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Quantity and quality of employment generated by opportunity- and necessity-driven ventures in Mozambique

Quantidade e qualidade de emprego criados em empreendimentos por oportunidade e por necessidade em Moçambique

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to compare the quantity and quality of jobs created by opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs in the cities of Maputo, Beira and Nampula. A quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional and descriptive-comparative study was carried out involving 551 entrepreneurs selected on a convenience basis in markets and shopping centres. Data were collected via a questionnaire and analysed using descriptive statistics, the chi-squared test, analysis of variance, Tukey's comparison test and Student's t-test, with a significance level of 5 per cent. Necessity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for 72 per cent of the sample and reported higher total and average numbers of jobs; however, opportunity-driven entrepreneurs recorded more favourable proportions regarding compliance with the minimum wage, working hours within legal limits, employment contracts, occupational safety and trade union membership. Average wages did not differ significantly between the two types of entrepreneurship, but varied across cities. It was concluded that the number of jobs created did not necessarily correspond to better working conditions. The results were limited to the participants studied and could not be generalised to the whole of Mozambique.

Keywords: decent work; entrepreneurship; necessity-driven entrepreneurs; opportunity-driven entrepreneurs.

RESUMEN

El objetivo del estudio fue comparar la cantidad y la calidad de los empleos creados por emprendedores motivados por la oportunidad y por la necesidad en las ciudades de Maputo, Beira y Nampula. Se realizó un estudio cuantitativo, no experimental, transversal y descriptivo-comparativo, en el que participaron 551 emprendedores seleccionados mediante un muestreo por conveniencia en mercados y centros comerciales. Los datos se recopilaron mediante un cuestionario y se analizaron utilizando estadística descriptiva, la prueba de chi-cuadrado, el análisis de varianza, la prueba de comparación de Tukey y la prueba t de Student, con un nivel de significancia del 5 %. Los emprendedores por necesidad representaron el 72 % de la muestra y registraron un mayor número total y promedio de empleos; sin embargo, los emprendedores por oportunidad presentaron proporciones más favorables en cuanto al cumplimiento del salario mínimo, jornadas laborales dentro de los límites legales, contratos de trabajo, seguridad laboral y afiliación sindical. Los salarios promedio no mostraron diferencias significativas entre los dos tipos de emprendimiento, aunque variaron entre las

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ciudades. Se concluyó que la cantidad de empleos creados no necesariamente correspondió con mejores condiciones laborales. Los resultados se limitaron a los participantes estudiados y no pudieron generalizarse a todo Mozambique.

Palabras clave: trabajo decente; emprendimiento; emprendedores por necesidad; emprendedores por oportunidad.

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship is an important source of income and employment in African economies, particularly where growth in formal wage employment has not kept pace with expansion of the economically active population. Gebremichael et al. (1) linked entrepreneurial activity to economic recovery and job creation across the continent, while noting that its outcomes depend on the productive and institutional environment. Ajide (2) likewise showed that institutional quality shapes the development of entrepreneurship in Africa. In small firms, these conditions interact with community values and social relationships that influence the management of both the business and its workers (3).

In Mozambique, the expansion of self-employment coexists with informality, income instability and limited labour protection. Ali and Stevano (4) identified tensions between employment creation and the reproduction of decent working conditions in the country. The 2019/2020 Household Budget Survey reported territorial and gender differences in economic participation (5), while subsequent national data highlighted the pressure created by young people entering the labour market and the shortage of stable opportunities (6). This situation makes it necessary to assess not only how many jobs ventures create, but also wages, working hours, contracts and collective representation. The International Labour Organization noted that the informal economy concentrates substantial deficits in labour protection and rights (7).

The distinction between opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurship provides a useful basis for this comparison. The former arises from identifying a market opportunity, seeking autonomy or expecting to increase income; the latter generally emerges in response to unemployment, a lack of alternatives or subsistence needs. Nevertheless, initial motivation does not imply that one group will automatically create more jobs or offer better conditions. The quantity and quality of work may move in different directions, particularly in heterogeneous urban markets.

Although the literature has advanced in explaining entrepreneurial motivations and informality, few comparisons simultaneously examine the quantity and quality of jobs created by these two groups in Mozambique's main cities. It also remains unclear whether territorial differences among Maputo, Beira and Nampula are reflected in the number of workers, remuneration, working time, recruitment and trade union membership.

