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The Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training Towards Perceived Emancipation Amongst Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda

Sylvia Gavigan

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**THE CONTRIBUTION OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING
TOWARDS PERCEIVED EMANCIPATION AMONGST NASCENT
RURAL FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS IN UGANDA**

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For the award of PhD

**Technological University Dublin (TU Dublin)
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2021

The Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training Towards Perceived Emancipation Amongst Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda

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Thesis submitted in the fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of
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School of Marketing

College of Business

Technological University Dublin

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ABSTRACT

Although the number of female entrepreneurs in Uganda is increasing, they still lack appropriate entrepreneurship training and access to resources for the efficient running of their entrepreneurial activities. Furthermore, the promotion of rural female entrepreneurship in Uganda is a critical strategy in the creation of businesses and the improvement of the household income for rural female entrepreneurs. This offers them greater levels of independence and a reduced reliance on governmental social support. However, relatively little is known regarding the impact of entrepreneurship training on perceived emancipation of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. In this thesis, mixed methods were used to gather data. Firstly, data based on a survey of 298 nascent rural female entrepreneurs was gathered on three separate occasions: (I) Before entrepreneurship training was delivered; (II) Immediately after the entrepreneurship training was delivered, and, (III) Four months after the entrepreneurship training had finished. Secondly, qualitative analysis of the data provided additional information on the perspectives of nascent rural female entrepreneurs and their experiences four months after the training programme.

This thesis is organised around one major research question and three sub-questions regarding rural female entrepreneurial business skills (knowledge and competence), perceived emancipation and entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The key finding of this thesis reveals that entrepreneurship training improves the business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation of female entrepreneurs in rural Uganda. The results also found that on average, the total business knowledge and perceived emancipation scores of these female entrepreneurs, increased immediately following training programme and in the four months after the training programme finished. An overall contribution of this study is that

this advancement in knowledge and perceived emancipation for rural female entrepreneurs, may assist in improving female entrepreneurial activities throughout Uganda by informing the appropriate policies.

The research sought to address the gaps in literature and contribute new knowledge by offering four contributions: (I) New knowledge was created in developing a conceptual framework in order to address the highlighted gap in the literature. The main gap identified was linkages between entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation amongst rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda; (II) An examination of the impact of a specific entrepreneurship training programme on business knowledge and competence; (III) A contribution to the gender lens by exploring the inequalities and gender imbalances for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda; and, (IV) A contribution to the context of Uganda and rural female entrepreneurial activities in that country. The significance of the study is in its design and implementation of appropriate policies, along with the creation of specific entrepreneurship programmes. This will improve the income and standard of living for rural female entrepreneurs, plus the outcomes of the labour market and the overall economic development of Uganda.

DECLARATION

I certify that this thesis which I now submit for examination for the award of PhD is entirely my own work and has not been taken from any other work. This thesis was prepared according to the regulations for postgraduate study by research of the Technological University Dublin (TU Dublin) and has not been submitted in whole or in part for another award in any Institute or University.

The work reported in this thesis conforms to the principles and requirements of TU Dublin's guidelines for ethics in research. The University has permission to keep, lend or copy this thesis in whole or in part, on condition that any such use of the material of the thesis be duly acknowledged.

Signed *Sylvia Gavigan*

Date: 10th April 2021

Candidate

DEDICATION

To my beloved Aunt Elizabeth Busuli who went missing on 23rd November 2017 without a trace, I dedicate this great work to you. My Father John Baptist Katete (RIP) I treasure you for your inspiring words that shaped who I am now and the education you sowed in me at a very early age. To my wonderful Mum Josephine Nakachwa Katete, who is always behind all my work I do every day. My Brother Kizito, rest in peace. And to my Husband Robert Gavigan and my treasured son Seán Gavigan. Sean you have inspired me with so many words of encouragement throughout this journey, thanks a lot.

