

ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT EXPOSURE AND THE PERFORMANCE OF WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS IN DELTA STATE, NIGERIA: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

ODITA Anthony O.

Department of Business Administration and Marketing, Faculty of
Management Sciences, Delta State University, Asaba Campus, Asaba, Delta
State, Nigeria.

tonyodita2002@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

*The research work investigates and evaluates the impact of entrepreneurship exposure on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta State, Nigeria. Our study adopted an exploratory research design. Research hypotheses were formulated with regard to perceived effects of entrepreneurial exposure on the performance of women entrepreneurs. The target population of the study is the body of women entrepreneurs in Delta State, comprising of two hundred and eighty (280) registered women entrepreneurs with the Delta State Ministry of information. The study's targeted sample is 95 women entrepreneurs, who were active participants of various government entrepreneurial development programmes. Information was gathered through a survey conducted by the administration of structured questionnaires on the 95 sample units, however only 73 of the questionnaires were found appropriate for use. The data was coded with the use of five points Likert scale and were subjected to analysis using the student *t*-test in conjunction with its non-parametric equivalent- Wilcoxon *W* and Mann Whitney *U* statistical tools, through the aid of (SPSS) version 23. Findings reveal that entrepreneurial development exposure significantly improved the performance of women entrepreneurs as evidenced by the results of statistical significance of the performance indices. The paper therefore recommends government active sponsorship and encouragement of women participation in entrepreneurship development programmes on continuous basis; and such entrepreneurship development programmes should be continuously restructured and redesigned to meet with changes in the global business environment.*

Keywords: Entrepreneurship Exposure, Entrepreneurial Development,

Women Entrepreneurs, Entrepreneurism

INTRODUCTION

Women entrepreneurs constitute a growing share of SME owners, with higher than average start-up rates in several African economies. In an era of global economic integration, this phenomenon has assumed a significant dimension in the process of economic and social development of nations and has captured the interest of policy makers worldwide (Weeks, 2002).

Women entrepreneur is seen as the woman or group of women who initiate, operate and organize a business enterprise. Any woman or group of women that initiates, innovates or adopt an economic activity may be called women entrepreneurs. In some countries, women-owned businesses are increasing at a very rapid pace in terms of both numbers and turnover. However, researchers have shown that the percentage of women entrepreneurs worldwide still remains low in relation to that of male entrepreneurs and to the percentage of women in the population (European Commission (EU), 2002).

Women face a number of difficulties in establishing and maintaining businesses. Although most of these difficulties are common to both genders, in many cases they tend to be more significant for women entrepreneurs. Studies have shown that women entrepreneurs are still striving to grow and are still bedeviled by problems such as low productivity, high rates of business failures, low turnover, lack of access to capital and credit and labour (Ahl, 2004). Women entrepreneurs are hindered from potential growth in production and sales by weak business, poor managerial and marketing skills, lack of access to technical support, low availability and high cost of essential technical inputs. This situation is complicated by inept environmental and psychological factors such as a poor business environment, the choice of business types and sectors, information gaps, lack of contacts and access to networking, gender discrimination and stereotypes, weak and inflexible supply of childcare facilities, difficulties in reconciling business and family obligations, as well as differences in the way women and men approach entrepreneurship (Ahl, 2006).

The role of quality entrepreneurship development programmes in job creation and nurturing entrepreneurial potential among youth and women is becoming apparent to policy makers. The creative and entrepreneurial potential of women is a latent source of economic growth and is a veritable weapon for the creation

of new jobs and should be encouraged. It has been ardently observed that with the surge witnessed in recent decades by African economies in the rate of new businesses owned by women entrepreneurs, African governments should provide women enterprises with incentives and support on the basis of their ownership and management characteristics, since they could be a veritable source to stimulate innovation and employment in the economies.

Entrepreneurial exposure and development of women entrepreneurs, will therefore, bridge these gender gap issues by improving the enterprising mental capability of the women folk, instill in them the requisite knowledge and skills to withstand the harsh domineering world of men entrepreneurs and position them competitively as productive individuals in whatever economic activities they chose to undertake. The various entrepreneurship development programmes in developing economies like Nigeria address major constraints that affect enterprise operation and growth through skills development and integrated technical, business and managerial assistance in entrepreneurship (Oghoghomeh & Odit, 2013). This research paper thus seeks to examine how the various Nigerian governments' programmes of entrepreneurship development initiatives have benefited and boost the active participation of women in entrepreneurial production in the economy.

In most of the developing world, women form the bed rock of the society because of their entrepreneurship drive. However, they are always at the receiving end of negative impact of any distressed economy being mothers as some of them have fatherless children as widows or single parents.