Against this background, the following research question was formulated: What differences exist in the quantity and quality of jobs generated by opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs in Maputo, Beira and Nampula? The objective was to compare the quantity and quality of these jobs

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across the three cities. The hypothesis proposed that statistically significant differences exist in the quantity and quality of jobs generated by the two groups.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurship

The distinction between opportunity and necessity seeks to explain why people start a venture. Huang et al. (8) found that individual factors and characteristics of the national entrepreneurship system influence these two forms differently. In an integrative review, O'Donnell et al. (9) cautioned that necessity entrepreneurship encompasses heterogeneous trajectories and should not be treated merely as a residual category. In Sub-Saharan Africa, Weber et al. (10) identified different combinations of deprivation, resources and aspirations, reinforcing the need to interpret motivation within the economic context in which a business operates.

Differences also appear in intentions, competencies and the ability to mobilise resources. Batz Liñeiro et al. (11) found distinct motivational profiles among opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs. Lingappa et al. (12) showed that learning motivation and entrepreneurial competencies are associated with the performance of women-led businesses. Naiki and Ogane (13) observed that human capital has different effects on fundraising according to entrepreneurial motivation. Sendra-Pons et al. (14) added that national and gender conditions help explain female necessity entrepreneurship. Taken together, these findings indicate that the classification used in this study represents an entry motivation but does not independently determine subsequent performance.

Job creation and venture performance

The contribution of entrepreneurship to employment can be measured by the total number of jobs created and the average number of workers in each business. These measures are not equivalent: a numerically larger group may account for more jobs without each venture being larger. Núñez and Morales-Alonso (15) showed that economic shocks and economic freedom affect the evolution of opportunity- and necessity-driven entrepreneurship differently. Porfírio et al. (16) found that motivation, innovation and economic integration take different forms across the two types of entrepreneur. The presumed quantitative superiority of opportunity-driven businesses therefore needs to be tested rather than assumed.

The capacity to maintain and expand employment also depends on access to finance, management competencies, sector and location. Mashapure et al. (17) identified financial, institutional and social barriers affecting the sustainability of women's entrepreneurship in African settings. Gebremichael et al. (1) noted that the job-creation potential of entrepreneurship is realised only when policies, institutions and markets provide conditions that support business continuity. Accordingly, the observed quantity of employment should be interpreted alongside the characteristics of the sample, without attributing causality to initial motivation.

Employment quality, informality and decent work

Employment quality encompasses remuneration, working time, contractual stability, security and the capacity for representation. Moyo (18) found that formalisation of informal activities in Sub-Saharan Africa depends on business characteristics, access to resources and the institutional environment. Torm and Oehme (19) showed that formalisation and social protection may progress at different rates; therefore, business registration alone does not demonstrate adequate working conditions. McKay et al. (20) further reported that the response of formal work to tax policies varies among Sub-Saharan African countries, illustrating the sensitivity of formalisation to context.

From a decent-work perspective, job creation should be accompanied by rights, protection and social dialogue. Okbandrias and Nordjo (21) highlighted the importance of local strategies that connect employment, social security, business practices and worker participation. Lakemann (22) demonstrated the heterogeneity and economic vulnerability of small entrepreneurs and self-employed workers. Lo Bue et al. (23) identified persistent gender inequalities in vulnerable employment across developing countries. The ILO Declaration on Social Justice linked economic progress to productive employment, social protection, social dialogue and rights at work (24). These dimensions underpinned the quality indicators used in the present study.

African and Mozambican context

The African context combines segmented labour markets, high informality and strong dependence on micro and small businesses. Political and economic institutions influence available opportunities (2), while relational and community values also shape management practices in small firms (3). In Mozambique, the limitations of formal employment and differences between cities make it inappropriate to generalise national results to specific local settings. Data from the National Institute of Statistics (5,6) and the analysis by Ali and Stevano (4) support the need to examine Maputo, Beira and Nampula separately. The study therefore compared the two types of entrepreneurship and considered city as a relevant dimension when interpreting the results.

METHOD

The study adopted a quantitative approach with a non-experimental, cross-sectional design and a descriptive-comparative scope. It compared the quantity and quality of jobs generated by opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs in Maputo, Beira and Nampula.

The literature review formed part of the theoretical foundation and was not presented as the principal research design.

The sample comprised 551 entrepreneurs from the three Mozambican cities, as detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of the entrepreneur sample by city

Entrepreneurs	City			Total
	Maputo	Beira	Nampula	
Opportunity-driven	74	26	54	154
Necessity-driven	134	147	116	397
Total	208	173	170	551

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Source: Author (2026).

Participants were classified as opportunity-driven entrepreneurs when they reported starting the venture to exploit market opportunities, attain financial autonomy or increase their income. They were classified as necessity-driven entrepreneurs when they reported beginning the activity because of unemployment, a lack of alternative income sources or subsistence needs.