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Abbreviations

EA	Entrepreneurship Activities
ET	Entrepreneurship Training
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Global Entrepreneur Monitor
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPU	International Parliamentary Union
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MoES	Ministry of Education & Sports
NGO	Non-Government Organisation
NAADS	National Agriculture Advisory Services
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation & Development
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
PE	Perceived Emancipation
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PSED	Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics
RNFE	Rural Nascent Female Entrepreneur
SACCO	Savings and Cooperatives Credit Organisation
SME	Small Medium Enterprises
TEA	Total Entrepreneurial Activity
TOT	Trainer of Trainers
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UGP	Uganda Gender Policy
UIA	Uganda Investment Authority
UPE	Universal Primary Education
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USA	United States of America
UWEL	Uganda Women Entrepreneur Association Limited
VSLA	Village Savings & Loan Association
WFP	World Food Programme
YLP	Youth Livelihood Programme

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

This thesis explores how entrepreneurship training contributes to business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. In recent years, research has shown that rural female entrepreneurs engage in entrepreneurial activities, within their rural communities, to effectively generate income, overcome poverty and enhance economic advancement (Sutter *et al.*, 2019). However, they still lack appropriate entrepreneurship training and access to resources in order to efficiently generate their entrepreneurial activities. Although entrepreneurship training may improve the labour market outcomes for rural female entrepreneurs and their economic performance, less is known regarding the impact and contribution that entrepreneurship training has on the perceived emancipation of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This study addressed the gaps in literature by examining 4 areas: (I) New knowledge by creating a conceptual framework; (II) An examination of the impact of a specific entrepreneurship training programmes on business knowledge and competences; (III) An examination of the programme using a gender lens; and (IV) A contribution to the Ugandan context.

The promotion of entrepreneurship worldwide is critical in sustaining prosperity, creating both direct and indirect jobs, the emergence of new innovations, along with competitiveness and economic development (Stoica *et al.*, 2020; Doran *et al.*, 2018). Globally, the total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) rates have been reported at 10.2% for women, which is three-quarters the rate for men (Elam *et al.*, 2019). However, this is different for low-income countries such as Uganda, where the TEA shows a higher rate of 15.1%. Further research has indicated that globally, female owned business is at 6.2%, which is about two-thirds the rate of male owned businesses at 9.5%. The highest rate is found in Sub-Saharan Africa at 11.3%, in comparison to Asia 9.1%, Europe 5.3%, North America 5.7%, and South America 6.5% (Elam *et al.*, 2019).

Furthermore, female involvement in early stage entrepreneurial activity varies greatly around the world. Kelley *et al.* (2016) stated that although globally women start entrepreneurship to support their families and to attain financial independence, they also face significant challenges such as a lack of education. Arguably, there is gender-bias with regards to entrepreneurship as females face greater challenges in their entrepreneurial activities than their male counterparts (McAdam, 2013). For example, Lourenco *et al.* (2014) list multiple barriers for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. These include a lack of access to credit, gender inequality, and lack of access to knowledge and training. Therefore, women in Uganda are mainly engaged in sectors traditionally perceived to be for women (Guloba *et al.*, 2017), which also matches their existing knowledge and skills.

Although the rates of entrepreneurial activity amongst females are almost equal to males in Uganda, female entrepreneurs are much more likely to have a lower accumulation of business skills when compared to male entrepreneurs (Balunywa *et al.*, 2012). As a result, female entrepreneurs move towards necessity-driven enterprises, such as agriculture, rather than exploring other labour market opportunities. For example, only 13.8% of working females are in paid employment, compared to 27.9% of working males (UBOS, 2010). Since the overall labour force participation rate of males and females in Uganda is high, with 92.2% for males and 91% for females respectively (Farris *et al.*, 2017; UBOS. 2013), a high level of self-employment is indicative of few paid employment opportunities.

Challenges facing rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda include low levels of education and training, which in turn has a significant impact on their entrepreneurial activities. Many rural female entrepreneurs lack both the business skills and self-efficacy, and therefore entrepreneurship training is critical for rural women starting their entrepreneurial journey. Anggadwita *et al.* (2017) highlighted that when women have

access to training and education, they create opportunities for themselves and their families. As a result, the lack of training opportunities and facilities affect the efficiency and innovation of rural female entrepreneurs (Meyer and Hamilton, 2020). In Uganda, an estimated 17% of the labour force does not have any formal education and 53% of the labour force has only primary education (UBOS, 2017). Therefore, intervention in the form of entrepreneurship training to support rural female entrepreneurs is critical (Rietveld *et al.*, 2020).