The women need to be supported and encouraged to become entrepreneurs. They need to be encouraged to acquire the requisite skills and technical knowhow to overcome the environmental and psychological constraints posed to women entrepreneurial development.

The Nigerian population statistics reveals that the females make up about fifty percent of the population; hence, gender issue in entrepreneurial development presents a great concern. Thus a policy focus on the encouragement of women folk on entrepreneurial production will implies an immense contribution by a significant proportion of the women population to national development. Therefore, this paper investigates the performance of women entrepreneurs in entrepreneurial development in Delta State using a randomly selected sample of

enterprising women who have participated in the entrepreneurial programmes of delta state government.

The following hypothesis is formulated for testing:

H₀₁: Entrepreneurship exposure has no significant impact on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta state.

Here the index of performance of women entrepreneurs is measured by their rate of business turnover, the size of their market, the number of employees in their business outfits and their profit levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Issues

Entrepreneurship remains a key element of the success of nation's economy. Every day entrepreneurial activities are sources of economic growth, create new jobs, generate new businesses, add to increased exports, leverage reduction in imports, and foster greatly creativity and innovation. Entrepreneurship activities have been cardinal to the revival and development of the economy. Entrepreneurs are able to take risks, introduce innovation, adapt to change and work in a highly-competitive environment. They are proven agents of change in an unstable and transformational economy. Entrepreneurs are helping to minimize poverty and improve the status of a growing middle class in an economy. (Gupte, 2004).

In an article by Lee and Venkataraman (2006) they perceived entrepreneurship as “the search process of alternative or new opportunities”. Entrepreneurism is not perceived as an alternative to employment but a process of starting a new venture that demands a person's time, efforts, commitments and financial resources.

Measuring entrepreneurial activity is realized in two distinct ways. First entails comparing self-employment with total employment in the economy. The second entails examining the different levels of entrepreneurial activities from start-up to mature enterprise (Wilson, 2006). Within this conceptual classification advanced by Gupte (2004), three types or levels of entrepreneurial development are identified. First type is the “Nascent Enterprise”, which relate to new ventures in their first year operative life. The second type is composed of “Baby Enterprises” with an operative life of between 4 and 42 months. The third types

relate to “Established Enterprises” that have been in operation for more than 42 months.

Motives for entrepreneurship are diverse depending on individual disposition and the social economic pressures on the entrepreneurs at business inception. Some were pushed to entrepreneurship due to loss of job, retrenchment, jobs outsourcing, redundancy, lack of paid employment etc. however the rationale lies in the fact that they become entrepreneurs for more economic stability and to help stimulate the economy. These individuals can be driven to become entrepreneurs for the sense of independence, a family tradition of entrepreneurialism, to gain status, and because they want to create new products and services.

Like it has been argued in some circle, discrimination based on gender and race can also contribute to the desire to become an entrepreneur. These groups may not have the career opportunities that others have. They may also not receive the same pay. Being an entrepreneur provides them with the opportunity to earn more money, especially in a country like the UK, where being an entrepreneur may be the only way to make a living (Herron, 1994; Basu & Altiney, 2002).

Research in entrepreneurship literature has revealed some emerging variants or sectors of entrepreneurship. One is social entrepreneurship. In this model social or community goals play a part in the start-up of new ventures, in which contribution to social values is the focal objective of entrepreneurship. The concept of social entrepreneurship according to Bolton (2000) is a key ingredient to the success of a not for profit organization. Social Entrepreneurship is a vital part of the economy. In Europe, employment in this sector is said to range from 3.3 to 16.6%.

The second variant is intrapreneurship (Neider, 1987). These are entrepreneurs that are managers of their businesses and the businesses of others. These entrepreneurs can operate on three basic levels. They may have started their own enterprises. They may work for other entrepreneurs. And thirdly, they may be an entrepreneur who is part of a larger enterprise.

Entrepreneurship Exposure and Models of Entrepreneurship Development

There exists abounding evidence that entrepreneurial propensity, opportunities

and ability are key concepts of entrepreneurship exposure. Entrepreneur traits, creativity, innovation, business planning and growth management have been identified as necessary drivers of entrepreneurship (Aruwa, 2004). These drivers help in enhancing the development and performance of entrepreneurs.

Marshall (1994) suggests that the skills associated with entrepreneurship are rare and limited in supply. He claims that the abilities of the entrepreneur are “so great and so numerous that very few people can exhibit them all in a very high degree”. Marshall, however, implies that people can be taught to acquire the abilities that are necessary to be an entrepreneur.

