

THE HYBRID THEORY: A NEW APPROACH TO ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION IN THE FRAMEWORK OF BUSINESS-CREATION SUPPORT POLICIES

LA THEORIE HYBRIDE: UNE NOUVELLE APPROCHE DES MOTIVATIONS ENTREPRENEURIALES DANS LE CADRE D'UNE POLITIQUE D'APPUI A L'AUTO EMPLOI

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Abstract

Despite the gradual evolution and the diversity of self-employment support programs in Morocco, the results remain limited quantitatively. Indeed, the majority of these mechanisms rarely make a distinction between the entrepreneurial logics of prospective entrepreneurs.

The current research is based on the premise that a better understanding of entrepreneurial motivations contributes to a more rational approach to the business creation process, and therefore favors an adequate implementation of the components of a self-employment support policy.

According to several theoretical models, entrepreneurial motivation follows two logics: a voluntary choice or an involuntary one. This categorization remains ambiguous to this day and has its limitations:

The same concept can be interpreted as push or pull. In addition, there are some entrepreneurs whose motivations cannot be assigned to either category.

This article aims at transcending the binary taxonomy of the pressure-attraction models of motivation and adopts a new approach in this regard: **the hybrid theory**.

According to this theory, the choice of entrepreneurship will be explained by three main entrepreneurial logics: opportunistic, necessity or other hybrid logics (a mix between the two dimensions pull or push).

The hybrid theory seeks to contribute to the understanding of the motivational mechanism of would-be entrepreneurs and allows for a greater representativeness of the situations at hand, given that future entrepreneurs have complex aspirations and diversified profiles.

Keywords: “Self-employment”; “Support policy to business creation”; “Motivational logics push”; “Motivational logics pull” ;”Hybrid theory of entrepreneurial motivation”.

Résumé

Au Maroc, malgré la diversité et l'évolution graduelle des politiques d'appui à l'auto emploi, les résultats restent limités en termes quantitatifs. En effet, la majorité de ces dispositifs font rarement une distinction entre les logiques entrepreneuriales des futurs entrepreneurs.

Cette recherche part du constat qu'une meilleure compréhension des motivations entrepreneuriales, contribue à une approche plus rationnelle du processus créatif et favorisant dès lors, une mise en place honorablement adéquate des composantes d'une politique d'appui à l'auto emploi.

D'après plusieurs modèles théoriques, la motivation entrepreneuriale suit deux logiques : un choix volontaire ou un autre involontaire. cette catégorisation reste jusqu'aujourd'hui ambiguë et présente des limites :

Un même concept peut être interprété aussi bien comme push ou pull. En outre, il existe certains créateurs d'entreprises dont les motivations ne peuvent être assignées à l'une ou à l'autre des catégories.

Cet article a pour vocation de dépasser cette catégorisation à travers une nouvelle approche : **la théorie hybride**.

Selon cette théorie, le choix d'entreprendre sera expliqué par trois grandes logiques entrepreneuriales : opportunistes, par nécessité ou autres logiques hybrides (dosage entre les deux dimensions pull ou push).

La théorie hybride cherche à contribuer à la compréhension du mécanisme motivationnel des futurs créateurs et permet une plus grande représentativité des situations observées vu que les futurs entrepreneurs ont des aspirations complexes et des profils diversifiés.

Mots-clés: «Auto emploi»; «Politique d'appui à la création d'entreprise»; «Logique motivationnelle push»; «Logique motivationnelle pull»; «Théorie hybride de motivation entrepreneuriale».

Introduction

In a situation of crisis, youth unemployment has become rampant and is rising higher and higher in many countries. The fight against this scourge through employability or wage employment poses certain problems; mainly the inability of the State to ensure state-employment and the difficulty of operational companies to secure more job offers.

In this regard, the self-employment policies that are devoted mainly to youth may offer a possible course of action. For the OECD (2000), self-employment is perceived as a very important lever for promoting entrepreneurship and small businesses. This relatively flexible approach is likely to facilitate rapid adaptation to the constraints of the socio-economic environment and to the ever-changing local needs and demands.