Consequently, when female entrepreneurs are trained, they make a significant contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) through the contribution of their businesses (Mordi *et al.*, 2010; Ademiluyi, 2019). It has been established that entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and motivational outcomes, which has the result of increased entrepreneurial activity (Martin *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, entrepreneurship training is considered to be a key instrument in enhancing entrepreneurial attitudes in potential and nascent entrepreneurs (Ahmad, 2013). In addition, Mani (2018) found that participants in entrepreneurship training programs accumulate benefits in the area of skill improvements, yet little research has been undertaken regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation within a Ugandan context.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The challenges facing female entrepreneurs regarding training have not changed much, as training skills for females in Uganda are lacking in general (Brixiová *et al.*, 2020). Lourenco *et al.* (2014) confirmed that many women lack formal education and training. They have very limited entrepreneurial and technical skills, and in addition have less start-up capital compared to their male counterparts. As a productive source of business, rural female entrepreneurs are both direct and indirect leaders in their

communities. They pursue a diverse range of value creation through different types of businesses in order to support economic growth. For example, over 86% of working females and 72% of working males are self-employed, and close to 80% of all self-employed work is in subsistence agriculture (Farris *et al.*, 2017; ILO, 2018). In Uganda, over half of the labour force has only completed primary education (53%, down from 59% in 2005/6) (UBOS, 2010). It is apparent that there is a need for this study to examine how entrepreneurship training makes a difference for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Also, it is critical to investigate how entrepreneurship training contributes to the entrepreneurial process, to provide these women with the ability to discover new opportunities and master venture creation. This in turn supports job creation for rural female entrepreneurs at an individual level, in their communities, and in the economy overall.

It is clear within the literature that rural female entrepreneurs require business knowledge to enable them to organise and coordinate resources, which in turn leads to better business opportunities and subsequent job creation for themselves and their families. Therefore, entrepreneurship training is considered to be a key instrument in enhancing entrepreneurial attitudes in both potential and nascent entrepreneurs.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTION

Despite the growing number of rural female entrepreneurs, there is little knowledge available regarding their business practices, accessibility of entrepreneurship training, growth strategies and career opportunities. Although there is a growing body of research exploring entrepreneurship training from a female perspective, very little research has been undertaken in the context of Uganda. Entrepreneurship training plays a vital role as a mechanism to emancipate rural female entrepreneurs in order for them to be independent, make decisions for their businesses, improve their business literacy

levels, income generation, and job creation. Many rural female entrepreneurs have not had any education or training and improve the livelihood of their families.

Therefore, this study will explore the principal research question of this thesis:

“How does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?”.

The study was further guided by three sub-questions:

1. How does entrepreneurship training affect knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
2. How is perceived emancipation influenced by knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs?
3. How does perceived emancipation impact entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

1.4 METHODOLOGY

In order to address the research questions, this study used a mixed methods research design (Sarantakos, 2013). Mixed methods research is defined by Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) as: *“Research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inference using both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study.”* The primary aim of the study was to explore how entrepreneurship training contributes to the perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This was achieved by analysing and triangulating the data, which are outlined as entrepreneurship training, knowledge, competence, and the 13 key criteria of emancipation. This will be explained in further detail in a following section.

The study was guided by a pragmatic philosophy which is open to multiple methods, along with different assumptions and methodological stances (quantitative and qualitative), as suggested by Bleiker *et al.* (2019). Creswell and Clark (2007) has also suggested that, “*the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provided a more complete picture by noting trends and generalization together with in-depth knowledge of participants’ perspectives.*” The study used triangulation to validate both the quantitative (survey) and qualitative (focus groups) data. Zikmund *et al.* (2012) observed that when the survey method is utilised, direct participation, either in the form of a questionnaire or interaction with the respondents, is necessary during the process.

Therefore, the study collected primary data in stages: (I) The pre-questionnaire was developed using in-depth interviews with seven interviewees (six women and one man). These were key stakeholders who guided and informed the development of the three phases of questionnaires; (II) The survey questionnaire which was completed by 298 participants, undertaken on three different occasions which were as follows: (I) Before entrepreneurship training was delivered; (II) Immediately after the entrepreneurship training was delivered: and (III) Four months after the entrepreneurship training had finished. Finally, (III) two focus groups (of 7 women per group) were conducted. The main aim of these focus groups was to obtain comprehensive and quality data which was difficult to capture during the survey. It was also to clarify any unanswered questions, as recommended by both Cooper and Schindler (2006) and Husain (2019).