It has however been argued in some quarter that entrepreneurs share some common abilities, although all entrepreneurs are different, and their successes depend on the economic environment in which they operate. Unfortunately, the opportunities for entrepreneurs are often limited by the economic environment which surrounds them. And these limitations are often the reasons why most entrepreneurial ventures, especially the Nascent Entrepreneurial ventures failed (Oghoghomeh & Odita, 2013). Therefore, the entrepreneur must have clear intentions of where they want to go. The inspiration that an entrepreneur has for a business must be followed up with consistent attention through training, counseling, mentoring and grooming of intention. The imperative for consistent training and grooming through entrepreneurial programmes and exposure has been adequately expounded on in the literature. However, opinions differ amongst contemporary schools of thought on the issue.

i). The Psychological Characteristics School of Thought on Entrepreneurship (Recognizing Opportunities)

The Psychological Characteristics School of thought on entrepreneurship exposure focuses on human behaviours ((Lachman, 1980; Cunningham & Lischeron, 2002). It asserted that human behaviours begin from the desire to satisfy ones needs. Here, emphasis is on personality factors; they believed that entrepreneurs have a distinct values and attitudes towards work in particular and life in general. Therefore, the behaviour of an individual is determined by his/her attitudes, beliefs, drives, needs and values (Manoma & Aruwa, 2008).

ii). The Management School of Thought on Entrepreneurship

The Managerial school of thought on entrepreneurship exposure

(Webster, 1986) and (Mill, 1984) deals with technical aspects of management and believed that entrepreneurs can be developed and trained. They believed that effective training in skills development can help improve individual's management capability through the development of rational, analytic, and cause-and-effect orientation.

Many entrepreneurial ventures fail each year (Oghoghomeh & Odita, 2013) and this can be attributed to poor management and decision making, lack of financing and marketing limitation. This school believed that entrepreneurs can be targeted, therefore the need to identify the specific functions concerned, peculiarity of limiting factors and provide appropriate training.

- iii). The Leadership School of Entrepreneurship (Reassessing and Adapting) This school of thought champions the process of “reassessing and adapting” as a proper means of getting task accomplished, which could only be actualized through the process of rigorous orientation, training and mentoring of entrepreneurial intentions. They perceived the process of “reassessing and adapting” as the basic measurement for the management of business. These measurements grow out of previous research which tried to describe the necessary aspect of leadership (Hemphill, 1959). They propose that entrepreneur must be skilled in bringing vision to reality. An entrepreneur must be ready and willing to lead, motivate, organize and direct people. This school is concerned with how a leader gets task accomplished and respond to the needs of people (Kao, 1989). An entrepreneur is seen as a leader. Leaders must be effective in developing and mentoring people. It has been suggested that effective leaders are those who create a vision, and institutionalize it (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). An entrepreneur as a leader is a mentor by whom the responsibility is taught.

The management school of thought tend to leverage more the idea of entrepreneurial exposure as an indispensable virtue for maximizing entrepreneurial production in the economy. This is so because it deals with the technical aspects that leverage the dynamics of entrepreneurial exposure and seem to be based on the fact that entrepreneurs can be developed and trained for better performance. The proponent of this school believes that entrepreneurship is a series of learned activities which focus on the central functions of managing

an enterprise. It is directed at improving a person's rational, analytic and cause-and-effect orientation through training in various skills to enhance performance and capacity for effective result. This school of thought on entrepreneurship has much to do with our study because in the various entrepreneurship development programmes, both potential and prospective entrepreneurs are taught a central aim to identify the specific tasks involved in running a successful enterprise; and also to provide training to potential and prospective entrepreneurs. Training in the area of supervision, financial management control, understanding the behaviour of employee, marketing skills, risk taking and providing direction to the enterprise are some of the issues that are tackle in the area of entrepreneurial exposure and skills acquisitions in the various entrepreneurship development programmes for optimal performance in business ventures. The management school of entrepreneurship is very helpful for understanding the range of technical and interpersonal skills necessary for making an operation efficient and also for motivating people.

Empirical Review

Numerous researches have been undertaken on diverse dimensions of entrepreneurial endeavours. The following are some of the studies, their underlying gender analytical preposition are presented as follows.

The study of (Brush, 1992) considered critically the characteristic dichotomy between male entrepreneurs and female entrepreneurs. Using tabular presentation, characteristic difference between genders in the areas of decision making, risk taking and business focus are shown in the Table 1.

Table 1: General Characteristics of Male and Female Entrepreneurs.