Data were collected using convenience sampling in markets and/or shopping centres. The inclusion criterion required participants to be engaged in entrepreneurial activity in Maputo, Beira or Nampula during the study period. Participants were selected according to their availability. Those who agreed to participate received an explanation of the research objective and subsequently completed the data-collection instrument (questionnaire), which contained the indicators to be measured.

Data collection instrument

The semi-structured data collection instrument contained 29 questions, including 24 closed-ended items with between two and six response options and three open-ended questions. It covered the following dimensions: participants' sociodemographic characteristics, entrepreneurial characteristics and generation of decent jobs. The indicators included sex, age group, marital status, educational level, time in business, difficulties, category, entrepreneurship training, reason for starting the business, registration, sector of activity, trade union membership, prior employment status, working hours, number of workers employed, wages, government programmes, financial autonomy and legal status of the activity. Participants selected from two or more alternatives for the closed-ended items and responded freely to the open-ended questions.

Data analysis

The data were organised and processed using Microsoft Excel and RStudio. Bar figures and comparative tables were used for the analyses. Pearson's chi-square test examined differences between opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs. Fisher's F test was used to assess differences in wages across the three cities, Tukey's test identified pairwise wage differences, and Student's t-test compared the mean wages of the two entrepreneur groups. A significance level of 5% was adopted.

Ethical considerations

Participation was voluntary and conditional on informed consent. Participants received information about the study objectives, the confidential nature of their responses and their right to withdraw at any time. Data were analysed in aggregate form without individual identification.

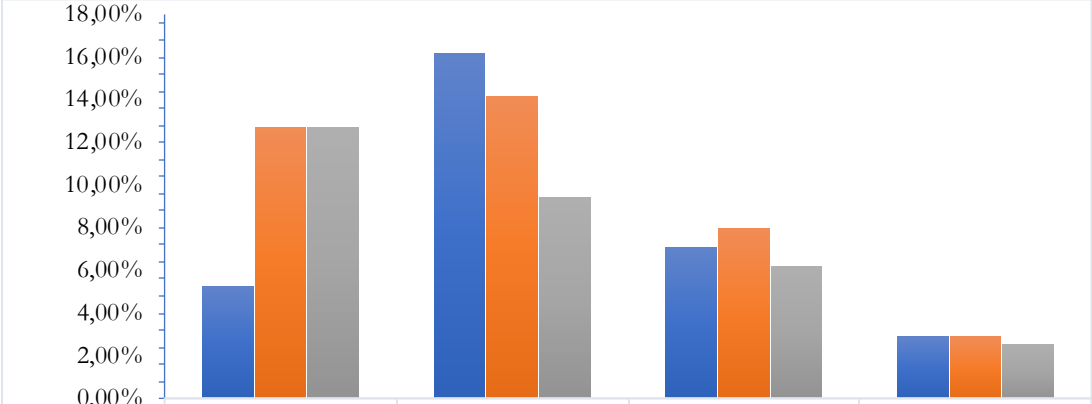
RESULTS

Sample characteristics

As detailed in Table 1, the sample comprised 551 entrepreneurs: 208 (37.75%) from Maputo, 173 (31.40%) from Beira and 170 (30.80%) from Nampula. Regarding sex, men constituted the majority in all three cities: 111 (20.15%) in Maputo, 93 (16.88%) in Beira and 94 (17.06%) in Nampula. Women accounted for 97 participants (17.60%) in Maputo, 80 (14.52%) in Beira and 79 (13.79%) in Nampula.

The entrepreneurs, aged between 18 and 68 years, were initially organised into four age groups, as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Distribution of entrepreneurs by age group

