



A Cross-Country Study on Women Entrepreneurship through the CAGE Analysis: Evidences from China and Turkey

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ABSTRACT

Global changes have advanced the understanding of entrepreneurship towards the embracement of gender, and, thereby, women entrepreneurship become more prominent. Yet, inadequate attention paid to women entrepreneurship in studies, especially in developing countries, also caused a blurry picture for rendering the practices of women entrepreneurs. For investigating policies and structures of developing countries regarding women entrepreneurship, some particular components, which are economic and non-economic, remained pivotal. Accordingly, this study aims to identify the idiosyncratic characteristics of two indicative developing countries, China and Turkey, for women entrepreneurship and evaluate them through the CAGE analysis aspects. The findings regarding both contexts contribute to the entrepreneurship literature, especially to the women entrepreneurship since it is at its infancy, and to the theories of social network and strong ties. Moreover, the implementation of the CAGE analysis advances the nascent knowledge on its usage in entrepreneurship through the evidences from women entrepreneurship. The presented approach and findings can be used as reference by potential entrepreneurs engaging in different countries and policy-makers.

Keywords: CAGE Analysis, China, Cross-Country Study, Turkey, Women Entrepreneurship

JEL Classification: M13, M16, L26

CAGE Analizi Aracılığıyla Kadın Girişimciliği Üzerine Ülkelerarası Bir Çalışma: Çin ve Türkiye'den Kanıtlar

ÖZ

Dünya çapında meydana gelen son değişiklikler, cinsiyetin benimsenmesine yönelik girişimcilik anlayışını geliştirmiş, böylelikle kadın girişimciliği kavramı daha belirgin hale gelmiştir. Ancak, çalışmalarda, bilhassa gelişmekte olan ülkelerdeki, kadın girişimciliğe yeterli önem verilmemesi kadın girişimcilerin uygulamalarını ortaya koyma konusunda bulanık bir tablonun oluşmasına sebebiyet vermektedir. Bu anlamda, gelişmekte olan ülkelerin kadın girişimciliğine yönelik politikalarını ve yapılarını araştırmada ekonomik ve ekonomik olmayan belirli bileşenler öne çıkmaktadır. Dolayısıyla, bu çalışma, kadın girişimciliği için gösterge niteliğindeki iki gelişmekte ülke Çin ve Türkiye'nin kendine has özelliklerini tanımlamayı ve bunları CAGE analizi aracılığıyla belirli açılardan değerlendirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. İki bağlama dair tartışılan hususlar girişimcilik literatürüne, özellikle başlangıç aşamasında olan kadın girişimciliği literatürüne ve sosyal ağ ile güçlü bağ teorilerine katkıda bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, CAGE analizinin uygulanması, bu yaklaşımın girişimcilik alanındaki kullanımına dair yeni oluşan bilgileri, kadın girişimciliği kanıtlarıyla beraber iletlemektedir. Sunulan yaklaşım ve bulgular hem karar vericiler hem de farklı ülkelerdeki girişimlerle ilgilenen potansiyel girişimciler tarafından referans olarak kullanılabilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: CAGE Analizi, Çin, Ülkelerarası Çalışma, Türkiye, Kadın Girişimciliği

JEL Sınıflandırması: M13, M16, L26

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1. INTRODUCTION

Over the recent years, entrepreneurship has received a growing interest from various parties, such as academics, professionals, and policymakers (Maden, 2015; Cetindamar, 2005), and such rising attention surges entrepreneurship to become a vigorous field of research (Ürü et al., 2011). The underlying reason of this increasing attention is the catalyst role of entrepreneurship in economic development and prosperity of countries worldwide (Yenilmez, 2018) through job creation opportunities (Cetindamar et al., 2012). Besides this, dynamic entrepreneurial activities in current global conditions move the entrepreneurship phenomenon beyond the economic aspect while also incorporating different angles, such as social (Boz and Ergeneli, 2014). Indeed, from the social angle, an entrepreneurial activity has a potential to trigger innovation and sustainable innovative systems (Bulsara et al., 2014), which in turn, affects the competitiveness of countries (Boz and Ergeneli, 2014).

As a notion, the term of entrepreneurship is commonly identified through the newness (Schumpeter, 1934) and the opportunistic manner (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990). In fact, every business idea comes with its own opportunities and originalities; however, chasing informed and rational decisions, rather than intuitions, for filling the gaps in a relevant market becomes vital for entrepreneurs (Yenilmez, 2018). In addition to this, possessing risk-taking and independent characteristics is also critical for entrepreneurs (Gürbüz and Aykol, 2009) who create new products, processes, and services for the market in order to provide a value to a society (Boz and Ergeneli, 2014) by either working alone or employing others (Ufuk and Özgen, 2001a).

On the other hand, apart from these characteristic features, social and technological changes occurred worldwide have recently altered the understanding of entrepreneurship. In this alteration, gender has become an attribute to define the type of an entrepreneurship rather than being used as a discriminatory factor. Intrinsically, reducing gender gaps holds a potential, to a significant extent, for the sustainability of countries, businesses, and societies as a whole (Yenilmez, 2018). In this respect, the concept of women entrepreneurship provides benefits to the multiple facets of countries, such as economic (e.g. family income, employment) (Welsh et al., 2016a; Ufuk and Özgen, 2001a; Altan-Olcay, 2014), social (e.g. social relations, roles, inclusion, self-realisation) (Ufuk and Özgen, 2001b; Altan-Olcay, 2016), and cultural aspects (e.g. values, access to information, family support, religion) (Ufuk and Özgen, 2001b; Bulsara et al., 2014; Welsh et al., 2017). From this point forth, it can be pointed out that women undertake an increasingly important role not only inside a family (e.g., wife, mother, housewife roles) (Ufuk and Özgen, 2001b), but also in starting and growing ventures in the business domain through entrepreneurial attempts (Tan, 2008). Accordingly, as a gender attribute, such positive influences of women entrepreneurship can, ultimately, lead to a better governance of a country and a higher competitiveness (Boz and Ergeneli, 2014; Welsh et al., 2016b).

Lately, there has been a growing surge in attention paid to women entrepreneurs by practitioners, academics, and policymakers (Hisrich and Fan, 1991; Bulsara et al., 2014; Özkazanç-Pan, 2015; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017). Yet, it is nowadays evident that men have still dominance in various work spheres (Bulsara et al., 2014) and several obstacles faced by women prevent them from entering the working life (Abaci et al., 2015). On this matter, a recent global report announced by the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) indicated that the rate of women entrepreneurs is less than men entrepreneurs in most places around the world (Bosma and Kelley, 2019). More specifically, today's practical areas of women entrepreneurs are still remained blurry, although the general insights given by some researchers (e.g., Ufuk and Özgen, 2001a) revealed that women ventures tend to take place largely in the retail and service sectors in economies. This being the case, vagueness about the extent of participation of women in economies and the differences between men and women entrepreneurs in practice need to be clarified and enlarged upon (Boz and Ergeneli, 2014).