Male Entrepreneurs	Female Entrepreneurs
Decision Making Easy	Difficulty in Making Decisions
Business focuse d on Economy and Cost	Business Focused on Making Social Contribution and Quality
Willing to Take Financial Risk	More Conservative When it Comes to Financial Risk
Task Oriented Managers	Focus on Good Relationships with Employees
Business manufacturing a nd construction	Business small retail and service orientation

Source: Brush (1992)

Entrepreneurs are often seen as people who are willing to take a risk. Research has shown that men are much more willing to take a financial risk than women. Women have a different attitude toward risk and are less risk tolerant. Jianakoplos and Bernasek (1998) found that men were less concerned about hazards than women. Men are more willing to take a risk and fail than women. Sexton (1990), determined that women and men process information differently. Women are more detailed oriented and are more aware of the cues that indicate risk. Male and female entrepreneurs may have similar characteristics however when it comes to risk there is a difference. All entrepreneurs have set of social and human capital (Brush, 1997). The social structures of women are different than men and this creates a different context for women than for their male counterparts. These differences influence their attitudes toward risk (Brush, 1997). Women try to insure that they have the proper social support before they start their business (Ljunggren, 1996). Many women start up their business with the support of their families and friends who may have helped them in the past (Brindley, 2005). This unwillingness to fail may contribute to the solid reason behind the growth of female entrepreneurs (Johnson & Powell, 1994). Banks when evaluating women for financing option often score women lower on the risk taking scale than men. The women are perceived to be less entrepreneurial than their male counterparts (Sexton, 1990). Table 2 examines the risk tolerance of male and female entrepreneurs.

Table 2: Risk Tolerance.

Male Entrepreneurs	Female Entrepreneurs
Less Concerned About Hazards in Business Ownership	More Concerned about Hazards in Business Ownership
Feel Have Enough Information	Require More Detailed Information
Require Less Social Support to Start Business	Require Social Support to Start Business
Willing to Fail in Business	Less Willing to Fail in Business
Propensity for Risk in General	Risk Adverse Generally

Source: Jianakoplos and Bernasek (1998)

There are some differences between men and women regarding the financing of the business. A study in Holland confirmed that women are different than men in business because they start up their businesses with far less money (Verheul & Thurik, 2001). Women have lower capitalisation and lower debt than male

owned businesses. Banks may be less willing to provide capital to women because they tend to have less industrial experience than men (Rosa, Carter & Hamilton, 1996). Women may also have a lack of track record for financing and lack of assets for collateral. Their skills in financial planning, accounting and marketing may make them less credible to banks (Hirsh, 1984). Bank workers tend to view women as less entrepreneurial than men (Buttner & Rosen, 1989). In a study conducted in Canada by Shrag, Yacuk and Glass they found that female entrepreneurs face obstacles including limited business experience and training, access to capital, unreceptive atmosphere, and the unconstructive effect business can have on the family. The research found though that the major obstacle was the negative self-image the woman had about their abilities. Research from Canada indicates that there are no differences between men and women when it comes to lending. Banks in Canada tend not to discriminate. In New Zealand research suggests that some banks discriminate against female entrepreneurs.

Table 3: Financing

Male Entrepreneurs	Female Entrepreneurs
More capital	Less capital
More debt	Low debt
	A lack of track record for financing
Bank trust male	Bank not trust female
Easy to access to capital	Not easy to access to capital

Source: Verheul IA, Thurik R, (2001)

There are some differences in what motivates female and male entrepreneurs. In research conducted by Buttner and Moore (1997) women and men were found to have differing reasons for starting a business. For men the reasons are more externally focused. They see an opportunity and then act on it. Women are motivated by more internal reasons like the opportunity to be their own boss. Men are more focused on earning more money while women want to be more fulfilled and achieve a sense of accomplishment. In America women often make the decision to become entrepreneurs because of the high demands and inflexibility of the workplace. Their experience working in corporate America does not satisfy their personal goals and they feel that personal circumstances are not important. In Asia women have to move beyond the informal networks and move to other sources for financing their businesses (Basu & Altinay, 2002). This

means they may have to go to lending institutions rather than family. Research on male and female entrepreneurs in Sweden indicated that women usually start a business because of family priorities. The men in Sweden usually founded a business that they had previous experience in. Being able to make decisions on their own and also the fulfillment of having one's own business motivated both sexes in Sweden (Holmquist, 1997).

Table 4: Motivation.

Male Entrepreneurs	Female Entrepreneurs
Externally focused	Autonomous
Strong initiative	More positive
	Think critically
	Own boss
Earning more money	Achieve a sense of accomplishment
Previous experience	

Source: Holmquist, 1997

In the area of Management, female entrepreneurs tend to manage differently than their male counterparts. Women claim to manage using more “feminine” strategies than men. An example of this would be that women tend to value the relationships with their employees more than the task at hand. Men and woman also may think differently. Male entrepreneurs are more logical thinkers. Female entrepreneurs are more intuitive thinkers. Women exhibit more social leadership styles that focus on communicative and expressive behaviours. Men tend to be more task oriented leaders (Eagly AH, Karau SJ, 1991). Men and women also may differ in the way they think regarding the business. Women tend to be more intuitive and men more logical. Women's communications skills are excellent. They tend to be better listeners and can understand the needs of their employees. Buttner (2001) found that men and women do have some differing leadership traits. Most women run their businesses democratically. When it comes to professional growth it is important for the women to consider the growth of others as well. Buttner (2001) also contends that women tend to share in the decision making process and are very much team oriented. There is a sharing of knowledge between the women business owner and their staff. Success for them is associated with having strong relationships.

