond
out amidst their male siblings in the university?	
Participant	Family embeddedness
Do you mean specific roles? For me, women should	
exhibit family foresightedness. Family cohesion.	
Trust and family first.	Sustainability

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question Are women entrepreneurs' part of any joint team to make policies	Women involvement
Participant	Innovation
I will say yes to your question. Women are on the admission team. Women are in the university protocol and PR (public relations). Women are in	Entrepreneurial orientation
the account sections. Women are in the entrepreneurial team. Yea they are all there.	Participating entrepreneurship
Probing question How these teams directly or indirectly influence women's role in entrepreneurship?	
Participant We have an improved and innovative online admission system. We have our image as an institution been branded and rebranded. This institution enjoys diverse revenue streams through new start-ups.	

Interview Question 21

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question
Are women entrepreneurs in strategic positions to
make decisions that influence their businesses?
Participant
Yes, there are. I think I have told you that before.
Probing question
Really? Thank you. But do these decisions influence
women's corporate entrepreneurial behaviour?
Participant
Yea, I should think so. Women will always look after
one another Remember the Beijing conference?
The interviewer and participant both
laughed.

Interview Question 22

Interview question	Women involvement
Do the university's competitive strategies motivate	Women's sense of identity

the role of women entrepreneurs?	
	Family togetherness
Participant Competitive strategies? Competitive strategies? Okay, women have to particular role in strategy formulation. We are a team and a family and we work as a team. Although, women are important to our institution. Their ideas towards strategies and policies are not isolated but are valuable to the sustainability and survival of this institution. And I think they have a sense of belonging to the institutions. Probing question Do you think adopting new competitive strategies? influence women entrepreneur roles?	Family sustainability Family involvement Venturing Incubation Entrepreneurial orientation Sustainable
Participant I should think so. Competition has positioned them (women) to think outside the box. This is a university, and we have an influx of small and medium businesses . The university has an entrepreneurial hub where ideas are incubated . We also have family and nonfamily members setting up the business. We also have students and the student union owning and managing their business ventures. The community is also a strategic partner and competitor . So, you see, if you are not entrepreneurial and or do not encourage innovation or diversify, you may likely go out of business. And most of these business ventures are owned and managed by women working in this institution. We are flexible and encourage entrepreneurship to thrive in our university community. Interviewer	
Many thanks.	

Interview question	Family involvement
Do women play any role in transforming this	
university?	Family togetherness
Participant	
Yes, they do.	Gender parity in relation to knowledge and competencies
Probing question:	
What do you mean?	
	Family trust
Participant	
Business ideas from women are treated as other	
ideas. We are a team and family. Even nonfamily	
members' ideas are all respected if they can	
transform this institution and put us (institution) in a	

better light.

Probing question

Do this transformation influence women's entrepreneurial roles?

Participant

I should think so.

Probing question:

Can you kindly explain further and why do you think so?

Participant

If an idea or business idea is transformational, it boasts and encourages positive outcomes. For women's involvement in corporate entrepreneurial activities, their ideas are part of the growth of this institution.