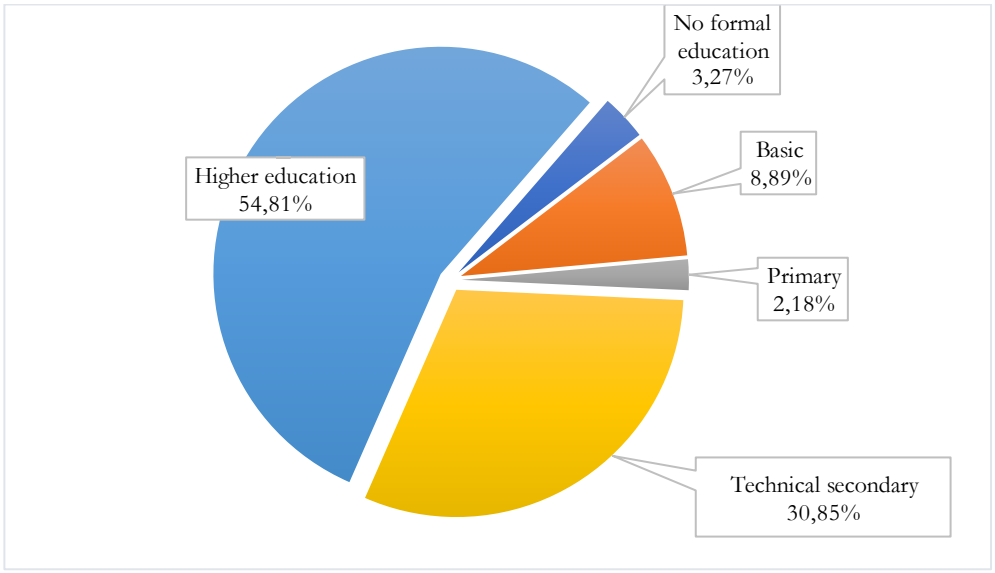


	18 to 25 years	25 to 35 years	35 to 45 years	> 45 anos
Beira	5,26%	16,15%	7,08%	2,90%
Maputo	12,70%	14,16%	7,99%	2,90%
Nampula	12,70%	9,44%	6,17%	2,54%

Note. Prepared by the author.

The entrepreneurs ranged in age from 18 to more than 45 years. The 25–35 age group contained the largest number, with 219 participants (39.75%), followed by the 18–25 age group with 169 (30.66%). A further 117 participants (21.24%) were aged 35–45 years, and 46 (8.34%) were older than 45 years.

Figure 2. Distribution of entrepreneurs by educational level

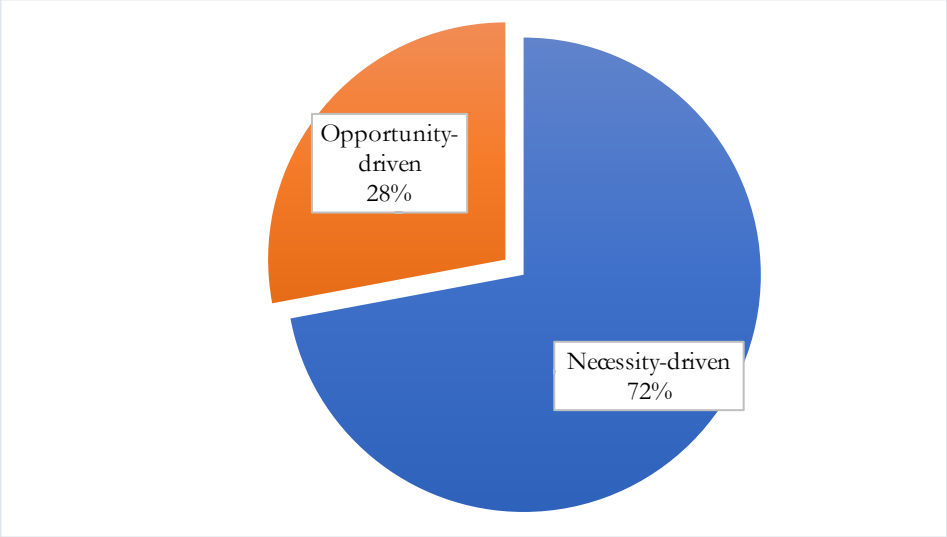


Note. Prepared by the author.

Educational levels were classified as basic, technical secondary, higher education and no formal education. As shown in Figure 2, higher education predominated, accounting for 302 participants (54.81%). Technical secondary education ranked second, with 170 respondents (30.85%).

Entrepreneurs with basic, primary or no formal education jointly represented the smallest share, comprising approximately 79 participants (14.34%) of the sample.

Figure 3. Distribution of entrepreneurs by entrepreneurship category



Note. Prepared by the author.

The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor classification was used to divide participants into two categories (Figure 3). A total of 397 entrepreneurs (72%) reported starting their business because they lacked alternative sources of income and needed to support their families. In contrast, 154 entrepreneurs (28%) identified a market opportunity as the reason for starting their business; some were already engaged in paid employment, while others had financial stability.

Table 2. Comparison of the two entrepreneurship categories

Pearson chi-square	Statistic	df	p
	21.580	2	< 0.001

The distribution of entrepreneurship categories differed across the three cities, $\chi^2(2) = 21.580$; $p < 0.001$. Maputo had a proportionally higher concentration of opportunity-driven entrepreneurs, whereas Beira had a greater proportion of necessity-driven entrepreneurs.

Comparison between opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs

To address the general objective, the quantity and quality of jobs generated by opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs were compared. Table 3 presents the results for the number of workers, compliance with the minimum wage, working hours, employment contracts, occupational safety and trade union membership.