Table 5: Management

Male Entrepreneurs	Female Entrepreneurs
Logical thinkers	Intuitive thinkers
Oriented leaders	Communicative and expressive behaviours and understand the needs of their employees
Grow their businesses	Grow their businesses
More aggressive when it comes to expansion	Cautious and conservative about expansion

Source: Brush (1992)

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted an Exploratory Research Design. Research hypotheses were formulated with regard to perceived effects of entrepreneurial exposure on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta State. Survey was conducted using a structured questionnaire in order to elicit information from respondents about the effects of entrepreneurial exposure on business turnover, size of market, profit levels and number of employees. Descriptive and inferential statistics were applied in the interpretation of raw data and to determine the directional effects of impact variables.

The population of this study consists of all women entrepreneurs in Nigeria. The target population is the body of women entrepreneurs in Delta State. The population for this study is made up of two hundred and eighty (280) women entrepreneurs in Delta state who are registered with the Ministry of information in Delta State. Majority of the women entrepreneurs are participants in the government funded entrepreneurship development programmes. The targeted sample for the study is 95 women entrepreneurs who were active participants of various government entrepreneurial development programmes. The record was sourced from the participating lists of entrepreneurs in government developmental programmes with the Ministry of Information.

The sample size was arrived at using a systematic sampling technique, this involved the selection of the targeted sample from the sampling frame of the female entrepreneurs in Delta state made available by the Delta State Ministry of Information. The women entrepreneurs' population is heterogeneous, and as such through stratified sampling selection process, appropriate sectorial proportions were established as sample. However, only 73 copies of the

questionnaires were found appropriate for use.

Data was gathered through administered questionnaires and were coded into themes based on certain keywords and phrases that indicated a respondent's view on a particular item. The strength of their response were measured into a numerical values using Likert scale. Points ranging from 1 for strongly disagreed to 5 for strongly agreed were allocated to indicate respondent response on a particular item.

The data collected was analyzed in descriptive and inferential statistics. Data analysis has three basic objectives, getting a feel of the data, testing the goodness of the data and testing hypothesis developed for the research (Kothari, 2015; Njuguna, 2008). The data collected was organized, coded and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23 and Microsoft Excel 2013.

To test the strength of significance of hypothesized variables, data collected were subjected to analysis using the student t-test in conjunction with its non - parametric equivalent- Wilcoxon W and Mann Whitney U statistical tools, through the aid of (SPSS) version 23. This is an enrichment on the approach of Adereti and Sanni (2007) with only student t-test to assess the impact of some variables on the performance of the businesses of their subjects. Decision rule: Reject H_0 if the calculated t value is greater than the t- critical value at 5% level of significance and accepts if otherwise.

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Data were obtained with a view to testing the impact of entrepreneurship development programmes on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta state. The study analytical procedure is based on the methodological approach used in recent studies by Dodescu and Badulescu, 2010. In their study five parameters namely; turnover, capital, market availability, number of employees and profit before tax were adopted as independent variables in assessing the impact of the entrepreneurship development programmes on the development of the woman entrepreneurial perception and performance. However, we moderated their methodological approach in our study to contain strictly business turnover, size of market, number of employees and profit levels as independent variables and as proxies of performance measures of women entrepreneurs.

Table 6 shows the response information from the study respondents. The numerical values and the percentage for each measure are captured in the table in their respective perspectives (SA for strongly agreed, A for Agreed, U for Undecided, SD for strongly disagreed and D for disagreed). The response information was further subjected to codification using 5 points likert scale measures. Points ranges from 1=SD, 2 = D, 3 = U, 4 = A and 5 = SA.