Interview Question 24

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

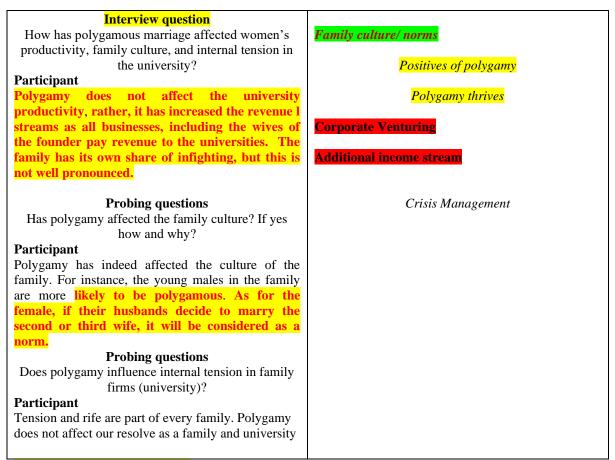
Interview question	
Does polygamy and preference for a wife/child	Work Experience
influence the firm's decision-making?	
Participant	
Polygamy is not an evil practice . For those that are	Crisis Management
into it, they will tell you its own advantages and	
disadvantages. Our culture allows for polygamy.	Decision making
Women might know the marital status of a man	
before entering into it. Mostly the second or their	
wives. So you see, it is a choice thing. As for the	Polygamy is by choice
preference of a wife to others, yes it is natural.	
Probing questions:	Cultural relativism
Do these preferences influence, women,	Cultural retalivism
entrepreneurial roles?	Venturing
Participant	v chtur mg
Yea. It depends on what you mean by preference.	Entrepreneurial Entry
Preference, if the wife is knowledgeable and	<u></u>
experienced in the business. Or if the wife is	
beautiful? However, preference is subjective. I think	
it does influence women's establishing smaller	
businesses and decision-making. Women can be	
powerful, and you know it.	
The interviewer and participant both laughed	

Interview Question 25

Interview question	
Does polygamy influence the role of women	
entrepreneurs in this university?	Gender inequality
	Masculinity

Participant	Primogeniture
Polygamy is like every other marriage unit.	Femineity
Polygamy positively and negatively affects us,	
including women. Polygamy encouraged self-	
reliance and being responsible.	
However, like their male siblings, polygamy is	
culturally biased. Our culture allows the boy child to	Women entrepreneurship
be brave , adventurous , and courageous , while the	
girl child is indoctrinated to be a good cook and	Polygamy thrives
submissive to her husband. But it is gradually	
changing. Women are taking more	Cultural relativism
entrepreneurial roles and are innovative	

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase



Interview Question 27

Interview question	Women's roles are sacrosanct
Does polygamous marriage affect the role of women entrepreneurs?	Polygamy thrives
Participant	
No	
Probing questions	Innovation is inherent
Can you elaborate further, please?	
Participant	Entrepreneurial behaviour

Polygamy is like other forms of marriage. It is
unique to us, so even if I try to explain to you may
not understand. It does not affect women's
involvement in the business. It does not affect their
entrepreneurial activities. Rather it is a catalyst and
enabler towards many businesses. Women have
their own activities, likewise men. Women's
involvement in innovation does not affect polygamy.
Innovation is inherent.

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Polygamy thrives
How does polygamy affect family cohesion, family	
harmony, and trust in family firms?	Polygamy enhances family harmony
Participant	
Polygamy does not negatively affect family	Family culture/ norms
harmony and trust. Rather, the individuals do.	
Polygamy is only a form of marriage. Do not get me	
wrong, polygamy has its own bad sides. But as an	
institution and a family, we have tried to manage	
the diversity of thoughts, motherly influences. A	
family's trust is enhanced when siblings are	
together. We try to look at the positives.	

Interview Question 29

Interview question Are women glass-ceiling prevalent in polygamous (university)? What role do women play in such a glass ceiling?	Glass-ceiling Women emancipation
Participant Yes, it is. Glass-ceiling is a social-cultural problem and not a form of polygamy. Glass-ceiling is a societal ill that should be removed. However, women in this university are not limited to competencies . Women's roles should go beyond just being family members, but aspire for the height of the university	Women involvement Gender is socially constructed

Interview Question 30

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question What is the relationship of father and daughter regarding the role of women entrepreneurs in the university?	Masculinity Primogeniture
	Women invincible
ParticipantIt is very cordial. Every father loves their daughters, don't they?Probing questionHe smiled. I mean if the father prefers his daughter more than his son regarding the policies and strategies in the university.ParticipantWe do not have such a relationship in this university. We are a family. We are all the same. We are Africans and sons by nature and culture have higher leverage than daughters.	