A random effects regression model was used to estimate the impact that entrepreneurship training had on business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation of rural female entrepreneurs in the Kiryandongo district. Detailed information on the methodology is provided in Chapter Five of this thesis.

1.5 RATIONALE

Research has shown that rural women engage in entrepreneurial activities to generate income in order to support themselves and their families, to overcome poverty, to create jobs and to enhance their societal and economic advancement (Bruton *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, it has been increasingly recognised that the role of entrepreneurship training is critical in sustaining economic prosperity and supporting the creation of new business opportunities in Uganda (Bischoff *et al.*, 2020). Therefore, there are factors which support the rationale for this study and they are divided into three parts: (I) Needs driven (insufficient entrepreneurship training knowledge and skills for rural female entrepreneurs and their emancipation in Uganda); (II) The academic and professional experience of the researcher; and (III) Evidence from the literature.

Needs driven

Business knowledge and competencies are important tools in strengthening a business's competitive advantage (Meyer and Hamilton, 2020). There is a need to further explore the low levels of entrepreneurship training opportunities and perceived emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneur in Uganda, which is the reasoning behind this study. McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) suggested that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training seems to be limited. This may be due to the fact that entrepreneurial success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action, but constant training and development of new ideas and opportunities. For example, if the entrepreneur has a lack of knowledge in writing, keeping business records and estimating costs and profit affects their operations, this will impact the businesses overall success. Therefore, this phenomenon is not unique for many of the rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Some research has suggested that entrepreneurs who have accumulated entrepreneurship training have a higher commitment to stay in and grow their businesses, as they show a greater level of self-efficacy, skill sets, and confidence (Moodley, 2017).

Entrepreneurship training works as a mechanism which equips individuals with skills and knowledge regarding negotiations, leadership, new product development, creative thinking and innovation for new ideas. Thus, women participating in such programmes can capitalise on the acquired knowledge and skills to initiate new business opportunities.

There is a higher percentage of women in informal employment in Uganda. The reason for this is a higher proportion of women contribute to agriculture, a sector which accounts for approximately one-third of overall informal employment in Uganda (ILO, 2018). In Uganda most of the population live in rural communities and are employed in agriculture, which remains to this day, a major sector of employment. Its share has increased from 66% to 73% in 2005/6 (UBOS, 2010). As a result, females move towards necessity-driven enterprises, such as agriculture, rather than exploring other labour market opportunities. Female enterprises are mainly small and informal businesses (Nagler and Naude, 2014), with nearly 95% of rural enterprises employing less than five workers (Ijatuyi, 2020).

Furthermore, informal entrepreneurial activities are an emancipatory factor which play an important role in influencing rural female entrepreneurial behaviour and decision-making, (Alvarez and Barney, 2014; Nakara *et al.*, 2019). Rural female entrepreneurs are motivated to start their own businesses in order to be independent, which is an important factor in emancipation (being their own bosses). They also want to achieve job satisfaction, have economic independence, have opportunities to be more creative and to gain the freedom to start their own businesses (Zin *et al.*, 2020). Overall, the examination of perceived emancipation in this study occurs at an individual level since it involves women seeking to improve their knowledge and skillsets in order to effectively manage a business, as well as growing through personal development.

The academic and professional experience of the Researcher

The 20 years' experience that the researcher has in the educational sector in both Ireland and Uganda exposed the needs for the education of women, along with the insufficient entrepreneurship training and the lack of business start-up resources for many women in Uganda. On completion of her BA in Business, the researcher went on to complete an M.Sc. in Management Consultancy at University College Dublin (UCD), Michael Smurfit Business School, where she produced a thesis titled: "*A study of female entrepreneurs in Ireland, "their experiences and challenges in entrepreneurship."*" In addition, she worked with Microfinance Ireland, responsible for both training and mentoring, along with the role of financial officer for migrant female entrepreneurs. She then moved into an academic role first that at UCD and then the College of Business at Technological University Dublin.