Pre Entrepreneurship Exposure Experience	SA %	A %	U %	D %	SD %
1. Pre entrepreneurship exposure turnover is better than Post exposure turnover	4 5.5	6 8.2	11 15.1	28 38.4	24 32.9
2. Pre entrepreneurship exposure market size is greater than Post exposure market size	7 9.6	4 5.5	13 17.8	30 41.1	19 26.0
3. Pre entrepreneurship exposure No. of employees is higher than Post exposure No. of employees	10 13.7	11 15.1	14 19.2	18 24.7	20 27.4
4. Pre entrepreneurship exposure profit level is higher than Post exposure profit level	12 16.4	2 2.7	9 12.3	20 27.4	30 41.1
Post Entrepreneurship Exposure Experience	SA %	A %	U %	D %	SD %
1. Post entrepreneurship exposure turnover is better than Post exposure turnover	28 38.4	27 37.0	8 11.0	7 9.6	3 4.1
2. Post entrepreneurship exposure market size is greater than Post exposure market size	29 39.7	21 28.9	12 16.4	2 2.7	9 12.3
3. Post entrepreneurship exposure No. of employees is higher than Post exposure No. of employees	19 26.0	21 28.9	12 16.4	11 15.1	10 13.7
4. Post entrepreneurship exposure profit level is higher than Post exposure profit level	23 31.5	26 35.6	10 13.7	8 11.0	6 8.2

Source: Researcher's field survey

The descriptive statistics and test of significant difference on the Pre and Post analysis of entrepreneurial development exposure on the performance of

women entrepreneurs in Delta State using the student “t” distribution was carried out. This was necessary to enable us to compare significant difference of the Pre and Post entrepreneurial exposure effect on the performance index of women entrepreneurs in Delta State. The null hypothesis was tested by applying the t-statistics, using SPSS version.23 software. The obtained descriptive results are shown in table 7:

Table 7: Results of Descriptive Statistics and test of significance using a student “t” distribution.

	Factor	Mean	Std dev	Std error	t	tcritical	Prob	Remark
business Turnover	PRE	1412000	2759118	329778	-1.781	4.1	0.045	Sig
	POST	2554457	4602843	550145				
Number of Employees	PRE	27.6	60.0	7.2	-2.019	16.0	0.000	Sig
	POST	78.2	200.7	24.0				
Size of Market share	PRE	167.2	205.3	24.5	-3.197	16.2	0.000	Sig
	POST	330.7	375.2	44.9				
Profit level	PRE	398142	771437	92204	-2.750	16.0	0.000	sig
	POST	943371	1468312	175497				

Source: SPSS Output from Data

Results revealed that all performance indices are statistically significant at 5% critical interval as evidenced by the probality values ($p < 0.05$). The data collected were further analyzed using the student t-test along with its non-parametric equivalent- Wilcoxon W and Mann Whitney U statistical tools through the aid of SPSS version 23. The results of test of significance of entrepreneurial exposure on the study's performance indices of women entrepreneurs in Delta State are exhibited in table 8.

Table 8: Results of test of significance of hypothesized variables using Wilcoxon W and Whitney U non parametric statistical tools.

	Factor	Mean Rank	Sum of ranks	Mann Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Prob
Business Turnover	PRE	54.60	3822	1337	3822	-4.645	0.000
	POST	86.40	6048				
Number of Employee	PRE	54.74	3831.50	1346.5	3831.50	-4.608	0.000
	POST	86.26	6038.50				
Size of Market share	PRE	60.52	4236.50	1751.5	4236.50	-2.912	0.004
	POST	80.48	5633.50				
Profit levels	PRE	52.58	3680.50	1195.5	3680.50	-5.233	0.000
	POST	88.42	6189.50				

Source: SPSS Output from Data

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The tables (4.2& 4.3) above shows the descriptive and t statistics result for the test of significance of entrepreneurial exposure on the performance indices of women entrepreneurs in Delta State. The results revealed that business turnover, number of employees, market size and profit level exhibit significant difference between the pre and the post entrepreneurship exposure on the performance and experience of women entrepreneurs. This is observed as the absolute value of the calculated t value (1.781) (2.019) (3.197) and (2.750) are greater than the t-critical value (1.96) at 5% level of significant. This means that the null hypotheses are rejected and the alternative hypotheses are accepted i.e. there is a significant difference between the pre and post entrepreneur exposure and developments on the performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta state. The import of the responses in the tables, indicate that post entrepreneurship exposure of women

entrepreneurs' performance is better than the pre period in all the study's latent variables. Also, the non-parametric tools (Wilcoxon W and Mann Whitney) informs that there is significant difference between the pre and the post entrepreneurship exposure performance of women entrepreneur. Using the pre-test-post-test descriptive analysis, it was found out that women entrepreneurs involved in entrepreneurship exposure programmes have achieved success and high performance in their businesses in terms of increased turnover, improved size of market, increased number of employees and higher profit levels.