Interview Question 31

Transcripts-English language Coded word/phrase

Interview question	Polygamy thrives
Can polygamous relationships survive in today's	Family cohesion
general society?	L
Doutisingst	Family bond
Participant Absolutely yes.	
I grew up in polygamy. I have seen us grow as	Women entrepreneurship
brothers, sisters, and cousins in polygamy. I have	
seen us fight and come together as one big family.	
The establishment of this university has made us appreciate polygamy. Polygamy is just a marriage	
system that does not hinder progress. My mother	Innovation
owns a restaurant and some private student	Diversification
hostels. We are renovating. My stepmother also	
owns a supermarket. They do supply each other	Venturing
with pieces of stuff. There is peace. We are thinking of how to make money and not querying.	Résultadia Departmente
thinking of now to make money and not querying.	Strategic Renewals

Appendix E

Observation Protocol/Form

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Participating Institutions:

Mololo University Torupere University Gita University Guinea-Egbuson University

Areas of observation	Activities	Date	Start	End	Descriptions
			time	time	
The role of women entrepreneurs	Women entrepreneurs in the universities				
	Cultural practices that influence women entrepreneurs				
	Women inclusion				
	Gender equality				
	Corporate entrepreneurial dimensions (Innovation, venturing, strategic renewals)				
Where observation takes	Offices				
place	Restaurants				
	The university Entrepreneurial centres				
	Privately owned commercial places				
What timing to conduct the observation	Official break time.				
	Lecture-free hours				

			1	Ţ1
	(for some			
	participants, mostly			
	lecturers).			
	Meetings.			
	in got			
	During work hours			
	(for some			
	categories of			
	participants, for			
	instance, non-			
	academic staff).			
List the behaviours to be	Women			
observed	entrepreneurial			
	behaviour.			
	Influencing the role			
	of Women's			
	entrepreneurship			
	The motivational			
	factors of women			
	entrepreneurs			
	Family feuds and			
	bonds.			
	conds.			
	Women creativity			
	women creativity			
	Co wives' feuds or			
	bonds			
	XX7 X (1)			
	Women's attitude			
	toward business			
	venturing)			
	Women's attitude			
	in entrepreneurship			
	role			
	Attitude toward			
	family bonds,			
	feuds, and			
	polygamy.			
	Cardenaria			
	Gender parity in			
	polygamy			
	Influencing effects			
	of Polygamy			
Analyse the data	Thematic analysis			
Check for reliability and	Rigour			
validity				
Source: Author 2019	•			

Appendix F Observational Field Note

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Participating Institutions:

Mololo University Torupere University Gita University Guinea-Egbuson University

Individual Participant's Names (Ammonised)

An Example Transcript of Field Trip Extract

Date of observation	August 2019
Time duration	9.05 am – 9.45 am 12. 05pm -1 00 pm; 2.15 pm-3-00
	pm
Sex of participants	Male and female
Setting	Offices
	Restaurants
	The university Entrepreneurial centres
	Privately owned commercial places
Conversation in the field	
Role of researcher	Non-participation
Observational Description	RQ1: What is the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms?

Observation (field report)

-It was observed that women entrepreneurs are proactive in the innovative process in the universities.

-Majority of the participant demonstrates that women are pivotal to the growth of the university.

-From the observation, women entrepreneurs have a greater impact on the social well-being of the university.

-Women are responsible for more than 70% of the university corporate ventures and start-ups workforce, even though they are inclined to earn low as compared to men.

-Women entrepreneurs in the university are playing an important role in generating employment both directly and indirectly by setting up small-scale businesses and offering jobs to people.

-It was observed that women entrepreneurs own viable corporate ventures.

-It was also observed that **innovation** is the key to entrepreneurship and women entrepreneurs are pivotal in this regard.

-As innovators, women entrepreneurs assume the role of pioneers.