Evidence from Literature

Literature has demonstrated that there are few women leaders or role models to support rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda (Monteith and Camfield, 2019). This is due to cultural issues that have historically excluded women from leadership roles and business positions. Women have traditionally been confined to work in the home environment. Culture has a pervasive impact on social and economic life for women. For example, the allocation of resources, decision-making, power, status, and opportunities are more often awarded to men. This is due to cultural norms, attitudes and beliefs in parts of Uganda regarding a woman's role. Cultural factors inhibit Ugandan women from realising their potential in business. For example, a married woman usually seeks permission from her husband to conduct business and particularly in rural communities, where women frequently turn over their income from their businesses to their husbands (Doss *et al.*, 2014). Rural women are often marginalised and improving their lives implies a significant impact on their families (Singh and Belwal, 2008; Araar *et al.*, 2019). For

example, in the case of SMEs, there are emancipatory factors which play an important role influencing entrepreneurial behaviour and decision-making, such as age, gender, education and training, family background (including number of children), and ethnicity (Hisrich *et al.*, 1997; Nakara *et al.*, 2019). Female entrepreneurs are motivated to start their own businesses in order to be independent, which is an important factor in emancipation (being their own boss), in achieving job satisfaction, for economic independence, for an opportunity to be more creative, along with the freedom to start their own businesses and support their families (Zin *et al.*, 2020).

1.6 CONTEXTUAL INFORMATION

Uganda is a landlocked country on the continent of Africa. It shares its borders to the East with Kenya, the North with Sudan, the West with the Democratic Republic of Congo, the Southwest with Rwanda, and the South with Tanzania. Uganda has an area of 241,000 sq. km, of which approximately 44,000 sq. km consists of inland water, and it lies at the equator. According to UBOS (2019), Uganda had a population of approximately 45 million people in 2019 and its economy is predominantly agricultural. The Kiryandongo district is the area in which the field study took place and it is located in the North-Western region of Uganda.

The Kiryandongo borders with the Nwoya district in the North, the Oyam in the Northeast, the Apac in the East, the Masindi in the South and the Buliisa in the Southwest. The district has a total land area of 3,624.1 km², of which 1,747 km² is arable land. UBOS (2014) recorded the population of the Kiryandongo region at 266,197, of which 133,701 (50.3%) are male and 132,496 (49.7%) are female. The Kiryandongo district has a refugee population of over 64,000 people (Atari and McKague, 2019). The Kiryandongo belong to diverse ethnic backgrounds such as: The Acholi, the Masaaba, Kenyan Lous, the Congolese, South Sudanese, Dinkas, Kuku, Nuer, Kalwa, Madi and Siluk (UAI, 2019). The majority of the population are engaged in farming with the main crops grown being:

Cassava, maize, sweet potatoes, beans, rice, sunflower, chia, and tobacco. Other major business activities include livestock rearing and fishing. Further contextual information is provided in Chapter Four.

1.7 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

The researcher sought to address the gaps in literature and contribute to new knowledge while examining the following aspects of research contribution:

- (1) *Conceptual framework:* This study enabled the researcher to develop a conceptual framework to address the highlighted gap and linkages between entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and the impact of entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. A new conceptual framework was developed which will contribute to new knowledge to this area of research. The conceptual framework highlighted the gap in the literature, while examining the 13 key criteria of perceived emancipation. These criteria were measured as a dependent variable to expand the existing knowledge on female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Therefore, the literature review and primary data provided evidence for the impact of the conceptual framework which linked demographic factors, psychological factors, entrepreneurship training, emancipation, opportunities and the outcome of the entrepreneurial activities as it is shown in the conceptual framework in Chapter Seven.
- (2) *Dearth of entrepreneurship training knowledge amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda:* Entrepreneurship training has been shown to improve emancipation of individuals (Biesta, 2010), as trained individuals gain knowledge and skills which improve their wellbeing (Singh, 2017). Yet research exploring the link between entrepreneurship training and emancipation remains limited. This study explored how perceived emancipation can be enhanced through entrepreneurship training amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. There is a lack of research surrounding the contribution that women are making in rural communities through their entrepreneurial

activities and their share of household income (Rijkers and Costa, 2012). This lack of knowledge with regards to rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda may be a contributing factor to the limited success of rural development policies in Uganda; this and the fact that rural women entrepreneurs do not feature in many poverty alleviation or entrepreneurship promotion strategies (Fox and Sohnesen, 2016). Therefore, this study contributed to the impact that entrepreneurship training has in emancipating rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda which may reduce the poverty levels and unemployment that is experienced by many rural women in Uganda (Gavigan, Ciprikis and Cooney, 2020).