Public policies to support the creation of very small enterprises, especially for citizens in difficulty, have experienced an unprecedented boom in recent years, both nationally and internationally. These schemes are considered as one of the fundamentals of an active policy for employment and integration.

Morocco has become aware of the need to adopt a public employment policy aiming at gearing graduates towards the private sector. Indeed, self-employment¹ is currently considered by the government as the only possible way to alleviate persistent high unemployment rates and to promote job and wealth creation.

Thus, the government has redoubled its efforts to promote the birth and development of self-employment. Public authorities have endeavored to remove most of the administrative obstacles and to facilitate access to funding and training.

Morocco has a variety of support mechanisms for small business start-ups. These structures bring together a range of stakeholders with different fields of action.

These policies of support to the creation of enterprises depend on a great number of actors and institutions which are distinguished by their statutes, their means and their missions².

¹ The concept of self-employment, as used in this research, refers to the journey of people who want to create their own business, either individually (men or women) or collectively (couples or groups): to create a very small business or to give a legal status to an informal activity. In a simple way, we consider self-employment as the creation of a very small enterprise (VSE). In the absence of an official definition in Morocco, we are led, for the purposes of the study, to use the number of employees as a criterion for defining a VSE. This category, which is part of the SME, is a company that does not employ more than 10 employees and includes the microenterprise characterized by a workforce of 0 to 3 employees.

² In this context, we distinguish between three main categories of actors supporting the creation of a company: Actors involved in financing and the creation of a VSE, which mainly include the "Central Guarantee Fund" (CCG) (guarantee fund for the creation of VSEs) and the "Deposit and Management Fund" (CDG) (Seed Fund: sindibad).

Parallel to this diversity, for several decades, the increase in the number of support structures for business creation has become more obvious. Indeed, the density of these structures has increased thanks to local and associative initiatives. All the same, the question that should challenge our reflection is that notwithstanding this diversity and the gradual evolution of these programs, the results remain limited in quantitative terms.

We even evoke the notion of failure for some programs, for example; "the credit for young promoters"³ and "the program Moukawalati"⁴.

In this regard, we had the chance to closely track the Moukawalati program since December 2009 through to 2013, and we managed to make, by procedural techniques, two evaluations in a row; the last one was conducted in the form of an experiment.

Our research was based on two samples of 195 future business creators. The first one (experimental group) is composed of 107 people who joined the business creation support program. The rest is a (control group) is part of the group of people who didn't have any support.

The results proved to be quantitatively weak, which we hardly expected!

Consequently, we switched to the question of the compatibility of these support policies with the candidate entrepreneurs who use them and more specifically to the understanding of their entrepreneurial motivations.

For the actors of integrated support financing and coaching, we cite as an example the associations of Microcredit (AMC), Mohammed VI Center for Support of the Solidarity microfinance (CMS), the Agency of social development (ADS), the network Maroc Entreprendre (RME), the Moroccan Center for Innovation (CMI), the National Agency for the Promotion of the small and medium enterprises (ANPME)...

As for the actors of support in counselling and training of VSE creation, the list is very diversified, it is in particular about the association under the supervision of the ministry in charge of trade and industry, house of the farmer; the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), professional chambers, regional investment centers (CRI), the National Agency for the Promotion of Employment and the Skills (ANAPEC), the Office of Vocational Training and Promotion of Labor (OFPPT), the Moroccan Association for the Promotion of Small Business (AMAPPE), the Moroccan Confederation of VSEs-SMEs, the houses of the young enterprise (MJ), the Foundation of the Young Entrepreneur (FJE)...

³ According to the ministry of tourism, the directorate of treasury and external investments, the loan of support of the young promoters, recorded only 10613 creations for the period between 1/1/88 and 31/12/2000.