Historically, the research field of women entrepreneurship dates back to the late 1980s (Abacı et al., 2015; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017). Although women entrepreneurship is shown as a vital source of economic growth and development (Bulsara et al., 2014), the topic of women entrepreneurship was largely neglected in the past (Ascher, 2012) and has not received adequate attention by researchers (Ng and Fu, 2018). In addition to this, there is a paucity of literature on women entrepreneurship in developing countries, such as Turkey and China (Maden, 2015; Cetindamar et al., 2012; Yenilmez, 2018), since it is extensively studied in the developed countries, such as the USA and Canada (Lerner et al., 1997; Hisrich and Öztürk, 1999; Yenilmez, 2018). Among developing countries, Turkey and China become especially more prominent due to holding a promising potential in terms of their economies, policies, strategies, and growths. However, in the Turkish context, in addition to the scarcity of research on women entrepreneurship, difficulty of finding data (Cetindamar, 2005) cause a practical barrier against knowing the official number of women entrepreneurs, their challenges, and opportunities in this domain (Welsh et al., 2016b). Similarly, in the Chinese context, there is a little research on women entrepreneurship (Ng and Fu, 2018) and, in the entrepreneurship literature, as Welsh et al. (2017) pointed out, majority of the studies tackle the economic aspect of China by paying relatively little attention to other shaping and important aspects of entrepreneurship, especially the cultural facet (Bulsara et al., 2014). Accordingly, given the rising interest on women entrepreneurship and the existing research gaps, it is apparent that there is a need for further research on this topic (Yenilmez, 2018). In this need, as Ng and Fu (2018) highlighted, providing the cross-country insight is imperative for exploring the factors influencing women’s decisions to move into entrepreneurship.

In light of these, the previously mentioned gaps and motivations beget the questions of “*what are the idiosyncratic characteristics of these two indicatives developing countries that can appeal women entrepreneurs?*” and “*how can we evaluate their characteristics from multiple aspects by moving beyond the economic outlook?*”. In order to seek answers to these exploratory questions, the aim of this research is initially set to investigate a shallow research field, women entrepreneurship, and then, to advance the extant knowledge from different angles by adopting the cross-country manner. In line with this aim, the present study compares the characteristics of two promising developing countries, Turkey and China, clustered at the same level in many respects for women entrepreneurship based on a widely known and robust multidimensional strategic approach, the CAGE analysis. Thus, the proposed approach in this study unveils the problem of evaluating women entrepreneurship for different contextual settings from multiple aspects beyond economic parameters.

The remainder of this study is organised as follows. In Section 2, the literature on women entrepreneurship in both contexts, Turkey, and China, is reviewed and the use of CAGE analysis in the previous related studies is highlighted. In Section 3, the methodological approach of this research is introduced whilst the comparative evaluation of Turkey and China with regards to women entrepreneurship, through the CAGE dimensions, is presented in Section 4. Finally, the conclusions and implications of this research are stated in Section 5.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN TURKEY AND CHINA

In order to review the extant literature diligently, comprehensively, and in a structured manner, several keyword pairs, as illustrated in Table 1, were used in the searches made in two databases, namely ScienceDirect and Scopus. Moreover, the searches were conducted only in abstracts, titles, and keywords of the studies (i.e., articles and articles in press) written in English and, at the end, different number of researches made available by April 2019 were explored in relation to the Turkish and the Chinese contexts.

Table 1: Keyword Pairs Used in the Literature Review Process of This Study

Keyword Pairs
“women entrepreneur*”; “Turkey”
“women entrepreneur*”; “China”
“entrepreneur*”; “Turkey”; “China”; “cage”
“entrepreneur*”; “Turkey”; “cage”
“entrepreneur*”; “China”; “cage”
“entrepreneur*”; “cage”
“entrepreneur*”; “cage analy*”

Source: The author.

Meanwhile, it is worthy of mentioning that during the searches, some of the studies found either non accessible through the university database system of the author or out of the scope of this research (e.g., aquaculture cage). Therefore, after the initial keyword searches, the number of articles reached by the author remained less than the initial number. Besides this, in addition to the studies found in these two databases, the cross-referencing technique was also used, as previously practiced by several researchers in a similar way (e.g., Kucukaltan et al., 2016). All in all, the list of studies to be reviewed with reference to both contexts and the CAGE analysis was constituted by 33 articles. Based on this outcome, the literature review process of this research is categorised into two stages and related studies are examined in the following two sub-sections.

2.1. Women Entrepreneurship in the Turkish Context

Considering women entrepreneurship in the Turkish context, diverse topics ranging from common challenges and problems faced by women entrepreneurs to financing, family support, and cultural differences were studied by previous researchers. Starting from the challenges and problems, it can be remarked that researchers discussed these subjects either in the enterprise setting or on an individual basis. In terms of the enterprise setting, several researchers focused particularly on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Among these, Yenilmez (2018) investigated female small business owners in two Turkish cities and presented some findings on the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, their family-work conflicts, and their motivations for starting a business whereas Ürü et al.’s (2011) empirical study with 308 Turkish women entrepreneurs analysed the effects of entrepreneurial characteristics on the features of strategic decision-making process. Likewise, Ensari and Karabay (2014) examined seven global Turkish SMEs from different industries, by means of three categories (i.e., environment, prior competitive capabilities, competitive strategy) and several sub-factors, and their findings linked the importance of both internal and external success factors in the global competitive context.

Apart from the enterprise setting, some researchers also emphasised individual characteristics of women entrepreneurs for overcoming challenges. For instance, Boz and Ergeneli (2014) investigated the relationship between personality features and parenting styles of both women entrepreneurs and women non-entrepreneurs in Turkey. Their findings underlined the dominance of father parenting styles in affecting the attributes of women entrepreneurs. Ufuk and Özgen’s (2001a) survey included 220 married women entrepreneurs in Ankara and

examined several matters in women entrepreneurship, such as business sectors, state of ownership, risk-taking features, problems, income, individual characteristics, and future plans. In another study of Ufuk and Özgen (2001b), the interplay between the business and the family life of women entrepreneurs was analysed from multiple aspects, such as childcare arrangements, conflicts between business roles and roles in family, life changes at different levels (e.g., social, economic), participating into family decisions, the factors causing stress, and management of the income acquired through the entrepreneurship activity. Among these aspects, the social aspect and the importance of exploiting network processes in order to create a value based on a win-win approach were especially highlighted by Ozeren et al. (2018) whereas the economic aspect was underlined in Cetindamar’s (2005) policy-focused study which rendered characteristics, problems, and expectations of Turkish entrepreneurs, including women entrepreneurs, in order to strengthen the economic development.