(3) *The gender lens*: The gender lens is the imbalances and social practices which discriminates against women in the allocation of resources (Plouffe *et al.*, 2020). This in turn prevents women from realising their full economic potential. Gender issues have been addressed extensively in developed economies, while in developing countries such as Uganda, they are still lacking (Liani *et al.*, 2020). It is difficult to highlight these issues in Uganda and rural female entrepreneurs continue to struggle with regard to start-ups and growing their entrepreneurial activities. The gender gap is even higher for rural female entrepreneurs in the agri-business sector of Uganda (Mugisha *et al.*, 2019).

Poverty in Uganda is predominantly a female issue as many households are headed by women (widows) who are vulnerable to impoverishment (Ellis *et al.*, 2006). It is further argued that rural women are marginalised and improving their lives would have a significant impact on their families (Singh and Belwal, 2008; Araar *et al.*, 2019). There is in-depth literature which has addressed both men and women in entrepreneurship, but few studies have used the “gender lens.” Therefore, differences in training for females and males is an area requiring government intervention. These differences result from an imbalance in the distribution of resources and skills, so the need for governmental intervention through entrepreneurial policies is critical.

(4) *Contribution to the context:* Not much is known about rural female entrepreneurial activities or how they run their businesses in Uganda. The study aimed to contribute to the understanding of entrepreneurial processes, activities, and experiences of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This contribution will add knowledge to the field of rural entrepreneurship and inform policymakers and other stakeholders. Knowledge regarding nascent rural female entrepreneurs is limited in African countries and therefore, this study may contribute to the improvement of existing policies about nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda and beyond.

The results highlighted that the training programme had a significantly positive effect on business knowledge and perceived emancipation, for the female entrepreneurs who participated. They found it extremely beneficial for their business development, income generation and job creation.

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study is organised into seven Chapters. Chapter One is the introduction of the thesis as a whole. Chapter Two explores the literature surrounding Entrepreneurship Training for females in Uganda. This chapter seeks to discuss the low levels of education and lack of entrepreneurship training opportunities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneur in Uganda. Martin *et al.*, (2013) suggested that entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes, which in turn results in increased entrepreneurial activity. However, a theoretical understanding of how and why entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies is still limited. Entrepreneurship training is important for any entrepreneur in acquiring and improving their knowledge in order to perform better. Therefore, Chapter Two discusses the definitions of entrepreneurship, education and training. The chapter also discusses the evolution of entrepreneurial theory, the nascent entrepreneurial process, entrepreneurship education versus training, and opportunity recognition and exploitation.

The chapter concludes with entrepreneurship in Africa, female entrepreneurs and training for females.

Chapter Three examines the literature on perceived emancipation. It further explores how perceived emancipation enables rural female entrepreneurs to make their own choices, increase opportunities for education and be empowered in their own personal growth. The chapter will critically examine the perspectives of emancipation for women (particularly in Uganda) by defining empowerment and emancipation, understanding of emancipation and the practice of emancipation for women. The literature continues by discussing emancipation and education, emancipation and gender in the labour markets, followed with the relevance of emancipation to entrepreneurship and discussing the key criteria of emancipation.

Chapter Four explores the contribution of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. It examines the definition of terms such as nascent entrepreneurs and rural entrepreneurship. The chapter continues by discussing concepts of entrepreneurship which included policies guiding rural entrepreneurs. Policies in this study are viewed as lagging and need to be at the forefront of the process in the support of rural female entrepreneurs. The barriers affecting rural female entrepreneurs are also discussed in detail in the chapter. The chapter further discusses gender and entrepreneurship, while investigating rural entrepreneurship in a Ugandan context in general. The background and the context of the study is highlighted in this chapter, particularly for those who are not familiar with Uganda and with the Kiryandongo district, in order to make some sense of the story and provide context. The chapter concludes with a proposed conceptual framework that links Chapter Two (entrepreneur training), Chapter Three (perceived emancipation) and Chapter Four (context) with an overall conclusion of the chapter.