Coded word/phrase				
-women entrepreneurs are proactive in the innovative	process			
- women entrepreneurs influence the university.				
-women entrepreneurs and societal growth and develo	pment			
-women employment				
-women entrepreneurs own viable corporate ventures.				
Innovation process				
Corporate ventures				
women are innovators				
Observational Description	RQ2: How are women motivated into entrepreneurship in corporate family firms?			
Observation (field report)				
-It was observed that women entrepreneurs are motiva	tted by a high sense of accomplishment in the university.			
-Providing for the family is a motivating factor for wo	men entrepreneurs in the university			
- It was observed that financial independence is a motivating factor for women entrepreneurs in the university.				
-The researcher observed that women entrepreneurs can influence outcomes in university.				
- It was observed that women's self-belief is the major	r challenge facing women entrepreneurs in the			
university				
- When women are included in entrepreneurial decision	ons, it increases their participation in the university.			
- It was observed that women's involvement demonstr	rates a high need for achievement in the university			
Coded word/phrase				
-women's involvement				
- women's high sense of accomplishment				
-women's inclusion and participation -women 's financial freedom				
-women 's imaterial needom				
Observational Description				
	RQ3: How does polygamy influence the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms?			
	longing among women entrepreneurs through start-ups			
and ventures.				
	-The researcher observed that participants have a shared family and organisational culture that promote the			
unity and growth of polygamy. -It was observed that the role of women entrepreneurs thrives in polygamy through collective collaboration				
-It was observed that the role of women entrepreneurs inflyes in polygamy through collective collaboration -From observation, there are common objectives for women entrepreneurs in the university, including the				
passion to succeed and be included.				
-Polygamy has influence women entrepreneurs towards growth and development.				
Coded word/phrase				
-Polygamy influences women entrepreneurs				
-Polygamy encourages a sense of belonging				
-Polygamy breeds growth and development				
-Polygamy is not a dying practice - Polygamy increases women's passion to succeed and be included.				
- Polygamy increases women's passion to succeed and be included.				

Appendix G Documentation protocol

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Participating Institutions: Mololo University

Torupere University Gita University Guinea-Egbuson University

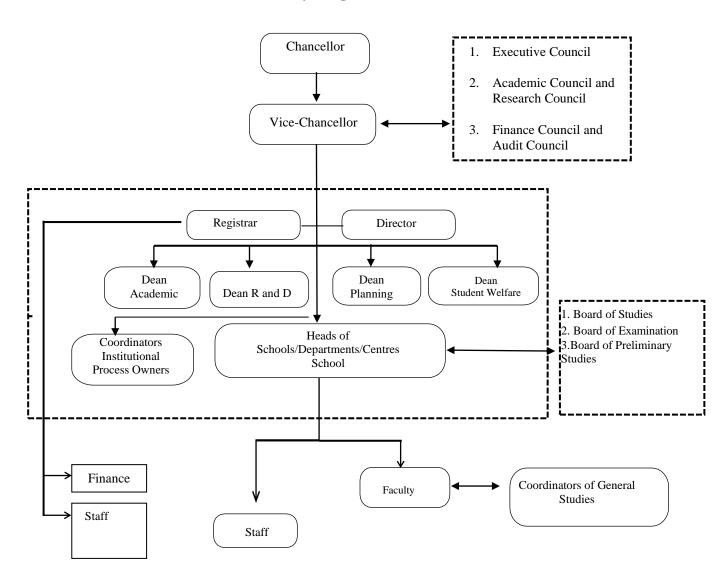
Categories	Subcategories
Historical documents	General information [e.g., name of the university, board members,
	date of establishment, founder (s), etc]
	Stakeholders Information
	Testimonies
	Bibliography
Pictorial evidence of entrepreneurial	Anonymised
activities within and outside the	
universities	
Meeting extracts relating to	Anonymised
corporate venturing, innovation, and	
strategic renewal decisions	
Entrepreneurial achievements	Anonymised
University newspapers and	Anonymised
calendars	
Student Union newsletters bulletins	Anonymised
and handbooks	
Universities web page	Anonymised
Source: Author 2019	