The sectoral distribution of the loans reveals a strong predominance of the tertiary sector, (80,69%), followed by the secondary sector by 1585 promoters and in the last row the primary sector with 464 promoters (4,37%). For lack of precise information on the unpaid and the litigation, we reveal, as an indication, that the rate of unpaid average varies between 18% and 43% according to the sector of activity of the project.

⁴ The indicators relating to ANAPEC and OFPPT, at the end of December 2012, reveal a creation of 4697 companies by Moukawalati between 2006 and 2012. The year 2013 recorded only 818 creations at the national level.

Our problematic is thus articulated around a main question from which three others follow:
What are the main motivations to resort to self-employment in the context of public support?

Is the entrepreneurial choice imposed or voluntary or are there specific combinations of these variables?

With regard to the motivation variable, our attention was based on the premise that a better understanding of entrepreneurial aspirations contributes to a more rational (or even more efficient) approach to the entrepreneurial process and therefore favors an honorable and adequate implementation of the components of a support policy for business creation.

In this case, the work was based on the analysis of several theoretical models and on scientific research, to which we added an investigation in the field of female entrepreneurship (Cherkaoui & Ibourk, 2004) and in the framework of a program of support for business creation, in the second place.

This paper was organized in two parts. The first focuses on the motivational logics described according to several theoretical models. The second highlights the overcoming of the "pressure-attraction" categorization and the presentation of a new approach to entrepreneurial motivations: the hybrid theory.

1. Theoretical models of entrepreneurial motivation

The theoretical models that have tried to explain the potential reasons leading an individual to choose the status of self-employed are very miscellaneous. Generally speaking, this choice is explained by three basic axes of factors and their interactions.

The first axis includes factors related to psychological and demographic data, the second takes into consideration social (role models), cultural and family support aspects while the last axis relates more to economic criteria such as available resources, the situation of the labor market and the range of opportunities in the field of employment.

However, a satisfactory theoretical explanation of entrepreneurial behavior cannot be based on one of the above models. Instead, only a model integrating these different factors is only capable of shedding light on the entrepreneurial act.

Nevertheless, most research in entrepreneurship has been based on the entrepreneur (trait approach) and on socio-economic or cultural variables. To our knowledge, very little research has focused on the impact of institutional factors on the choice of self-employment. Therefore,

we consider the support of a public system for business creation as an essential parameter in the process of choosing self-employment.

In the same vein, according to some authors, the entrepreneurial act follows two logics: a voluntary choice or an involuntary one. These two logics refer to the pull and push theory. The latter has been widely used by researchers to explain the entrepreneurial act.

Shapero was one of those who contributed most to highlighting that displacement factors were very often at the origin of the entrepreneurial act. Numerous empirical investigations have supported this position. Thus, they have examined entrepreneurial motivation in terms of :

➤ A voluntary choice that emanates from individuals who are highly motivated to make it happen. This alternative is based on "pull" factors such as autonomy, independence, freedom, the possibility of greater financial gain, the challenge, social status or recognition.... The pull dynamic corresponds to a proactive approach.

➤ This choice is linked to "push" factors such as unemployment, redundancy, a precarious and unsatisfactory job, a need for flexibility due to greater family responsibilities... The push dynamic corresponds to a defensive reaction to the state of the job market and/or to the personal difficulties of the entrepreneur.

These two types of motivation are linked respectively to the notions of entrepreneur by opportunity and entrepreneur by necessity.

Certainly, motivations are an important element in conceiving the choice of entrepreneurship. It is very rare that a single motivation is the driving force behind entrepreneurial commitment. It is often a combination of motivations that plays a determining role in the choice of the entrepreneurial act.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), in its analysis of entrepreneurial activity, takes into account this double typology, push and pull. For this group, entrepreneurial motivation is based on necessity or on (economic) improvement through a business opportunity.

In the same vein, Verstraete and Saporta, (2006), distinguished between entrepreneurship by opportunity and by necessity. They explained the recourse to creation by two main reasons: a business opportunity, or the last resort for the person.

Our study will examine the motivations of entrepreneurs, not only from the perspective of the push-pull categorization, but also from a new approach which combines these two aspects of motivations, and which we have called "the hybrid theory".