Table 3. Comparison of employment quantity and quality by type of entrepreneurship

Indicator	Opportunity-driven	Necessity-driven
Entrepreneurs, n	154	397
Jobs generated, n	475	1,512
Mean number of workers	3.08	3.83
Minimum wage compliance, n (%)	105 (68.18)	130 (32.75)

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Indicator	Opportunity-driven	Necessity-driven
Working hours within the legal limit, n (%)	130 (84.42)	226 (56.93)
Employment contract, n (%)	87 (56.49)	150 (37.78)
Trade union membership, n (%)	27 (17.53)	33 (8.31)

Source: Author.

Table 3 shows that necessity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for 1,512 jobs and an average of 3.83 workers, whereas opportunity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for 475 jobs and an average of 3.08 workers. Conversely, the opportunity-driven group recorded higher proportions for compliance with the minimum wage, working hours within the legal limit, employment contracts and trade union membership. These differences are descriptive unless accompanied by a specific statistical test.

Quantity of jobs generated

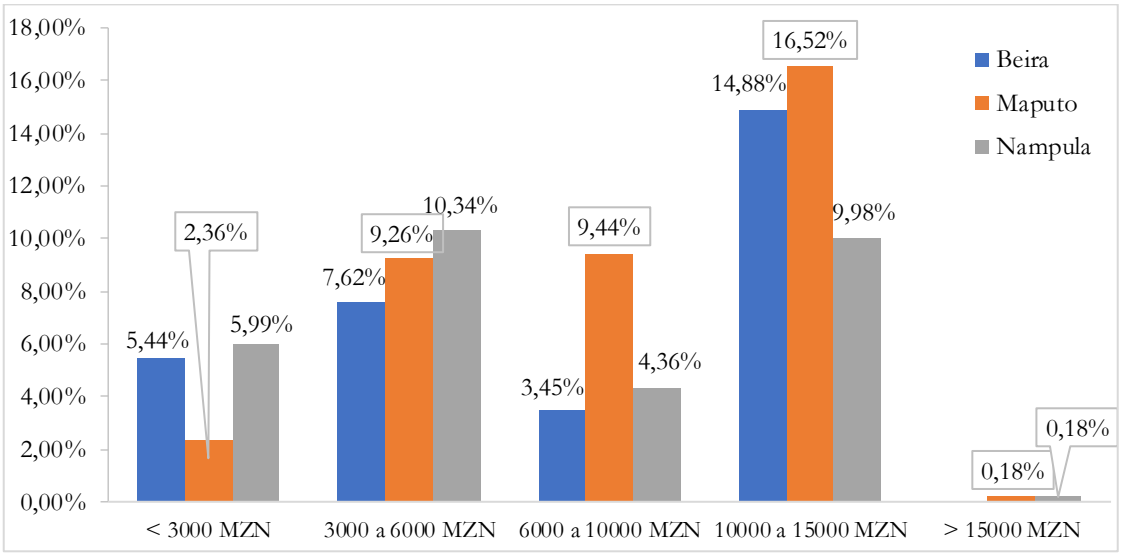
The quantity of employment was examined using both the total number of jobs and the average number of workers per venture, thereby avoiding attribution of the higher total solely to the group with more participants.

The 397 necessity-driven entrepreneurs generated 1,512 jobs, corresponding to 76.09% of the jobs observed, whereas the 154 opportunity-driven entrepreneurs generated 475 jobs, or 23.91%. After accounting for group size, the mean was 3.83 workers per necessity-driven venture and 3.08 per opportunity-driven venture, as summarised in Table 3.

Wages

Wages ranged from MZN 2,700.00 to MZN 38,000.00 and were therefore organised into five groups, as shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Distribution of entrepreneurs by wages paid to employees



Note. Prepared by the author.

Figure 4 shows that wages from MZN 10,000.00 to MZN 15,000.00 predominated, covering 228 workers (41.38%). This range was followed by MZN 3,000.00–6,000.00, with 150 workers (27.22%),

and MZN 6,000.00–10,000.00, with 95 (17.25%). Wages below MZN 3,000.00 and above MZN 15,000.00 accounted for 76 workers (13.79%) and two workers (0.36%), respectively.