Source: Author, 2019

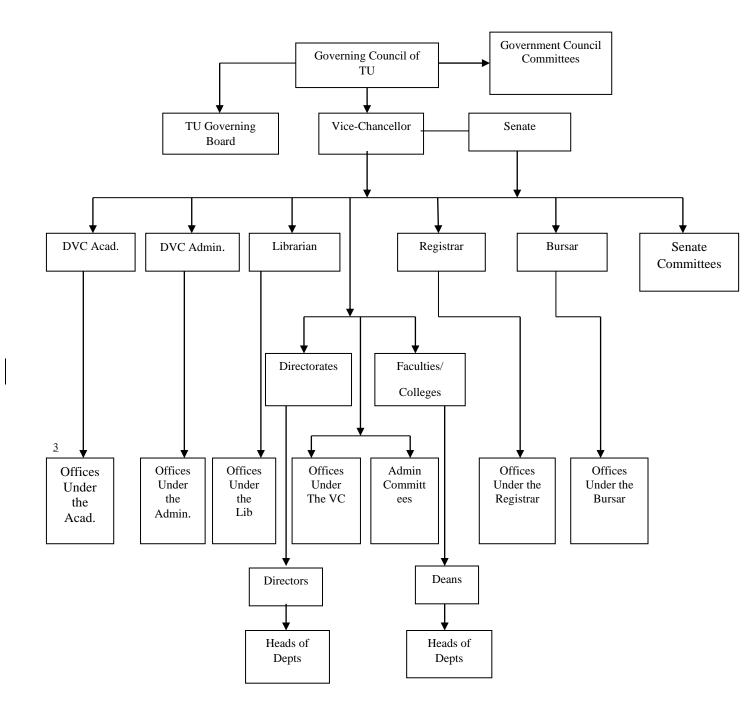
Appendix H Document Analysis

Thesis Title: The Role of Women Entrepreneurs in Corporate Family Firms: Case Study Evidence from Nigeria

Categories	Subcategories	Coded words/Phrase
Historical documents	General information Name of University- Mololo University Founder (s)- Amapapa and Binye Mololo Stakeholders Information- Testimonies – Bibliography –	Family involvement
Pictorial evidence of entrepreneurial activities within and outside the university	Anonymised	Women involvement. Women awards. Women participations Family influence
Meeting extracts relating to corporate venturing, innovation, and strategic renewal decisions	Anonymised Primary document	Women are strategically positioned as HODs and Deans. Women as leaders Women as owners of businesses Women are ideas initiators
Entrepreneurial achievements	Anonymised	
	Awards were given to deserving staff for their teaching and contribution towards wealth creation and job employment	
University newspapers and calendars	Anonymised	
Student Union newsletters bulletins and handbooks	Anonymised	Job advert Women as managers Competitive strategies Concert among students
Universities web page	Anonymised.	
	Testimonies "I am proud to see my son graduate from this institution. What I cherish in this university is hard work and the ability for self- dependence" A proud father to Kayode. Kayode graduated from the university a management student	
	Testimonies "My daughter said she want to be her own boss" A proud mother to Lalu. Lulu graduated as agricultural science student	