Although we have distinguished push variables on one hand and pull variables on the other, our intention is not to postulate that these push-pull elements are mutually exclusive, but only to select more or less constrained entrepreneurs from opportunistic ones, as it seems realistic to us to think that effective policies for push entrepreneurs are not so for pull entrepreneurs and vice versa.

Based on this assumption, we limited ourselves to variables whose push-pull classification could be supported by previous work.

1.1 Pull motivational logic

In the pull concept of motivation⁵, two dimensions are generally evoked: the search for economic improvement, interpreted as opportunity, and a desire for independence and autonomy (non-economic motivation). However, according to several studies (Hughes, 2003; Hessels & al, 2008), these two concepts do not seem to appear systematically together.

1.1.1 Opportunity is a major determinant of entrepreneurial motivation

For some researchers, opportunity is an important element of entrepreneurial motivation. It acts as a pull factor of the latter [Reynolds & al, 2002; Hessels & al, 2008].

This implies that a future opportunity-driven entrepreneur is an individual who has discovered an opportunity to develop a business. This opportunity is sufficiently powerful to attract them to start a business.

Stevenson and Jarillo, (1990), define opportunity as "*a future situation deemed desirable and feasible.*" The discovery of the opportunity is an individual process described as subjective. This cognitive process is based on a personal evaluation that makes the situation more or less favorable according to the values and experience of the potential entrepreneur. However, the mere discovery of the opportunity is not enough; the would-be entrepreneur must decide to exploit it.

To this end, the potential entrepreneur will consider the opportunity cost of the entrepreneurial creation compared to other work alternatives. The employee who discovers an opportunity can either exploit it within the framework of their employment contract, or opt for the creation of a new company. In the latter situation, the motivation for the employee's creation will be the discovery of a business opportunity (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

⁵ This concept of motivation encompasses several factors such as: personal achievement, entrepreneurial drive, income, social mission, social status, and power.

According to the classical school of entrepreneurship, the opportunity is the result of an innovation, which is stimulated by the search for, discovery of or creation of business opportunities. For Schumpeter (1935), the entrepreneurial opportunity is the result of "*a new combination of factors of production which manifests itself in the introduction of a new product, a new method of production, the exploitation of a new market, the conquest of a new source of supply and, finally a new form of industrial organization*".

Likewise, for Octave Gelinier, (1979) the entrepreneurial act consists of imagining or discovering and then realizing an opportunity that creates wealth.

For the Austrian school, the opportunity is defined as the consequence of an economic search, an opportunity to make a profit, an increase in income.

Drucker, (1985), distinguishes between three types of opportunities that result from:

- Inefficiency in existing markets due to information asymmetry or the limits of technology to satisfy non-satisfied needs;
- Exogenous changes in social, political, demographic or economic conditions;
- Inventions and discoveries that produce new knowledge.

Similar to Reynolds and al, (2002), Shane and al, (2003), define opportunity as the possibility of improved income. Some people may be motivated by the quest for a higher salary or financial compensation (Donckels, 1989). For others, it is a means to achieve financial independence (Bragard & al, 1987).

An opportunistic entrepreneur is therefore driven primarily by the desire and search for economic gain.

1.1.2 The desire to be independent is the primary motivation for business creation

The motivation that is most frequently identified by researchers is a strong need for independence and autonomy. This can be defined as keeping one's freedom, creating one's own job, being one's own boss and being free to act and control one's destiny.

Within this rubric, some authors have identified the notion of the need to be one's own boss as an important motivation for creation (Albert & Mougnot, 1988; Collins, Moore & Unwalla, 1964), while others have identified the desire for strong independence, a strong belief in one's ability to control one's own life and a high degree of personal responsibility for decision making (Jacobowitz & Vilder, 1982; Sweeney, 1982).

As for researchers on women's entrepreneurship, they most often cite the achievement of work-family balance as a goal for women entrepreneurs to start their own business (Birley, 1989; Brush, 1990; Duchéneaut & Orhan, 2000).