These results have far-reaching implications for government policy initiatives to the process of entrepreneurship and SMEs growth in the economy with focus target at getting the women folk to be active stakeholders in the development agenda of government. A major implication is that Entrepreneurial exposure ignites the development of the inherent skills of entrepreneurship among participants of an entrepreneurial development programme. This is in line with the finding of Malebana (2014) whose studies was on the relationship between exposure to entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

It also implies that Entrepreneurship exposure has the potent of stimulating the personal desirability of participant to entrepreneurial success. Exposure programmes could stimulate in the participant high internal locus of control which is necessary for individual to take the risk of starting new business, have decision making autonomy, exhibit tolerance of ambiguity, energy level and creativity which are ingredients needed for entrepreneurial achievement. This is in line with the finding of Remeikiene, Startiene, Dumciuviene, (2013) who established that results of entrepreneurship research confirmed that the main factors of entrepreneurial achievement are personality traits (self-efficacy, risk taking, need for achievement, proactiveness, attitude towards entrepreneurship, behavioural control and internal locus of control). The idea thus, is that if there is a personal commitment (likeness) toward entrepreneurship, the entrepreneurial intention will as a matter of direct reaction increase in like manner.

Summarily entrepreneurial exposure programme enhances the ability to control the creation process of a new or existing business in the participating individuals and the zeal to dominate in the business. This collaborates the finding of Lorz (2011), whose study supported that the decision to start a new business contains a thinking process and comprises a careful planning that is favorably intentional. All this requires certain skills, attitude and behaviour and to recognize these

specific qualities demands that one goes through a process of guided exposure. The study notes that the rationale behind this discovery is that where members of the society develop a friendly disposition toward entrepreneurship activities, the intention to go into entrepreneurial activities would increase as well.

CONCLUSION

The paper has been an exploratory study and evaluation of the impact of entrepreneurship development exposure programmes on the development and performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta state. The research work among other looked at four index parameters namely; business turnover, size of market share, number of employees and profit level. These latent parameter measures were assessed; the pre and post analysis shows the impact of the entrepreneurial exposure on the performance indices of women entrepreneurs in Delta states.

Based on the study findings, it is concluded that business turnover, number of employee, size of market share and profit levels of the women entrepreneurs improved remarkably after considerably exposure to entrepreneurship skills and technical knowledge. The analytical results show that there is a significant difference between the pre and the post entrepreneurship exposure experience and performance of women entrepreneurs in Delta State. It implies that post entrepreneurship exposure experience situation of women entrepreneurs is better than the pre period in all the four latent variables that were evaluated. Entrepreneurial development programmes have impacted significantly on women entrepreneurs' performance. Results obtained were encouraging because the women entrepreneurs have improved their skills and abilities, market turnover, market size and shares; and profit levels.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- i). It is recommended that government should sponsor and encourage women participation in entrepreneurial skills acquisition at all levels.
- ii). Women entrepreneurs in the state should form mentoring groups and associations whereby experience, knowledge and ideas will be shared amongst both prospective and potential women entrepreneurs to encourage one another towards achieving success in business.
- iii). Entrepreneurship Development Programmes should be redesigned to meet up with changes in the global business environment. Women

entrepreneurs should be taught and encouraged to develop new entrepreneurial lifestyles and capacities.

- iv). Finally, business/industry networks for women should be encourage for access to information technology, raw materials and necessary assistance relevant to the sustainability, development and expansion of their businesses

REFERENCES

- Adereti, A. & Sanni, M. R. (2007). The effects of mergers and acquisition on corporate performance. *Knowledge Review*, 15(9), 13-29.
- Ahl, H. (2004). *The Scientific Reproduction of Gender Inequality: A Discourse Analysis of Research Texts on Women's Entrepreneurship*. Copenhagen, Denmark: CBS Press.
- Ahl, H. (2006). A foundation framework for discourse analysis. In Neergard, H., and Ulhoj, J.P., (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research Methods in Entrepreneurship*. Camberley: Edward Elgar.
- Aruwa, S. A. S. (2004). *The Business Entrepreneur: A Guide to Entrepreneurial Development*. Kaduna: Scopy Print and Publishers.
- Basu, A. & Altinay, E. (2002). The interaction between culture and entrepreneurship in London's immigrant businesses. *International Small Business Journal* 20, 371-394.
- Bennis, W. & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Bolton, B. & Thompson, J. (2000). *Entrepreneurs: Talent, Temperament, Technique*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Brindley, C. (2005). Barriers to women achieving their entrepreneurial growth: women and risk. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour and Research*, 11, 144-161.
- Brush, C. G. (1997). Women-owned businesses: Obstacles and opportunities. *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 2, 1-25.
- Brush, C. G. (1992). Research on women business owners: Past trends, a new perspective and future directions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 16, 5-30.
- Buttner, E. H. & Moore, D. P. (1997). *Women Entrepreneurs: Moving Beyond the Glass Ceiling*. Thousand Oaks, USA: Sage Publications.
- Buttner, E. H. & Rosen, B. (1989). Funding new business ventures: Are decision makers biased against women entrepreneurs? *Journal of Business*