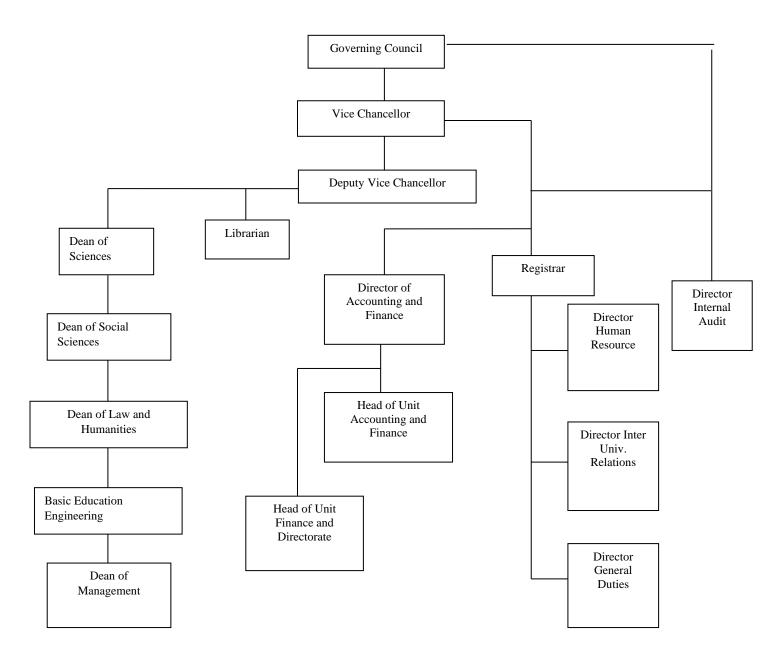


Appendix I Mololo University Organisational Chart

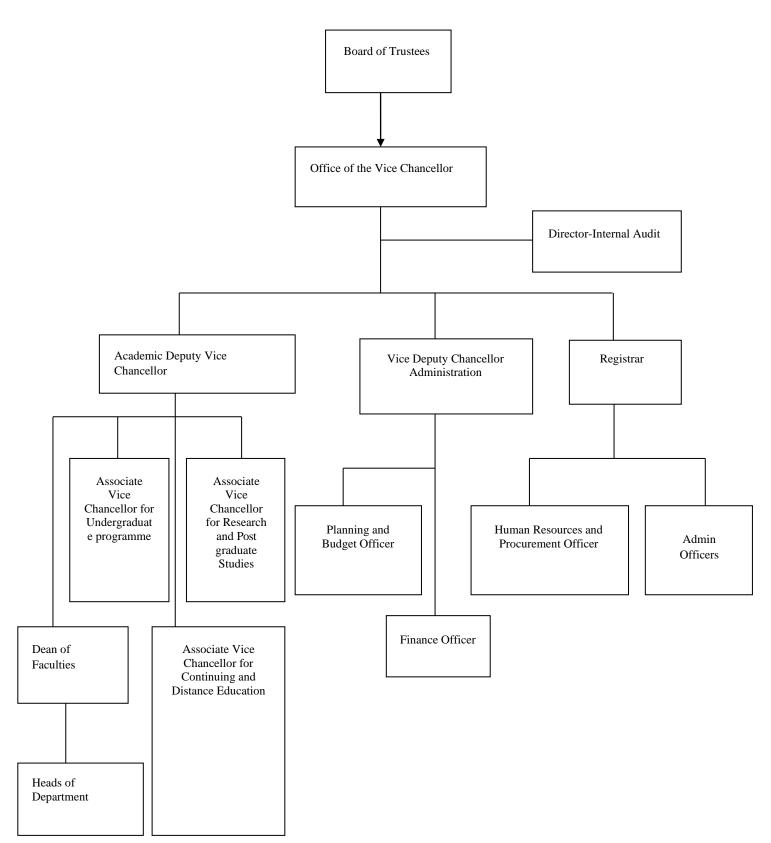


Appendix J Torupere University Organisational Chart

³ VC means Vice-Chancellor. Depart means Department. Admin means Administration. Acad means Academic. Lib means Liberian. DVC means Deputy Vice-Chancellor. TU means Torupere University.