According to a study of employees who quit their jobs to start their own businesses, Cromie, (1987), confirms that desires for autonomy, fulfillment, and job satisfaction drive individuals toward entrepreneurship to a greater extent than economic motivators. Concerning women entrepreneurs, they are less motivated by money; rather they seek and strike a balance between work and childcare (semi-lucrative objective).

According to Hughes, (2003), some people may engage in the entrepreneurial act out of a desire for independence, even if the profit is limited.

While for Bradley and Roberts, (2004), individuals may create businesses out of a need to reject routine and boring jobs. These creators are not motivated by an increase in income, but seek autonomy and new challenges.

In his study of forty French entrepreneurs, Hernandez, (2006), confirms that the main motivation of the creator is their desire for autonomy, which is ahead of four types of motivation: passion/personal fulfillment, strength/need for power, earning a better living, making a fortune and obtainin an income.

According to the French statistics institute, INSEE, (2010), the desire for independence is the primary motivation of entrepreneurs. Indeed, more than half (60.7%) of the people who started their business in 2010, stated it as the main reason. The desire to undertake and face new challenges comes in the second place, cited by 44.2% of them.

1.2 Push motivational logic

In the push concept of motivation⁶, two dimensions are generally mentioned: necessity (lack of another job opportunity, prolonged unemployment, redundancy, lack of employability...), and dissatisfaction (insecure employment, job instability, working conditions, conflict...).

Shapero, (1975), argues that in 65% of cases, the only or primary influence on the business creator is negative. This can be the case in situations such as layoff, the impossibility of finding a first job or dissatisfaction with the current job due, for example, to a bad atmosphere, the absence of opportunities for promotion and broken relations with the line managers.

⁶ This concept of necessity motivation encompasses several factors such as insufficient family income, dissatisfaction with being a salaried employee, difficulty in finding a job, job loss, time flexibility and family concerns...

1.2.1 the entrepreneurial choice is the result of a project of insertion and also a response against precariousness.

Individuals may be driven to entrepreneurship by a need for subsistence in the face of joblessness.

According to Djaowe and Bitu, (2007) , “ *most of the time, people are simply looking to make a living from their activity and create their own job.*”

Some people will do anything to avoid being unemployed (NN, 1988), for others it is more about creating a job than a business, with the long-term unemployed usually having no other way out than to try to create their own job (Bruyat, 1994).

Mason's (1989) study of the motivations of two groups of entrepreneurs, one in a pre-recession period and the other in a recession period, confirmed that the second group was motivated by push factors such as unemployment, redundancy, and job insecurity.

Likewise, Rapiou, (2010) confirms that business creation is a response to the problem of unemployment and, to a certain extent, to job insecurity.

The study of Baccari, (2006) on young Tunisian entrepreneurs, shows motivations with a rather negative connotation among the main reasons for the creation. He cited unemployment and the desire to get out of poverty among these main motivations. Indeed, with the rise of unemployment, more and more people are led to create their business not by desire but by necessity. Likewise, in France, according to the Sine survey in 2006, 21.5% of entrepreneurs create their business in order to get out of a situation of long-term unemployment.

1.2.2 Job dissatisfaction is a factor that guides towards the entrepreneurial act

Meyssonier and Roger, (2006), distinguished between three approaches to the concept of job satisfaction:

"- satisfaction as dynamics in which the individual is in constant adaptation to maintain the level of satisfaction that suits them,

- satisfaction as the result of an evaluation in which the individual measures the gap between what they expect and what they get from his job,

- satisfaction as an emotional state corresponding to the work experience as perceived by the individual"

(taken from Besseyre des horts & Nguyen, 2010).

The lack of job satisfaction stems from a problem of precariousness, arduousness or flexibility, but the cause can also be the search for recognition of work which was accomplished with abnegation.

In the field of human resources, the degree of satisfaction is measured by the turnover rate. This determines the changes that occur among employees during a given period (entries and departures). It can be voluntary as in the case of resignation, or involuntary, as in the case of dismissal.