After examining wages paid by both opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurs, Fisher's F test was used to assess differences among the three cities, as reported in Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of inferential analyses of wages paid

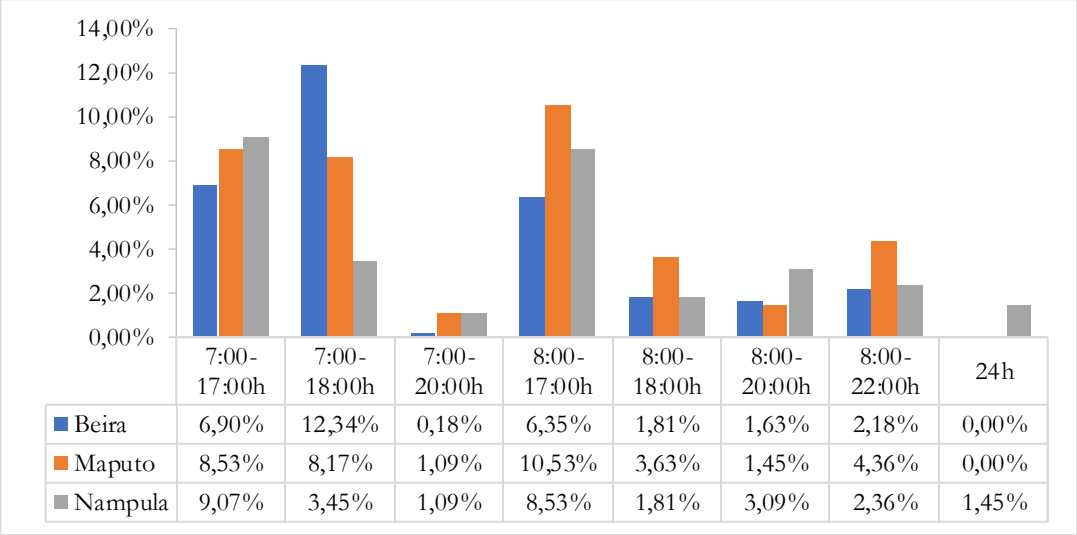
Analysis	Comparison or test	Statistic	df	95% CI	p
ANOVA	City	F = 7.7604	2; 548	—	< 0.001
Assumption	Shapiro–Wilk	W = 0.869	—	—	< 0.001
Assumption	Pearson	< 0.001 606.4	—	—	< 0.001
Assumption	Breusch–Pagan	5.616	2	—	0.060
Tukey	Maputo–Beira	Diff. = 524.99	—	-355.91; 1,405.89	0.341
Tukey	Nampula–Beira	Diff. = -950.59	—	-1,875.12; -26.06	0.042
Tukey	Nampula–Maputo	Diff. = -1,475.58	—	-2,360.72; -590.44	< 0.001
t-test	Opportunity–necessity	t = 1.342	93.986	—	0.182

Note. df = degrees of freedom; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; Diff. = mean difference. Source: Author.

ANOVA indicated a difference among the mean wages of the three cities, $F(2, 548) = 7.7604$; $p < 0.001$. Tukey's test showed no difference between Maputo and Beira ($p = 0.341$), whereas Nampula had a lower mean than Beira ($p = 0.042$) and Maputo ($p < 0.001$). In the comparison by type of entrepreneurship, the t-test found no statistically significant difference between opportunity and necessity, $t(93.986) = 1.342$; $p = 0.182$. Table 4 summarises the ANOVA results, assumption checks, Tukey comparisons and t-test.

Working hours

Figure 5. Distribution of entrepreneurs by working schedule



	7:00-17:00h	7:00-18:00h	7:00-20:00h	8:00-17:00h	8:00-18:00h	8:00-20:00h	8:00-22:00h	24h
Beira	6,90%	12,34%	0,18%	6,35%	1,81%	1,63%	2,18%	0,00%
Maputo	8,53%	8,17%	1,09%	10,53%	3,63%	1,45%	4,36%	0,00%
Nampula	9,07%	3,45%	1,09%	8,53%	1,81%	3,09%	2,36%	1,45%

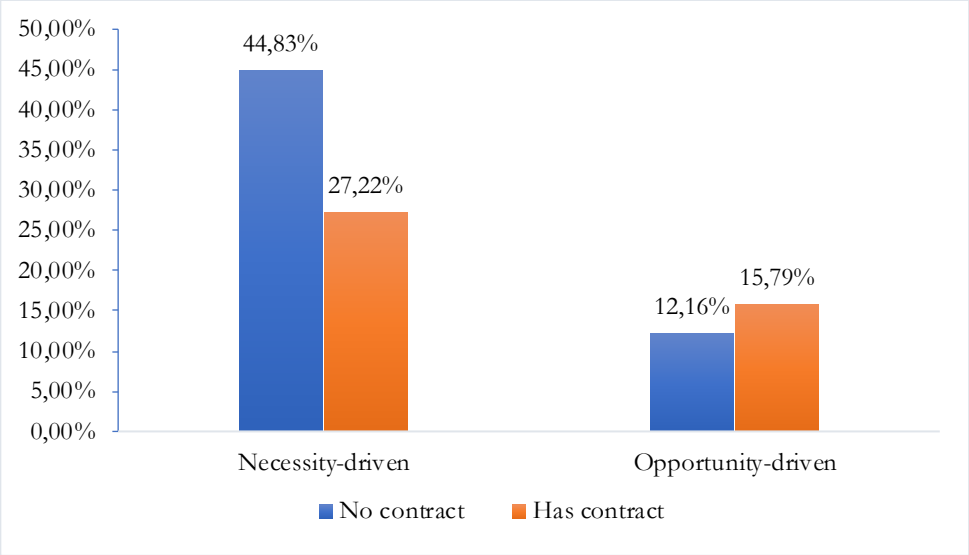
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Note. Prepared by the author.