In line with the economic development and financing concepts under common challenges, another study of Cetindamar et al. (2012) analysed the impacts of human, family, and financial capitals on women’s entrepreneurial engagement in Turkey. Similarly, Hisrich and Öztürk (1999) studied on the two groups of Turkish women entrepreneurs, of which the first group was the ones applied for the entrepreneurship credit to a state bank whereas the second group was the members of the Chamber of Commerce in Eskişehir and Istanbul. Their questionnaire findings unveiled the demographic backgrounds, personality traits, motives, starting points, problems encountered, and managerial skills of women entrepreneurs in Turkey and presented both similarities and differences in comparison with other countries, such as the USA and the UK. Lastly, Maden (2015) explored several parameters, namely the profiles of women entrepreneurs in Turkey, key drivers for establishing their business, challenges while running their business, and support mechanism they exploit (e.g., credits), through semi-structured interviews carried out by 10 successful women entrepreneurs in Turkey. Overall, as can be seen from the studies discussed until here, common challenges that women entrepreneurs face, their success drivers, and their contribution to the social and economic development of a country through support mechanisms were largely underlined by the majority of studies in the Turkish context.

Apart from drawing general frames in women entrepreneurship, two types of support, which are credit and/or financial supports and family supports, were also studied by several researchers. Regarding the former support type, Abaci et al. (2015) followed the microcredit and finance movement, guided by the Grameen Bank as pointed out in Özkazanç-Pan’s (2015) secularism and Islamic feminism-related study, and analysed women entrepreneurship from the financial aspect by exploring women’s level of awareness about using microcredits, the required information, and the factors affecting their need. Altan-Olcay’s (2014) research was also pertinent to the women support programs, beyond microcredit supports, run by two particular non-governmental organizations (NGOs) in Turkey, but not limited to, based on the usage of participant observation and semi-structured interviews. In another study of Altan-Olcay (2016), development programs, class-based contradictions in women entrepreneurship and their interplay with women’s empowerment, gender equality, poverty reduction, and economic growth were investigated through the same organisations in the same context.

With regard to the latter support type, there are a number of studies concentrating mainly on family support and its influences. In this respect, the influence of family moral support on Turkish women entrepreneurs’ challenges and opportunities was examined by Welsh et al. (2016b) and their findings obtained from 140 Turkish women entrepreneurs showed that family moral support can be bilateral depending on the family members’ characteristics. In a slightly different manner, Welsh et al. (2016a) examined the impact of levels of economic developments on women entrepreneurship from two aspects, which are family support and personal problems. Their inductive empirical research evidenced from Canada, China, Egypt, Morocco, Poland,

South Korea, and Turkey revealed the need of comprehending what obstacles women entrepreneurs face and exemplified the motivations for further theoretical analyses and practices in this field. Welsh et al.'s (2018) another research was aimed at analysing relationships between women entrepreneurs' firm performance (as the dependent variable), family supports, and personal problems in the moderating effect of the level of economic development. In the research, they used the answers of 116 women entrepreneurs in Morocco and 147 women entrepreneurs in Turkey. By doing so, their findings unveiled the importance of focusing on cross-national differences, rather than some other differences (e.g., family vs. non-family firms).

Given the important role of cross-national differences, culture emerges as a critical factor to be examined due to its similar and dissimilar features influencing entrepreneurship. In this sense, Bastian and Zali (2016) compared entrepreneurial motives of men and women, in relation to educational attainment, entrepreneurial competencies, and culture, based on the data obtained from 13 Middle East and North Africa countries. Similarly, Kalafatoglu and Mendoza (2017) investigated the effects of gender and culture on women entrepreneurship, by considering networking activities, in the contexts of five patriarchal countries, which are Turkey and four Middle East and North Africa countries (i.e., Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Morocco, and Egypt). Accordingly, these two studies show that culture and some social values, such as patriarchal norms, play a pivotal role in understanding the characteristics of women entrepreneurship.

Thus, it is evident from the reviewed studies in the Turkish context that challenges and opportunities in relation to family support, contribution of women entrepreneurs to the economies, roles of women in families and the relation of this theme with customs and cultural norms emerge as important notions to be considered in women entrepreneurship. Therefore, since culture and economy were particularly emphasised in this section as the main underlying dimensions of women entrepreneurship, it became imperative for this research to find a suitable framework that incorporates these two aspects.

2.2. Women Entrepreneurship in the Chinese context

In general, similar to the Turkish context, diverse topics, such as challenges encountered by women entrepreneurs, women participation, women migration, gender differences, and support mechanisms for women in relation to cultural values were also discussed by previous researchers in the Chinese context. For instance, according to the reviewed literature, it can be inferred that the earliest English-written study on women entrepreneurship in China was carried out by Hisrich and Fan (1991) who explored the types of business, the impact of the background during the start-up and growth stages, and the problems encountered by women entrepreneurs based on the information of 50 women entrepreneurs in this context. As time goes by, more specific studies on women entrepreneurship were introduced by researchers, such as women participation. On this matter, Zheng and Qian (2017) conducted a survey on examining political participation of female entrepreneurs in the Zhejiang province of China whereas Adhikari et al. (2018) carried out a project on exploring the empowerment of local women participation as part of a value chain by using primary and secondary data collected in Nepal and, at the end of their study, adopting the collective action was suggested as a successful strategy for sustainable values and livelihoods of women entrepreneurs. However, these three studies show that women entrepreneurship was either investigated in a general framework or tackled from a limited aspect, such as participation.

On the other hand, the matter of migration was also stressed by several researchers. In this regard, Yeoh and Willis (2005) studied on the gender and skilled migration notions by conducting in-depth interviews with 150 Singaporeans, who had lived or were living in China, in order to explore the movements- accompanying spouses or independent entrepreneurs- through

transnational space. Their findings mainly revealed that patriarchal customs continued to shape most women’s lives in comparison with men’s. In a similar vein, Ng and Fu (2018) attempted to identify the external and internal factors driving and challenging female foreigners coming from different countries to China to start new ventures. In their mixed-method study, culture emerged as the major barrier for women foreigner entrepreneurs, despite a number of common factors found similar to previous studies in the literature, such as operating in the service sectors. Accordingly, these two migration-oriented studies emphasised the importance of culture and its related norms (e.g., interiorisation of patriarchy) in women entrepreneurship.

Delving into the patriarchal values, financing and business performance of different gender groups were also studied in some research. Regarding the former notion, Hussain et al. (2010) examined the financial sources of genders and their impact on firm growth in the context of China, by considering the effect of “*guanxi*” (personal connections) as a socio-cultural norm. Their questionnaire results indicated that women tend to be more disadvantaged than their counterparts in terms of obtaining financial source, although utilising “*guanxi*” appears as an equal financing source for both genders. In a more specific research on gender inequalities in China within the entrepreneurship, Warnecke et al. (2012) investigated the rationale of engaging in entrepreneurship in two aspects, which are: necessities and opportunities, and pointed out that necessities have the key role in women entrepreneurship in China rather than the inherited opportunist spirit of entrepreneurship. With regard to the latter notion, business performance, Tan’s (2008) study adopted a triangulation method composed of both an empirical analysis, which differentiates entrepreneurial orientation and business performance attributes between male and female entrepreneurs in China, and two case study interviews in the Chinese electronics industry. Thus, it is explicit from these gender-related studies that, in addition to the different cultural understandings, obtaining economic supports and finding a source of motivation for starting a new venture differ in women entrepreneurship.