Several studies have shown a negative and significant relationship between staff satisfaction at work and staff turnover. Lucas et al. conducted a survey of 25 studies that came to such a conclusion.

Hellman, (1997), examined the impact of job satisfaction on intent to quit by analyzing 50 studies in the United States between 1980 and 1993. He concluded that "*the more dissatisfied employees are, the more likely they are to consider other job opportunities.*"

Likewise, Meyssonier and Roger, (2006) supported the hypothesis of a negative relationship between job satisfaction and intention to leave.

Besseyre des Horts and Nguyen, (2010), have shown that job dissatisfaction can push individuals towards a change of position or a change of organization. According to this author, job dissatisfaction emerges as the main determinant of the intention to quit.

However, in a period of high structural unemployment, traditional indicators may no longer be relevant for assessing job satisfaction. Indeed, in difficult economic conditions, and even with a high level of dissatisfaction, employees do not leave their job if they do not have other opportunities elsewhere or if the financial conditions of work are not better elsewhere.

When employees leave voluntarily, some move to another salaried employment, while others move to entrepreneurship. The latter can either obtain the support and assistance of the previous employer (spin-off) or create their future job independently.

Bruyat and Carnet, (1976), showed that job dissatisfaction or unemployment were extremely frequent factors triggering the business creation process.

The same result was revealed by Brockhaus, 1980. The author further analyzed the effect of dissatisfaction in the entrepreneurial decision of employees who became entrepreneurs. According to his study, the decision to start a new business instead of looking for a job, is related to the intensity of dissatisfaction. It is possible that entrepreneurs "*would have been so dissatisfied*

with the previous job, that they would have considered it unlikely to find a satisfactory job in another organization." (Brockhaus, 1980)

Similarly, Stoner and Fry, (1982), confirmed the relationship between the intensity of dissatisfaction in the previous job and the type of business or industry chosen for the start-up venture. High dissatisfaction seems to lead individuals to change industry or sector of activity.

On his turn, Pleitner, (1986), sees that entrepreneurial motivation comes from an individual's dissatisfaction with their job. The sum of these dissatisfactions triggers a process of searching for alternatives: a change of employer or the creation of a business. The latter is also a function of the probability of the entrepreneurial event occurring and the business opportunities that present themselves to the prospective entrepreneur.

According to Evans and Leighon, (1989), people who have constantly changed jobs, who have precarious employment and low wages, have higher chances to become self-employed.

2. Hybrid theory and entrepreneurial logics

Push or pull? The debate is classic between the advocates of reactive and proactive approaches. However, this "push-pull" categorization remains ambiguous to this day. To our knowledge, no theoretical or empirical study has been able to draw a clear and precise picture. There is even disagreement among researchers about this theory.

Indeed, the same concept can be interpreted as either push or pull. We take the examples given by Hughes, 2003: the concept of job dissatisfaction (push motivation) or the desire to find satisfaction at work (pull motivation), the concept of lack of independence in the previous job (push motivation) or the desire for independence (pull motivation). This will cause problems in the interpretation of research results.

Additionally, that this classification can also lead to a lack of representativeness of an exclusive choice in certain cases. Indeed, there are some entrepreneurs whose motivations cannot be assigned to either of the mentioned categories. These people will have a hybrid entrepreneurial behavior.

Some authors have made another classification of entrepreneurial motivation in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The former refers to self-interest, while the latter is concerned with the reward that follows a certain behavior. Nevertheless, some variables considered as intrinsic can be interpreted as extrinsic. We take the example given by Gabarret and Vedel, (2012) of the "gaining recognition", variable . This variable is considered intrinsic by Kuratko

el al. (1997) whereas Robichaud and al. (2001), classify it as extrinsic the moment it corresponds to the achievement of a result. The recognition of others is, in our opinion, on the same level as obtaining money or status (extrinsic variables according to Carsrud and Brannback, 2011).