Figure 5 shows schedules ranging from 7:00 to 22:00 and, in some cases, 24-hour operation. A total of 140 entrepreneurs (25.41%) fully complied with an eight-hour workday, while 135 (24.5%) remained within a one-hour margin. Overall, 276 entrepreneurs (50.09%) did not comply with the limits of eight hours per day and 48 hours per week. However, recent economic trends have encouraged increasingly diverse, decentralised and individualised work schedules.

Employment contracts and occupational safety

Figure 6. Distribution of entrepreneurs by employment contract and occupational safety

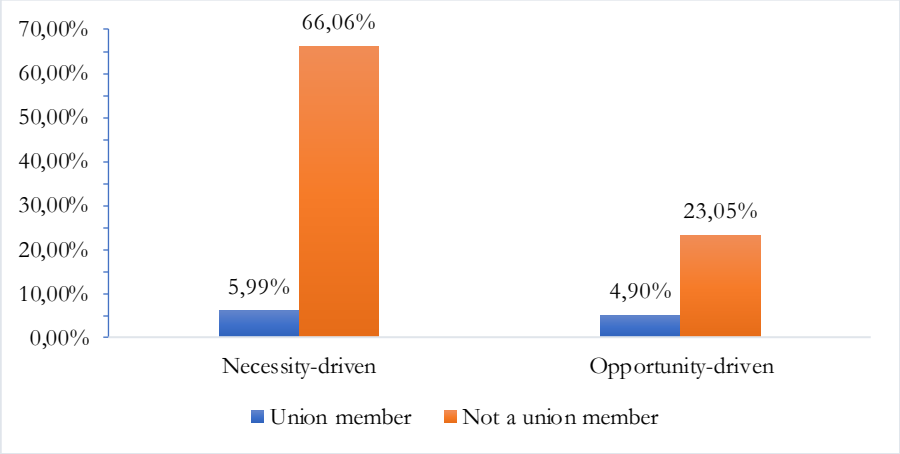


Note. Prepared by the author.

Regarding employment contracts and occupational safety, Figure 6 shows that necessity-driven entrepreneurs employed fewer workers with signed contracts: 150 (27.22%) had contracts and 247 (44.83%) did not. Among opportunity-driven entrepreneurs, 87 workers (15.79%) had signed contracts and 67 (12.16%) did not.

Trade union membership

Figure 7. Distribution of entrepreneurs by trade union membership



https://doi.org/10.71068/SMJ00061

Note. Prepared by the author.

Figure 7 presents trade union membership by entrepreneurship category. Among necessity-driven entrepreneurs, 364 (66.06%) were not affiliated with a union and 33 (5.99%) were affiliated. Among opportunity-driven entrepreneurs, 127 (23.05%) were not affiliated and 27 (4.90%) were affiliated.

DISCUSSION

The sample included 397 necessity-driven entrepreneurs (72%) and 154 opportunity-driven entrepreneurs (28%). The distribution of the categories varied across the cities, $\chi^2(2) = 21.580$; $p < 0.001$, with a proportionally greater presence of opportunity-driven entrepreneurs in Maputo and a higher concentration of necessity-driven entrepreneurs in Beira. This result confirmed that entrepreneurial motivation was not distributed uniformly across the territory. The difference is consistent with Huang et al. (8), Weber et al. (10), and Núñez and Morales-Alonso (15), who linked entrepreneurial forms to specific economic, institutional and individual conditions. The cross-sectional design, however, did not allow identification of which city characteristics produced the observed distribution.

Necessity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for 1,512 jobs and an average of 3.83 workers, whereas opportunity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for 475 jobs and an average of 3.08. The data therefore did not support the expectation of greater job creation by the opportunity-driven group. This result resembles the heterogeneity described by O'Donnell et al. (9) and Weber et al. (10), for whom necessity does not necessarily imply low business activity. It also agrees with Gebremichael et al. (1), who recognised the capacity of small African businesses to absorb labour. In contrast, Batz Liñeiro et al. (11) found motivational profiles favourable to opportunity exploitation, but such profiles do not automatically imply more workers. Since no specific test was performed for the difference between mean employment levels, this comparison remained descriptive.