More particularly, in regard to the support and women entrepreneurship performance, Welsh et al. (2017) empirically analysed how two factors, namely work-family balance and marketing capabilities, affect firm performances of Chinese women entrepreneurs. Their findings, based on 113 completed answers, showed that both factors positively affect firm performance, and, at the end, the family support was emphasised as an important source of motivation for the success of a women-administered venture, regardless of the level of country-specific factors (e.g., economic and socio-cultural). In another study, Bulsara et al. (2014) conducted an exploratory research, based on a secondary data incorporating opinions of the authors and government sources, to compare the support systems provided by the government agencies for women entrepreneurship in India, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, China, Uganda, and Russia. In their comparative study, China was shown as a well-coordinated country but was underlined that it still needs more schemes due to its booming population. In a different research context, Lerner et al. (1997) aimed at empirically examining the extent to which individual factors influence performance of women entrepreneurs in the Israel context, as a non-OECD country, in order to advance the known practices in other developing countries, such as China. Similarly, with the help of adopting a comparative approach, Stober (2014) evaluated China’s international trade strategy in comparison with different countries (e.g., the U.S, the UK) by using the secondary sources, based on the four dimensions of the CAGE analysis, and his research became an example for initiating the present study in terms of utilising the CAGE dimensions in such comparison.

All in all, the studies reviewed in this section reveal that cultural, administrative, geographic, and economic aspects play a vital role for women entrepreneurship, as several aspects were similarly highlighted in the Turkish context. Thus, it is a need for this cross-country study to select a framework that helps to evaluate such aspects for understanding the similarities and differences of women entrepreneurship practices in both contexts. In line with this need, by

using the “entrepreneur*” and “cage” keyword pair in the database searches of this study, only one article was found relevant in this review. In this related research, Shaheer and Li (2018) empirically analysed international penetration of 127 health & fitness category apps at Apple store through the CAGE dimensions; however, their CAGE analysis-driven study remained far from comparing entrepreneurial structures of countries. Thus, this study sets out to fill the gap in the entrepreneurship literature, especially in the women entrepreneurship area, by conducting a cross-country research, based on China and Turkey, and utilising the CAGE dimensions.

3. METHODOLOGY

The methodological procedure of this study is based on three stages. Firstly, the motivations of conducting the case study strategy, as a qualitative research, and utilising secondary sources in a cross-country research are explained. Then, the CAGE analysis and its dimensions are elucidated in accordance with the research scope. Lastly, the rationales of applying a comparative study hinging upon Turkey and China are explicated through the supports from previous studies and widely used reports in the entrepreneurship field.

3.1. Comparative Case Study Strategy in a Qualitative Research

As a response to the aforementioned research gaps and problems in the entrepreneurship field, this study aims to investigate more shallow area in this domain, women entrepreneurship, and to advance the current insights by undertaking the transnational research mission. Accordingly, the research aim is exploratory in nature (Yin, 2009) and, when it is the case, selecting the case study strategy as a qualitative research emerges as the most suitable approach for understanding the concepts in detail (Ensari and Karabay, 2014). In particular, as Stevenson (1990) pointed out, the qualitative research perspective is more appropriate while studying on women entrepreneurship since entrepreneurship theories are still at its early stage (Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017).

On the other hand, as a part of the case study strategy, employing a comparative case study is an attempt to recognise similarities and differences between the studied contexts. In this respect, Ofei-Manu et al. (2018) emphasised that the comparative case study is valuable for relative evaluation and for providing information with substantial depth and width. From an international research setting, Geva-May et al. (2018) similarly highlighted the importance of utilising the comparative case study as a research strategy. Thus, such discourses became the main motives for adopting the comparative case study strategy in this study.

3.2. Utilising Secondary Sources in a Cross-Country Qualitative Research

There are several appeals of benefiting from secondary sources, such as being low cost and less time-consuming, describing reality, verifying accumulated knowledge, and providing breadth of data (Boslaugh, 2007; Urbaniec, 2018). Thus, some fundamental information for using the data from the World Bank, GEM, and several other reliable sources (e.g., government websites, national statistics data of governments) is provided in this section, especially for clarifying the major sources utilised in this research. For instance, the World Bank is an organisation that undertakes a mission of diminishing the poverty and promoting shared prosperity among the countries. The World Bank prepares reports on several subjects (e.g., development knowledge) and provides financial and technical information about countries.

On the other hand, GEM is an international project and the world's foremost study of entrepreneurship followed by key international organisations, such as the United Nations and the

World Bank (GEM, 2019). The main rationales of using GEM as a reliable source of information in this study are collecting the same type of data from different countries and enlightening various entrepreneurial notions, as Cetindamar et al. (2012) emphasised.

3.3. Dimensions of the CAGE Analysis

The CAGE analysis, coined by Pankaj Ghemawat, identifies cultural, administrative, geographic, and economic distances between countries and evaluates their market potential through quantitative and qualitative indicators (Stober, 2014). In this multi-country analysis, since the degree of internationalisation and the entrepreneurial structures of the selected contexts are aimed to be examined, the CAGE analysis becomes a suitable international strategy to serve this purpose, as Shaheer and Li (2018) pointed out.

The four aspects of the CAGE dimensions are in relation to various sub-indicators and, in order to practice the CAGE analysis successfully, it is crucial to understand those underlying indicators. For instance, previous researchers (e.g., Bastian and Zali, 2016; Ghemawat, 2001; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017; Stober, 2014) predominantly linked the cultural aspect to some notions in societal practices, such as values, beliefs, language, religion, customs, and gender roles. The second aspect, the administrative dimension, represents legal and political systems as well as policy initiatives (Ghemawat, 2001; Shaheer and Li, 2018; Warnecke et al., 2012) whereas the geographic aspect largely refers to physical remoteness and infrastructure (Ghemawat, 2001; Ghemawat, 2007; Shaheer and Li, 2018). Lastly, the economic aspect mainly deals with different economic indicators, such as income levels (e.g., GDP per capita), inflation, and foreign trade (Ghemawat, 2001; Shaheer and Li, 2018).

3.4. Rationales for Choosing China and Turkey as Contexts

China is an emerging economy and has a promising growth, especially after a transition to a market economy (Welsh et al., 2017). In addition to its economic growth and industrialisation, China also appears as a critical research context to be explored due to its population, land area, and sustainability efforts (Zhang et al., 2017). Likewise, for the Turkish context, the growing economy and a large as well as youthful population (Zulfiu et al., 2015) show similarities with the Chinese context. Especially, the prevalence of underlined patriarchal social structure arises as a common feature in both countries (Zheng and Qian, 2017; Welsh et al., 2016b). Furthermore, being classified among the middle-income level countries in Bosma and Kelley’s (2019) GEM 2019 report adds much to the similar characteristics of these both countries. Accordingly, these common features and characteristics make Turkey and China comparable from the entrepreneurship point of view. In this sense, due to several particular aspects to be considered, such as social and economic, the investigation of these contexts requires a multi-dimensional strategic evaluation, which is inherently offered through the dimensions of the CAGE analysis. Thus, the comparative case study strategy employed in this study is benefited from the CAGE dimensions throughout the evaluation of China and Turkey in regard to women entrepreneurship.