Other researchers have preferred to analyze the motivation to create business into non-economic motivation and economic motivation. The first refers to several variables such as the need for achievement, the desire for autonomy...The second, relates to financial incentives: the acquisition of wealth, the increase in income.

In this framework of separation of motivational variables (push/pull, intrinsic/extrinsic, economic/non-economic), the problem of confusion between variables always reigns.

One wonders, therefore, about the effectiveness of these theories in interpreting the motivation of these heterogeneous groups of business creators.

Certainly, few authors have tried to understand the motivation to create business as a push/pull continuum (Gabarret & Vedel, 2015; Verheul & al, 2010; Kirkwood, 2009; Beaucage & al, 2004; Hughes, 2003; Stevenson, 1990).

Chevalier, (2000) had the merit to evoke in his typology of motivations to the creation of enterprise in the countryside, the concept of the "creation by will with a "larger" composite logic. According to this author, it is a complex logic where personal and family choices, entrepreneurial will and the will to stay in the area or to live in a chosen setting are intermingled. This category is the most preponderant, particularly in isolated rural areas.

We believe, like Gabarret and Vedel, (2012), that "the multiplicity of entrepreneurial creation situations and entrepreneurial profiles is imperfectly captured by these theories.

Gabarret and Vedel, 2012 thus proposed an approach based on personality traits by taking into account the optimism and pessimism of individuals. They divided the factors of motivation into positive and negative aspects of motivation. According to these authors, these factors "oppose each other in a mirror game and can be linked through a continuum" (see table n°1).

Table 1: Entrepreneurial motivation dimensions according to Gabarret and Vedel

	Negative	Positive
Non-economic	Lack of satisfaction Lack of autonomy	Desire for satisfaction Desire for independence
Economic	Lack of employment Lack of money	Desire to work Desire for increased income

Source: Gabarret and Vedel, 2012

Their representation in four major components "allows us to understand entrepreneurial motivation as a particular assembly of different factors. Their free choice allows multiple combinations that are more representative of the creators' motivation" [Gabarret & Vedel, 2012,2015].

2.1 The hybrid theory of entrepreneurial motivation allows the understanding of the motivational mechanism of would-be creators

In the same vein, we propose a new approach to motivation, the "hybrid theory": that is to say, the business creation venture will be explained by a blend of the pressure-attraction dimensions⁷.

Our objective is to shed light on the assembly and interactions between push and pull factors and hence on the characteristics of potential entrepreneurs with this kind of motivation.

A set of questions arises: what are the main motivations for self-employment? Are they dictated solely by necessity: unemployment/poverty or dissatisfaction in one's previous job, or are they attributed to a voluntary choice (opportunity and desire for independence) or are there specific combinations of these variables?

Our choice of these entrepreneurial motivation variables, as we have already mentioned, is made with reference to several works where these variables appear regularly.

We propose dividing the motivation factors into three categories (see Table 2)

Table 2: Dimensions of the hybrid theory of entrepreneurial motivation

Pull factors	Hybrid factors	Push factors
Opportunity	Combinations	Necessity
Desire for independence	$C_4^2 - C_2^1 + C_4^3 + C_4^4 = 9$	Job dissatisfaction