Appendix K Gita University Organisational Chart

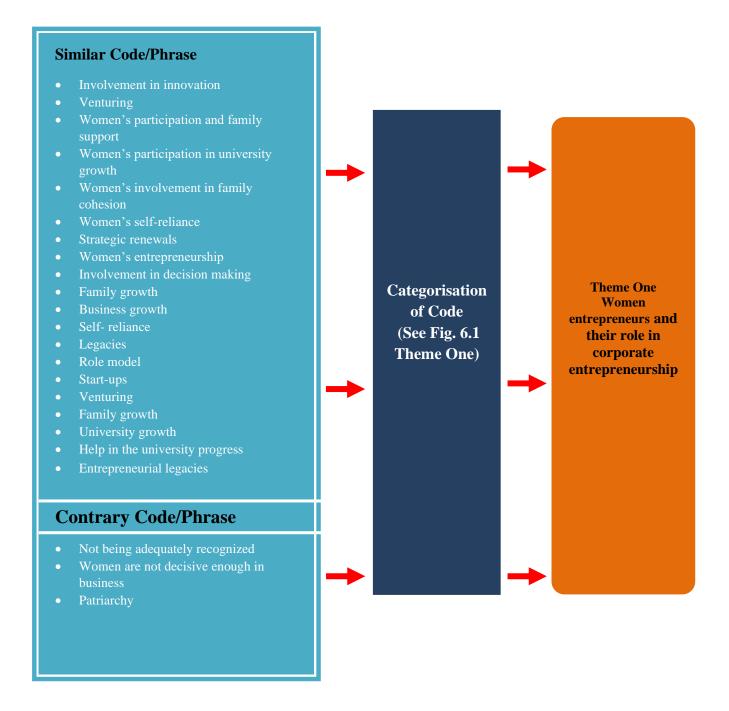


Appendix L Guinea-Egbuson University Organisational Chart

Appendix M A pool of Codes Across Cases Research Question One

RQ1: What is the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family firms?

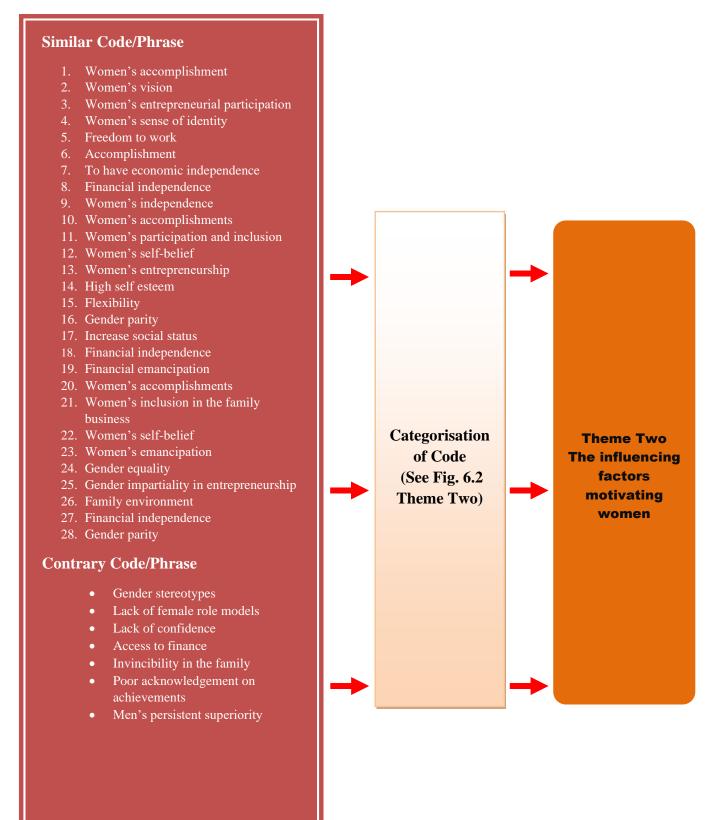
Pool of Codes Across Cases



Appendix N A Pool of Codes Across Cases Research Question Two

RQ2: How are women motivated into entrepreneurship in corporate family firms?

Pool of Codes Across Cases



Appendix O A Pool of Codes Across Cases

Research Question Three

RQ3: How does polygamy influence the role of women entrepreneurs in corporate family

firms?

Pool of Codes Across Cases