4. IMPLEMENTING THE CAGE ANALYSIS FOR EVALUATING CHINA AND TURKEY

4.1. General Information on Both Contexts

Although China’s history is rooted in the Imperial China period, after October 1949, China has been mentioned officially as the People’s Republic of China and it covers

approximately 9.6 million square kilometres (the State Council China, 2014a). Despite Beijing is the capital city, Zhejiang is noted by several researchers (e.g., Hussain et al., 2010; Zheng and Qian, 2017) as the most entrepreneurial region in China since it holds the largest number of companies listed in China's top 500 private enterprises and enables prosperous businesses.

In terms of the demographics, according to the recent World Bank (2019a) data, China's 2018 population was illustrated as around 1.4 billion and this makes China as the largest country in the world in terms of its population. In this large number, women accounted for 48.5% of this population (World Bank, 2019a), although the China Statistical Yearbook's 2017 data displayed this rate as 48.83% (China Statistical Yearbook, 2018a). For this population, GEM's 2019 early-stage entrepreneurial activity report by gender showed that, in 2019, less than 10% of adult female population (ages 18-64) started new ventures (Bosma and Kelley, 2019). Moreover, four Chinese women entrepreneurs were exhibited in the first 500 of the 2018 billionaire lists announced by Forbes (2019) (based on the information of country of citizenship).

Similar to China, Turkey's history dates back to the early medieval period (e.g., Seljuq Dynasty); however, after October 1923, Turkey has been officially named as the Republic of Turkey. Lately, the land area of Turkey was calculated as around 780 thousand square kilometres (Harita Genel Müdürlüğü, in English: *General Directorate of Mapping*, 2014). Although Ankara is the capital city of Turkey, Istanbul is remarked as the primary city for entrepreneurship due to its largest population and possessing the largest number of established businesses (Cetindamar, 2005; İçduygu and Diker, 2017).

Concerning the demographics, Turkey's 2018 population was indicated as around 82.3 million by the recent World Bank (2019a) data and women represented approximately 49.8% of this population (TÜİK, in English: *Turkish Statistical Institute-TURKSTAT*, 2019a), despite the score of %50.7 shown by the World Bank (2019a) report. According to the GEM's 2019 early-stage entrepreneurial activity report by gender, less than 10% of adult female population (ages 18-64) started new ventures, which was displayed lesser than the Chinese context, although it was still between the range of 5-10% (Bosma and Kelley, 2019). With regard to the 2018's billionaire list announced by Forbes (2019) (based on the information of country of citizenship), there was no Turkish women entrepreneurs in the first 500.

4.2. Evaluation of Both Contexts from the Cultural Aspect

4.2.1 The Chinese Context

Exploring the Chinese culture is important since China has a rich and long history (Welsh et al., 2017). Indeed, it is one of the world's oldest cultures (Stober, 2014). In time, during the transformational processes of the Chinese culture, entrepreneurship has become a critical driver as a consequence of the Cultural Revolution in 1966 (Warnecke et al., 2012), which was launched under the control of Mao Zedong in order to strengthen the communism in the country but resulted in the embracement of capitalism after suspicions of traditionalists, educators, and intellectuals (Britannica, 2019).

Traditionally, the Chinese culture is influenced by three philosophical and spiritual sources, which are Taoism, Buddhism, Confucianism (Momtaz et al., 2014). Taoism (or Daoism) is a religion that promotes longevity and immortality (Li et al. 2016) while Buddhism, as a religion, concentrates on individual spiritual development for exploring the true nature of life without worshipping Gods (BBC, 2014). Among these sources, Confucianism can be described as a way of living life with the emphasis on the importance of the relationships among people (Ming-Yi, 2005), rather than a religion unlike the former two (Cheng, 1990; Yang, 1967),

and regarded as critical for awaking the entrepreneurial spirit, as underlined in Hussain et al.’s (2010) study.

In the social and business contexts, the relationships are named as “*guanxi*” by referring to the norms of reciprocal relationships (Hussain et al., 2010). Guanxi is, in fact, a vital cultural mechanism in the entrepreneurship in China since it explains behavioural foundations, such as risk-taking and trust, and helps to elucidate the extent of equality by gender groups (Warnecke et al., 2012). Furthermore, as another component of the Chinese culture, language becomes important to discuss. Despite various languages spoken in China by different ethnic groups, Mandarin is the official language (see Gao, 2018; Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China, 2018).

Overall, in terms of the culture, Geert Hofstede’s 6-D model of national culture is a reference research, as emphasised by previous researchers (e.g., Nguyen and Aoyama, 2012; Stober, 2014). The six dimensions of this model, which are: *power distance*, *individualism*, *masculinity*, *uncertainty avoidance*, *long term orientation*, and *indulgence*, are used to evaluate and compare the cultural values of countries. In this evaluation, several scores and comments are provided by the Hofstede Insights (2019a) and were included in Hofstede et al.’s (2010) book with respect to each dimension. For instance, in terms of the *power distance*, which represents the polarisation of subordinate-superior relationships and formal authority, China receives 80 while a score of 20 for the *individualism* indicates that China has a collectivist culture where people mainly consider the interests of the group. Regarding the *masculinity*, 66 points demonstrates that China has still patriarchal norms with male dominant characteristics. On this matter, Zheng and Qian (2017) underlined that there is a big gap on equal political participation between men and women and, in Warnecke et al.’s (2012) study, it was mentioned that women are kept in the background concerning the entrepreneurial ventures. With regard to the *uncertainty avoidance*, 30 points indicates that the Chinese culture is seen comfortable with the unknown future. In line with this fact, Ng and Fu (2018) stressed on the characteristics of Chinese people in terms of willingness to try, adaptability to changes, and not avoiding to be failed, despite several studies discussed the opposite (e.g. Warnecke et al., 2012). These notions are actually related to the generic entrepreneurial spirit highlighted in numerous studies. Lastly, for the *long-term orientation*, China’s score, 87, shows that the Chinese culture is pragmatic in terms of being adaptable to changed conditions whilst the score of 24 for the *indulgence* reveals that the Chinese culture is restrained and have a tendency to cynicism and pessimism.

4.2.2. The Turkish Context

Similar to the Chinese culture, investigating the Turkish culture is of paramount importance for entrepreneurship due to the old and rich history of Turks (Batu and Batu, 2018). As a part of its culture, since the main religion in Turkey is Islam, which possesses spiritual and philosophical characteristics, Turkey can be remarked as a Muslim-majority country (Özkazanç-Pan, 2015). Despite this predominant influence of Islam among other religions in Turkey (e.g. Christianity, Judaism) (Eurydice, 2019), Turkey is secular by its constitution (Cetindamar et al., 2012; Welsh et al., 2018).

In the Turkish culture, particular relationships in the society, such as belonging to the same school or group and the fellow countryman approach, as a general commonality in the Arabic cluster, are seen as important relationships in the social and business contexts (Tüzüner, 2014; Kıray, 1997; Kabasakal and Bodur, 2002; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017). Such importance of these relationships plays a critical role in giving insights into the understanding of cultural values and norms as well as the entrepreneurial structure in the Turkish context. Besides, another parameter of a culture is the language and, as noted in the 1982’s constitution, Turkish is the official language in Turkey (see The Grand National Assembly of Turkey, 2018).