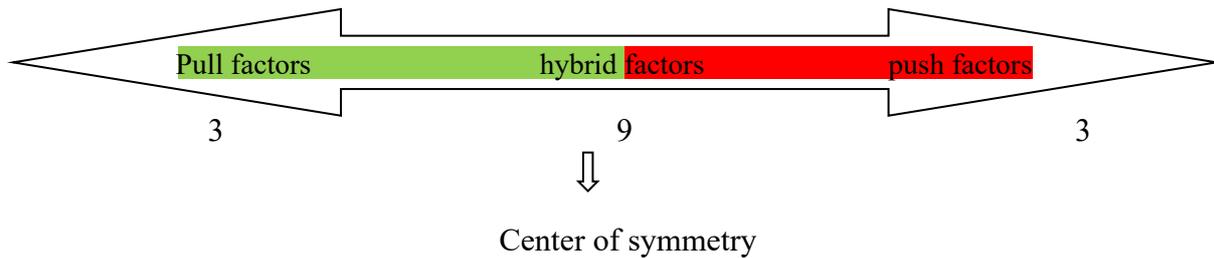
Source: The author

The two groups at the continuum extremes are pull and push factors, and the hybrid factors are in the middle; the latter are defined as all the combinations or assemblies of pull and push factors, the number of which increases according to the chosen variables (pull or/and push). We thus recognize the multiplicity and heterogeneity of entrepreneurial motivations and therefore the difficulty of understanding them.

The hybrid theory seeks to contribute to the understanding of entrepreneurial motivation and allows for a greater representativeness of the situations observed, given that future entrepreneurs have complex aspirations and diversified profiles.

⁷ This is an extension of the new approach of Gabarret and Vedel, 2015

Figure 1: Diagram of the hybrid theory



Source: The author

The hybrid theory distinguishes between push and pull factors without considering them as exclusive. The three groups of determinants often combine to explain a significant portion of the choice to become self-employed.

A potential entrepreneur may be attracted to the entrepreneurial act by the presence of an opportunity and/or a desire for independence (three types of pull motivation). In this case, the creation of a company is done by will.

A prospective entrepreneur may be forced to start a business out of necessity (poverty and unemployment) or/and job dissatisfaction (three types of push motivation). In this case, the creation of a company is done by constraint.

A would-be entrepreneur may be driven to create their business because of dissatisfaction in their job and at the same time, they may be attracted by the presence of an opportunity (hybrid motivation with one pull and one push variable) or/and may be attracted by a desire for autonomy and independence (hybrid motivation with two pull and one push variables) and so on.

In total, with four variables, we have 15 combinations of entrepreneurial motivations of which nine combinations are hybrid.

According to their assembly and position on the continuum, we will try to determine a typology of these future business creators in a creation support system.

Conclusion

Until now, few empirical studies have attempted to identify the different profiles of potential entrepreneurs so as to align business creation support policies with them. Most start-up support systems rarely make a distinction between entrepreneurial logics.

In this context, Bhola and al. (2006), pointed out that policies that are effective for necessity entrepreneurs are likely to be useless for opportunity entrepreneurs.

Our study could be a first step towards new entrepreneurship policies based on a subtle knowledge of the situation of the candidate entrepreneurs and of the three main entrepreneurial logics: opportunity-based, necessity-driven or other hybrid logics.

Any program aiming at self-employment encouragement should support and strengthen the motivations and personal aspirations of the prospective entrepreneur. In addition, it should keep abreast of any policy of self-employment support which is in line with the visionary will of the public authorities to solve the unemployment problem.

Within this framework, entrepreneurial behavior is not often intentional. It would be triggered by the sensitization of a support system to creation, accompanied by a corollary valorization. Most of the people who want to benefit from the support program do not always have the desire to become entrepreneurs, nor do they have the resources, in the broadest sense, to succeed in this way.

We assume that a less desired or involuntary choice of self-employment increases the likelihood of failure of a start-up support policy, as opposed to a more voluntary one.

The support policies for self-employment will therefore be obliged to provide future creators with the necessary support for the development of their projects. This includes allowing the project holder to acquire the know-how that will make them autonomous and able to manage their enterprise in the long run.

It should be noted that the training provided by the coaches requires skills in management methods and in project management. In addition, their interventions must be focused on and aligned to the specific needs of these projects.

However, this support should be combined with the development of a desire to learn coming from the entrepreneur.

This research thus emphasizes the role of hybrid logics in the development and implementation of a policy of self-employment support.

Policy actors must ensure that all their actions respond in a coherent and customized way to each individual engaged in an entrepreneurial process, with the sole aim of accompanying them to become not only an entrepreneur, but a better one.

The entrepreneurial event is the synthesis of an individual commitment and a commitment to a program that takes into account the specificities of each creator, their motivations and their project.

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