- Venturing*, 4, 249-261.
- Cunningham, J. B. & Lischeron, J. (2002). Defining entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 29(1), 45-61.
- Dodescu, A. & Badulescu, A. (2010). Entrepreneurship Education and Training. Study-case: the AntrES Programme on Women Entrepreneurship in Western Romania, *5th WSEAS International Conference on Economy and Management Transformation*. 2. 477-484
- Eagly, A. H. & Karau, S. J. (1991). Gender and the emergence of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 60, 685-710.
- European Union (2002). *Good Practices in the Promotion of Female Entrepreneurship*. Austrian Institute for Small Business Research, Vienna, December.
- Gupte, M. (2004). Participation in a gendered environment: The case of community forestry in India. *Human Ecology* 32, 365-382.
- Herron, L. (1994). *Do Skills Predict Profits? A Study of Successful Entrepreneurship*. New York: Garland Publishing.
- Hemphill, J. K. (1959). Job Description for Executives. *Harvard Business Review* 37(Sept)
- Hirsh, W. (1984). *Career Management in the Organisation*. Institute of Management Studies. Brighton.
- Holmquist, C. (1997). The other side of the coin or another coin? Women entrepreneurship as a complement or an alternative. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development* 9, 179-182.
- Jianakoplos, N. A. & Bernasek, A. (1998). *Are women more risk averse? Economic Inquiry* 36, 620-630.
- Johnson, J. E. V. & Powell P. B. (1994). Decision making, risk and gender: Are managers different? *British Journal of Management* 5, 123-138.
- Kao, R. W. Y. (1989). *Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development*. Toronto: Holt, Rinehard and Winston of Canada Limited.
- Kothari, C. R. (2015). *Research Methodology, Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: Vishwa Prakashn.
- Lachman, R. (1980). Toward measurement of entrepreneurial tendencies. *Management International Review*, 20(2), 23 - 41
- Lee, H. & Venkataraman, S. (2006). Aspirations, market offerings, and the pursuit of entrepreneurial opportunities. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 2(1), 11-32.
- Ljunggren C. (1996). Medborgarpublikenochdetoffentligarummet. Om utbildning, medierochdemokrati. *Uppsala Studies in Education, Uppsala*, 68-107.

- Lorz, M. (2011). *The Impact of Entrepreneurship Education on Entrepreneurial Intention*. PhD Dissertation, submitted to University of Hamburg.
- Malebana, J. (2014). Entrepreneurial intentions of South African rural university students: A Test of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 6(2), 130-143
- Mainoma, M. A. & Aruwa, S. A. S. (2008). *Entrepreneurship: The Root of Enterprises, Entrepreneurship*. Kaduna: Academy Publishing.
- Marshall, A. (1994). *Principles of Economics*, Philadelphia: Porcupine Press, Deon.
- Mill, J. S. (1984). *Principles of Political Economy with some Application to Social Philosophy*. London: John W. Parker.
- Neider, L. (1987). A preliminary investigation of female entrepreneurs in Florida. *Journal of Small Business Management* 25, 22-29.
- Njuguna, J. I. (2008). Organizational Learning, Competitive Advantage and Firm Performance: An Empirical Study of Kenyan SMEs in the Manufacturing Sector (Unpublished PhD Thesis). Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology. Nairobi.
- Oghoghomeh, T. & Odita, A. O. (2013). Entrepreneur's nightmare - Corporate failure: consequences and probable solutions. *Research Journal of Finance and Accounting, International Institute of Science, Technology and Education, IISTE, London* 4(19), 45-52
- Remeikiene, R., Startiene, G. & Dumciuviene, D. (2013). Explaining entrepreneurial intention of university students: The role of entrepreneurial education. *Journal of Knowledge Management and Innovation*, 13(9), 132-156
- Rosa, P., Carter, S., & Hamilton, D. (1996). Gender as a Determinant of Small Business Performance. *Small Business Economics* 8, 463-478.
- Sexton, D. L. (1990). Research on women-owned businesses: Current status and future directions. In: Hagen O, Rivchum C, and Sexton, D. L. (eds.) *Women-owned Businesses*, Praeger. New York, NY, 183-193.
- Verheul, I. A. & Thurik, R. (2001). Start-up capital: Does gender matter? *Small Business Economics*, 16, 329-346.
- Webster's (1986). *Webster's Third New International Dictionary*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Sons.
- Weeks, J. (2002). Style of success: Research on gender differences in management styles. Small business forum.
- Wilson, A. (2006). *Marketing Research: An Integrated Approach* (2nd Ed.). London: Pearson Education Limited.