Regarding the evaluation of national culture, Turkey's 6-D cultural scores are also presented by the Hofstede Insights (2019b) and were contained in Hofstede et al.'s (2010) book. In terms of the *power distance*, Turkey receives 66, which indicates a relatively strong hierarchy, whereas for the *individualism* dimension, the score of 37 represents that the Turkish culture has the collectivist approach, as similarly emphasised by several researchers (e.g., Erkus and Dinc, 2018; Yang and Yousaf, 2018). Concerning the *masculinity*, Turkey has a soft score, 45, in contrast to the commonly highlighted features of the Turkish culture, such as patriarchy and women's roles in family rather than workplace, by different researchers (e.g., Hisrich and Öztürk, 1999; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017). For the *uncertainty avoidance*, the score of 85 demonstrates that the Turkish culture tends to use rituals in order to avoid ambiguities and, as such is against the inherent risk-taking feature of entrepreneurship, as Taşkın et al. (2017) pointed out. Finally, Turkey receives intermediate scores both for the dimension of *long-term orientation* (46), which shows that it is in-between the normative and the pragmatic society, and for the *indulgence* (49), which indicates that it is regarded as neither indulgent nor restrained.

4.3. Evaluation of Both Contexts from the Administrative Aspect

4.3.1. The Chinese Context

Although the Cultural Revolution in China led to social and political upheavals with the widespread suspicion of intellectuals, the transition period (starting in 1978) containing the privatisation and deregulation gained speed and, in the ten-year time frame, the number of individual enterprises grew, as a result of Deng's reforms (Warnecke et al., 2012). Thus, it can be expressed that, after 1970s, China pursued the open-up policy by shifting its focus from the political movements to the economic development (Zheng and Qian, 2017). In the past decade, the balance between communism and privatisation accelerated China's entrepreneurial endeavours (Warnecke et al., 2012) and such policy changes enabled high degree of mobility for the people to follow opportunities in the business environment (Ng and Fu, 2018).

In terms of the equal opportunities between men and women in China, it can be noted that the equal access for women to education and other opportunities only started to increase after 1990s and these positive developments fostered the engagement of women in the entrepreneurship arena (Bulsara et al., 2014). In this grow, as Warnecke et al. (2012) summarised, the Chinese government plays a crucial role due to some policies implemented, such as providing subsidies for trainings and making arrangements for loans.

Regarding the administration in China, based on its constitution, a three-tier system is used to structure the administrative units (e.g., level of provinces, autonomous regions, municipalities, autonomous counties, cities, and townships) and, in its recent structure, China has 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four municipalities directly under the central government, and two special administrative regions (the State Council China, 2014b). Concerning the election system within this administrative system, all citizens who reached the age of 18 have the right to vote, regardless of their backgrounds or status (with few exceptional cases) (the State Council China, 2014c).

4.3.2. The Turkish Context

After the foundation of the modern Turkish Republic in 1923, the modernisation period started in Turkey with a vigorous emphasis on liberalisation (Aycan, 2004). Especially, with the acceptance of the law on Unification of Education in 1924, women gained equal educational rights (Ağlı and Tor, 2015) and this escalated the status of women in the Turkish society. Moreover, based on the TÜİK's reports on labour force participation between the time span of 1988-1999, which is presented as the earliest record, it is clear that there is a long-standing role

of women in participating into the labour force in Turkey. In parallel, when considering the growing interest in the studies on women entrepreneurship after 1980s, it can be deduced that women entrepreneurship in Turkey has a long history. Particularly, on this grow, the government and the implemented policies have a significant role. In this respect, it is clear that the Turkish government carries out several programs to support women entrepreneurship (Yenilmez, 2018). Among these programs, a commonly known project is KOSGEB's (in English: *The Small and Medium-sized Enterprises Development Organisation*) subsidies and networking projects for female entrepreneurs (KOSGEB, 2016), in addition to various supports promoted by the government (e.g. making arrangements for loans).

In terms of the administrative structure in Turkey, Turkey has 81 provinces and in the administration of these provinces both the central government and the local government undertake the responsibilities. The central government structure consists of a governor, provincial directorates, and the provincial administration board (Parlak and Doğan, 2018) while the local governing bodies are consisted of special provincial administrations, municipalities, and villages (Yetkin, 2013). With regards to the election system within this administrative system, all citizens who reached the age of 18 hold the right to vote, regardless of their backgrounds or status (with few exceptional cases) (see Yüksek Seçim Kurulu, in English: *Supreme Election Council*, 2019).

4.4. Evaluation of Both Contexts from the Geographic Aspect

4.4.1. The Chinese Context

Geographically, China extends across much of East Asia. The mainland of China has borders with Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Afghanistan, Pakistan, India, Nepal, Bhutan, Myanmar (Burma), Laos, Vietnam, North Korea, and Russia, although there are also several disputed territories.

According to the China Statistical Yearbook (2018b), compiled by National Bureau Statistics of China, the latest 2017 report indicated that highways had the highest amount (in tonnes) in total freight traffic, followed by waterways, railways, and civil aviation, respectively. Regarding the total passenger traffic data (in persons), the ranking of highways was the same with the freight traffic results; however, railways became the second and civil aviation took the third place by surpassing waterways.

Regarding the transportation conditions, the World Bank announced the latest Logistics Performance Index (LPI) list of 2018 (see World Bank, 2019b) and, in this global ranking list, China was positioned at 26th out of 160 countries, although its position was shown at 27th in the aggregated LPI based on the latest four lists (2012, 2014, 2016, and 2018). China's overall LPI score in 2018 was shown as 3.61 in relation to its several activities, such as customs (3.29), infrastructure (3.75), international shipments (3.54), logistics competence (3.59), tracking and tracing (3.65), and timeliness (3.84).

4.4.2. The Turkish Context

On the other hand, the mainland of Turkey is placed on the continents of Europe and Asia. Moreover, its land is bordered with Greece, Bulgaria, Georgia, Armenia, Iran, Iraq, Syria, and the Azerbaijani exclave of Nakhchivan.

Based on the compiled data from TÜİK's 2017 transportation statistics, it can be seen that road transportation has the highest weight in freight traffic, followed by railway, and airway, respectively whilst, in passenger transportation, the ranking between railway and airway is replaced (TÜİK, 2019b; Türkiye Sınai Kalkınma Bankası, in English: *Turkish Industrial Development Bank*, 2018). In this ranking, due to the separate lists of import and export carried

out by the sea transportation, it could not be included in this ranking. Yet, in order to provide a clearer information about the importance of transportation modes in the Turkish context, a report presented by Türkiye Sınai Kalkınma Bankası (2018), based on the Ministry of Transportation, Maritime Affairs and Communication statistics, can be used. In this report, road transportation mode received the highest investment by the government between 2003 and 2016, whereas rail became the second mode, followed by air, and sea transportation modes.