Employment quality followed a different pattern. Compliance with the minimum wage reached 68.18% in the opportunity-driven group and 32.75% in the necessity-driven group. Despite this proportional difference, the mean wages of the two groups did not differ significantly, $t(93.986) = 1.342$; $p = 0.182$. In contrast, a difference was found among cities, $F(2, 548) = 7.7604$; $p < 0.001$: Nampula had a lower mean than Maputo and Beira, which did not differ from one another. Income vulnerability is consistent with the findings of Moyo (18), Lakemann (22), Lo Bue et al. (23), and Ali and Stevano (4). Nevertheless, the territorial difference cannot be attributed to entrepreneurial motivation because sector, size, age of the venture, qualifications and cost of living were not controlled.

Regarding working time, 276 participants (50.09%) did not meet the eight-hour workday stated in the manuscript. The proportion within this limit was 84.42% among opportunity-driven entrepreneurs and 56.93% among necessity-driven entrepreneurs. The pattern is consistent with the decent-work and protection deficits associated with informality discussed by Okbandrias and Nordjo (21), Lakemann (22), Ali and Stevano (4), and the ILO (7,24). Interpretation requires caution because the

instrument did not clearly distinguish business opening hours from each worker's individual schedule, nor did it examine shifts, flexible arrangements or overtime.

Descriptive differences also emerged in formalisation. Employment contracts were reported by 56.49% of opportunity-driven entrepreneurs and 37.78% of necessity-driven entrepreneurs; trade union membership was 17.53% and 8.31%, respectively. The findings agree with Moyo (18), who identified business and institutional determinants of formalisation, and with Torm and Oehme (19), who demonstrated that formalisation and social protection are not equivalent. McKay et al. (20) reinforced the influence of context on participation in formal work, while Okbandrias and Nordjo (21) highlighted collective representation as a component of decent work. Because occupational safety was not measured separately, it cannot be inferred solely from the existence of a contract.

The principal contribution of the study was to demonstrate that quantity and quality did not move in the same direction. Necessity-driven ventures had a higher average number of workers but less favourable results for the minimum wage, working hours, employment contracts and trade union membership. This combination reinforces O'Donnell et al.'s (9) criticism of binary classifications and confirms the diversity of trajectories described by Weber et al. (10). For Maputo, Beira and Nampula, the findings suggest that entrepreneurship policies should not evaluate success solely by the number of jobs created. Formalisation, social protection, financing, labour guidance and collective representation need to be coordinated, as proposed in recent studies on business sustainability and decent work in Africa (17-21).

Limitations

The study was conducted in Maputo, Beira and Nampula, three major corporate and financial centres in Mozambique. Non-probability convenience sampling was used, and participating entrepreneurs were recruited in markets and shopping centres. The data were self-reported, and the analysis did not control for sector, venture size or age. Consequently, the findings cannot be generalised to the entire territory of Mozambique.

CONCLUSIONS

The results showed that necessity-driven entrepreneurs accounted for a larger total number of jobs and a higher average number of workers per venture than opportunity-driven entrepreneurs. This finding did not support the expectation that businesses initiated from opportunity would have a quantitative advantage. However, the comparison remained descriptive because no specific test was reported for the difference between mean employment levels. The conclusions apply exclusively to the participants from Maputo, Beira and Nampula.

Employment quality did not follow the quantitative advantage observed in the necessity-driven group. Opportunity-driven entrepreneurs recorded higher proportions of compliance with the minimum wage and working hours within the limit considered in the study. Mean wages did not differ significantly between the two types of entrepreneurship, but they varied across cities: Nampula had a lower mean than Maputo and Beira. This territorial difference should not be attributed to a specific cause because sector, size, qualifications and cost of living were not controlled.

Formalisation was also comparatively more frequent among opportunity-driven entrepreneurs. Employment contracts and trade union membership reached higher proportions in this group, although both remained absent from a substantial share of the ventures examined. Occupational safety was not measured using an independent indicator and therefore should not be treated as equivalent to the mere presence of a contract. The findings indicate a need for policies that coordinate formalisation, information on labour rights, social protection and stronger forms of collective representation.

Overall, the study showed that creating more jobs did not necessarily mean providing better working conditions. This distinction constitutes the study's main empirical contribution to the debate on opportunity-driven and necessity-driven entrepreneurship in Mozambique. The cross-sectional design, convenience sampling and self-reported data limited generalisability and precluded causal interpretations. Future studies should use probability samples, separate contract and safety indicators, and control for sector, venture size and age.

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