Chapter Five discusses the methodology utilised in the study. The theoretical assumptions which underpin research as suggested by Saunders *et al.*, (2016) are

explored, with the structured research resembling the layers of an onion (more details in Figure 5.1). The chapter discusses the research philosophy, approaches, the methodology choice, the strategies, time horizon, techniques and instruments used to measure different variables. The chapter concludes with by exploring the role of the researcher and limitations to the methodology.

Chapter Six presents the results and discussion of the study. The main results of the study came from surveys and focus groups. In this chapter, results are compared, integrated and interpreted to overcome weaknesses, while the strengths of each approach were utilised. This provided rigour and validity in relation to the study. The main areas of Chapter Six are: The pre-questionnaire results, the demographic profile and the survey results analysis and triangulation. Further results are presented regarding entrepreneurial activities and other findings such as psychological factors, government action, and the use of mobile technology by rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The final part of the chapter discusses the results associated with the focus groups and the overall research question, along with the three sub-questions and conclusion.

Chapter Seven reviews the conceptual framework, which is a contribution to knowledge in itself, while also presenting other contributions such as the gender lens and knowledge for policies. The chapter further explains the benefits the study to the participants, the limitations of the study, future research opportunities and finally the conclusion. This chapter explained the background by introducing the research problem and question. The overview of the methodology used was briefly discussed and the rationale for the study have been elaborated. A brief explanation with regard to contextual information, the contribution to knowledge and the structure of the study was given. Therefore, it is now time to continue to Chapter Two of the study.

**CHAPTER TWO: ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING
FOR FEMALES IN UGANDA**

2.1. INTRODUCTION

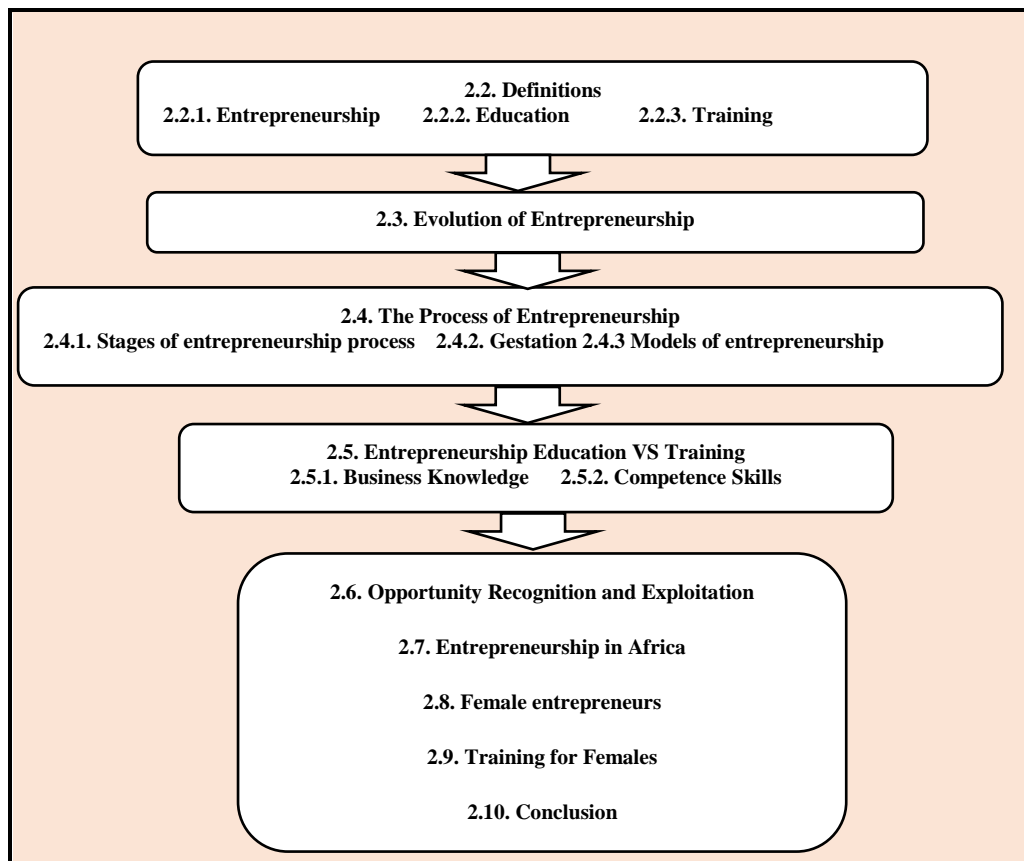
In recent years, the role and importance of entrepreneurship and new business creation for economies has received increased attention. Indeed, it is widely recognised that the promotion of entrepreneurship is critical in sustaining prosperity and creating new jobs around the globe (Galvão *et al.*, 2020). It is argued that entrepreneurship plays a leading role in economic development worldwide Martínez-Fierro *et al.* (2020). While the numbers of female entrepreneurs are increasing year-on-year, they still lack appropriate entrepreneurship training and access to resources to efficiently run a business. Relatively little is known regarding the impact of entrepreneurship training on the entrepreneurial activities of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda (Gavigan *et al.*, 2020).