Regarding the transportation condition, Turkey was positioned at 47th in the World Bank's 2018 global ranking LPI list (see World Bank, 2019b) whilst its position was presented at the 37th in the aggregated LPI. Turkey's overall score in 2018 was noted as 3.15 in connection with its activities, such as customs (2.71), infrastructure (3.21), international shipments (3.06), logistics competence (3.05), tracking and tracing (3.23), and timeliness (3.63).

4.5. Evaluation of Both Contexts from the Economic Aspect

4.5.1. The Chinese Context

Along with the new reforms introduced in the 1970s, China's economic model was shifted from a planned economy to a market-driven economy (Tan, 2008; Hussain et al., 2010) and this has expedited entrepreneurship activities (Warnecke et al., 2012). Yet, despite these positive advancements, several negative situations also occurred for women, such as gender differentiations and layoffs (Welsh et al., 2017). From this point forth, in China's new economic order, the growth of manufacturing became the key factor to push women into the necessity-based entrepreneurship and, when China's increasing economy is considered, it can be seen that it is driven largely by SMEs and entrepreneurial activities (Warnecke et al., 2012). Thus, as Hughes et al. (2012) emphasised, these make China as one of the most critical countries for the women entrepreneurship research.

Based on the World Bank's 2018 gross domestic product (GDP) data (in US dollars), China's value was 13,608,151.86 (World Bank, 2019c), whereas its GDP per capita value was 9,770.8 (World Bank, 2019d). According to the China Statistical Yearbook (2018c), total values of imports and exports in 2017 (in the unit of USD 100 million) were 18437.9 and 22633.7, respectively. Lastly, regarding the female (15+) employment in the population, China's position was presented as the 38th by the World Bank (2019e).

4.5.2. The Turkish Context

In 1980s, after following the liberal market economy, the Turkish economic policy was started to change (Hisrich and Öztürk, 1999) and become more industrialised (Cetindamar et al., 2012). However, today, entrepreneurship have still remained an underdeveloped area that negatively affects women entrepreneurs, in particular (Kalafatoglu, 2010; Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017). More specifically, within the OECD and European countries, Turkey has the lowest rate of women entrepreneurs (Tuzun et al. 2015). Nevertheless, when the important emerging potential of the Turkish economy (Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017) and the primary role of SMEs in employment in Turkey (Ensari and Karabay, 2014) are considered, it can be pointed out that women entrepreneurship in Turkey holds a substantial potential.

Based on the World Bank's 2018 GDP data (in US dollars), Turkey's value was 766,509.09 (World Bank, 2019c) whilst its GDP per capita value was 9,311.4 (World Bank, 2019d). Turkey's total values of import and export in 2017 announced by TÜİK (2019c) (converted to the unit of USD 100 million by the author) were 2337.9 and 1569.9, respectively. Finally, in terms of the female (15+) employment in the population, the World Bank (2019e) ranked Turkey 164th.

4.6. Key Findings from the CAGE Aspects

In terms of the cultural aspect, it is explicit that both cultures have long and rich histories, although there are several differences, such as religion and language. As a similarity, the reciprocal social and business relationships among the people have a value in both contexts, especially for women entrepreneurship. These findings reinforce the discourses existing in the theories of social network and strong ties, which highlight that the closer interpersonal relationships are, the stronger the tie is (Ozeren et al., 2018). Yet, in the majority of the studies that utilise these theories, the networks were discussed either genderless or remained insufficient to consider the women presence as a cultural construct (Addis and Joxhe, 2017). Accordingly, the presented findings flourish the women entrepreneurship literature. Besides, based on the Hofstede’s dimensions, adopting the formal authority and possessing the collectivist approach are the mutual characteristics of both countries while the masculinity and pragmatism are higher in the Chinese society compared to the Turkish society. In this sense, these findings differ from several studies (e.g., Kalafatoglu and Mendoza, 2017) which discuss the high level of patriarchal norms in Turkey. Nevertheless, the findings still support the arguments of some studies that the patriarchal norms, regardless of the level, cannot hamper the women entrepreneurship under favour of social relations and networking. Adding to these differences in both contexts, the Chinese culture is more adaptable to the unknown future whereas the Turkish culture emphasises more on leisure time and desires. In light of these, there are similarities and differences exist in Turkey and China, and therefore the preferable choice between these two countries depends on the personalities of different decision-makers.

Regarding the administrative aspect, more industry-driven policies have been followed by both countries, especially after 1970s, and the governments support women entrepreneurs through several programs and projects, where financial supports are primarily the common matters. In addition to these, the eligible age of 18 in the election systems for all backgrounds is another similarity of these two countries. On the other hand, the administrative systems and their units show differences due to the inherent structures of the countries. Lastly, in relation to the patriarchal and male-dominance values discussed in the cultural aspect, it can be deduced that women engagement in the business life by means of the entrepreneurial activities occurred earlier in the Turkish context. In this respect, women entrepreneurs, who seek opportunities in both contexts, need to choose a more suitable administrative structure depending on the nature of their ventures.

Concerning the geographic aspect, the mainland of China has a broader area bordered with more neighbours in comparison with the mainland of Turkey. The very similar point between these two countries is the use of highways as a main transportation mode, although the ranking of other modes varies in both contexts. Remarkably, several differences were also identified in the LPI values, especially for the activities of customs, infrastructure, and logistics competence. In all LPI values, China outperforms Turkey, without exception. Thus, this aspect shows that China uses its geographic advantage with better infrastructure and logistics activities.

With regard to the economic aspect, both countries are market-driven economies where women entrepreneurship holds a significant potential to be focused. Yet, economic parameters, especially the female employment scores, differ from each other and brings China one step further than Turkey, despite the closeness of GDP per capita values. In addition to these facts, as illustrated in Table 2, comparing the exchange rates between the official Chinese currency, Renminbi (or refer to as Chinese Yuan), and the official Turkish currency, Turkish Lira, in a five-year time span can help to exemplify the economic progressive circumstances of these countries.

Table 2: The Exchange Rates between Chinese Yuan and Turkish Lira

	Chinese Yuan	Turkish Lira
16.07.2014	1	0.34022
16.07.2019	1	0.82466

Source: (The Central Bank of Turkey, 2019a; 2019b).

Table 2 was prepared based on the buying rate of exchange values announced by the Central Bank of Turkey and as can be seen in Table 2, Chinese Yuan increased more than doubled against Turkish Lira during this time period. Thus, it becomes evident that the Chinese currency has an increasing value compared to the Turkish currency and this can attract more entrepreneurial attention for an investment strategy. On the other side, in terms of the new ventures, such as start-up companies, Turkey can also arise as a potential for women entrepreneurs due to the decreasing value of its currency.

All in all, in terms of the dimensions of the CAGE framework, there are similarities and differences in both contexts. In this regard, these similar and different findings, as summarised in Table 3, hold a significant potential to reveal academic and practical insights into the women entrepreneurship concept in both contexts and to advance the extant knowledge from different aspects.

Table 3: A Taxonomical Summary of the Findings

	The Chinese Context	The Turkish Context
Cultural Aspect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main philosophical and spiritual sources: Taoism-religion, Buddhism-religion, Confucianism-a way of living life - Relationships: “Guanxi”-social and business relationships - Official language: Mandarin - Hofstede’s 6-D model: power distance (80), individualism (20), masculinity (66), uncertainty avoidance (30), long term orientation (87), indulgence (24) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Main religion: Islam - Relationships: belonging to the same school or group and the fellow countryman approach in social and business relationships - Official language: Turkish - Hofstede’s 6-D model: power distance (66), individualism (37), masculinity (45), uncertainty avoidance (85), long term orientation (46), indulgence (49)
Administrative Aspect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The open-up policy (after 1970s) - Equal opportunities between men and women: in education and other opportunities especially after 1990s - Prominent government support policies for women entrepreneurship: providing subsidies for trainings, making arrangements for loans - Administrative system and structure: a three-tier system, 23 provinces, five autonomous regions, four municipalities, two special administrative regions, and the established election system (all citizens who reached the age of 18 have the right to vote) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modernisation and liberalisation (after foundation in 1923) - Equal opportunities between men and women: in education (after 1924) and other opportunities (e.g., labour force participation, women entrepreneurship research especially after 1980s) - Prominent government support policies for women entrepreneurship: carrying out several programs and projects (e.g., KOSGEB’s subsidies and networking projects), making arrangements for loans - Administrative system and structure: 81 provinces and the established election system (all citizens who

		reached the age of 18 hold the right to vote)
Geographic Aspect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coverage: Much of East Asia - Main source of freight and passenger transportation: Highways-Road - The World Bank LPI list sub-scores: customs (3.29), infrastructure (3.75), international shipments (3.54), logistics competence (3.59), tracking and tracing (3.65), timeliness (3.84) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coverage: The continents of Europe and Asia - Main source of freight and passenger transportation: Highways-Road - The World Bank LPI list sub-scores: customs (2.71), infrastructure (3.21), international shipments (3.06), logistics competence (3.05), tracking and tracing (3.23), and timeliness (3.63)
Economic Aspect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic policy: transition to market economy after 1970s - Women entrepreneurship potential in industry: the primary role of SMEs - World Bank 2018 economic data (in US Dollars): GDP- 13,608,151.86 and GDP per capita- 9,770.8 - Total values of imports and exports in 2017 (in the unit of USD 100 million): 18437.9 and 22633.7, respectively - The World Bank ranking for the female (15+) employment in the population: 38th 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Economic policy: liberal market economy after 1980s - Women entrepreneurship potential in industry: the primary role of SMEs - World Bank 2018 economic data (in US Dollars): GDP- 766,509.09 and GDP per capita- 9,311.4 - Total values of imports and exports in 2017 (in the unit of USD 100 million): 2337.9 and 1569.9, respectively - The World Bank ranking for the female (15+) employment in the population: 164th

Source: The author

As seen from the taxonomical summary presented in Table 3, the first two dimensions of CAGE are more subjective and, therefore, a choice among these countries by considering their cultural and administrative characteristics is subject to the preferences of decision makers, who are potentially women entrepreneurs in this study. On the academic side, the findings of these two aspects refer more to theoretical and conceptual discourses in the literature and, by this way, the novelties of this study rely much on these aspects. On the other hand, the latter two dimensions have more objective and tangible parameters. In this sense, practically, based on the information shared in geographic and economic aspects, China holds more advantages to be preferred by women entrepreneurs over Turkey.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

There has recently been a surge in attention to entrepreneurship due to its positive impact on economy, innovation, sustainability, and competitiveness of countries. In parallel, a closer look into the characteristics of entrepreneurs, which trigger entrepreneurial attempts and practices, have also gained momentum. Along with these advancements, social and technological changes occurred at the macro level have lately altered the understanding of entrepreneurship and, in this alteration, gender has started to become an attribute to define the entrepreneurial type rather than a discriminatory factor. Despite these positive changes and interests, women entrepreneurship has still remained underdeveloped and received inadequate attention. Moreover, the elusiveness of both the difference among men and women entrepreneurs, especially from the cultural and supportive sides, and the extent to which they participate in an economy centred this field on the focal point to be examined. What is more is that a cross-country insight becomes imperative for exploring the rationales and motives that influence women entrepreneurs' decisions to move into entrepreneurship in this globalised business environment. Thus, since women ventures are conducive for the economic development

and social inclusion, in order to address these voids, the present study focused on women entrepreneurship by adopting the cross-country approach and employed the generic dimensions of the CAGE analysis to investigate similarities and differences of two indicative developing countries, China and Turkey. To this end, the idiosyncratic characteristics of both contexts that can appeal women entrepreneurs were initially identified by means of the secondary sources shared by various actors and, afterwards, the identified information were evaluated through the four dimensions of the CAGE analysis in a comparative basis.

Compared to previous studies, the present study offers several shreds of insights for making this research original in various angles. First, this study holds a great potential to advance the nascent knowledge in women entrepreneurship by providing a multinational level beyond a company or a country boundary with the inclusion of economic and non-economic parameters. More specifically, since there is a paucity of research on the multi-dimensional comparative evaluation of such countries, within the developing country setting, the similarities and differences presented in the findings, which move beyond the economic aspect, offer novelty to the entrepreneurship literature, especially to the field of women entrepreneurship. Additionally, the implementation of the CAGE analysis was considerably examined in previous studies; however, it becomes evident that there is a dearth of research on the usage of CAGE analysis in entrepreneurship, particularly in women entrepreneurship. Thus, another contribution of this research lies in demonstrating the applicability and practicality of the CAGE analysis in a multi-country women entrepreneurship study. In this sense, the proposed approach in this study is of value for providing not only academic, but also practical and seminal insights into potential entrepreneurs and professionals who consider engaging in different countries. On this wise, the way of both implementing the CAGE analysis and discussing sub-indicators can be used as a reference strategic procedure during country evaluations. Finally, the findings of this study can also be used by policymakers and various actors interested in improving the conditions of women entrepreneurship in their contexts and creates rooms for possible entrepreneurial attempts.

Besides, as with any research, this study is not free from limitations. Initially, regarding the literature review, the presented keywords were mainly searched within abstracts, titles, and keywords of the English-written articles indexed in two databases. Moreover, since this is a cross-country study based on comparative evaluations, it was difficult to find either comparable level of information or recent data belonging to the same year in both contexts. Likewise, in addition to the language barrier while reaching a source of information in the Chinese context, sharing some information in different units caused another difficulty in assessing the contextual indicators. Therefore, although these processes were attentively and diligently managed, some characteristic indicators could include more or less information. Nevertheless, in the presence of such limitations, this research attempted to overcome these barriers to a considerable extent in order to shed light on future studies. In this regard, in the following studies, the scope of this study can be extended with several additional indicators during the comparisons and different strategic evaluation analyses, such as PESTEL, can be practiced for the same contexts. Finally, different contexts can also be evaluated so that more unknown practices can be clarified for diverse research settings.

Research and Publication Ethics Statement

This study has been prepared in accordance with the rules of scientific research and publication ethics.

Contribution Rates of Authors

The author's contribution to the article is 100%.

Conflicts of Interest

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

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