This chapter seeks to discuss the low levels of education and lack of entrepreneurship training opportunities for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) along with Quinn and Woodruff (2019) argued that business training is generally important for any entrepreneur in acquiring and improving their knowledge and performance. However, its impact is likely to differ depending on who receives the entrepreneurship training and what the training offers. Furthermore, entrepreneurship training serves as a mechanism for changing the behaviour and attitudes of individual female entrepreneurs. Offering appropriate entrepreneurship training to female entrepreneurs in rural areas may improve their lives (Gavigan *et al.*, 2020), yet there is little research available on entrepreneurship training related to Uganda.

Research on entrepreneurship has flourished in recent years and is evolving rapidly. It is recognised that entrepreneurial activity is one of the primary drivers of economic and societal growth and development (Carlsson *et al.*, 2013; Aparicio *et al.*, 2020). Although research in entrepreneurship has expanded in modern times, it remains primarily focused on developed economies (Sutter *et al.*, 2019), with relatively few studies on the topic within the context of Uganda. Much of the research which does exist

is focused on describing the attributes of entrepreneurship in Uganda, rather than providing a framework through which entrepreneurs and policymakers can work together to design and implement appropriate entrepreneurship training programmes (Agbenyegah, 2019).

Figure 2.1: Discussion Outline of Chapter 2



Source: Author

Rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda are frequently unrecognised, and they still lag behind male entrepreneurs. Rural female entrepreneurs play a key role in Uganda and they are critical contributors to entrepreneurial activities for themselves, their families and the economy. Therefore, this study offers a contribution to existing knowledge about entrepreneurship training. The main reason is many rural female entrepreneurs who have no education aim to acquire skills which may support them in starting their entrepreneurial activities.

Entrepreneurship is typically seen as the solution to a range of challenges, and entrepreneurs are perceived as the drivers of economic and social transformation in Uganda. Therefore, this chapter provide a perspective into the nature of Uganda's rural women, paying close attention to nascent rural female entrepreneurs. The debate surrounding support policies for rural female entrepreneurs as a poverty alleviation strategy and a preferred tactic to spur economic growth in Uganda is also a focus. The chapter will begin by defining the three main concepts: Entrepreneurship, education and training. In the second part of the chapter, the evolution of entrepreneurship and the processes are explained. It is vital to discuss the differences which exist between entrepreneurship education, training and their benefits. The chapter then discusses opportunity recognition and exploitation for a business. It then discusses entrepreneurship in Uganda as it is important to understand the Ugandan context. Female entrepreneurs will also be discussed, their entrepreneurship training skills and then there will be a conclusion.

2.2. DEFINITION

This section sets out to discuss the definitions of key terms for this chapter and their theories. Defining these terms is essential in ensuring a common understanding for the reader and to provide clarity in order to avoid possible misunderstanding for the key terms of the study. In general, important terms are only needed to be defined when the terms are not known or understood or when the term has specific meaning in the context of the study. Therefore, it is essential that the reader understands it clearly and without ambiguity.

2.2.1. Entrepreneurship

There has been a long debate surrounding the definition of entrepreneurship. In the early 16th century, entrepreneurship was used to refer to an act of engaging in military

activity and extended to cover construction and civil engineering activities in the 17th century (Wilson and Martin, 2015). Defining entrepreneurship is important, as many terms associated with the discipline, such as “entrepreneur”, “enterprise” and “small business”, are often used interchangeably. Landström (2020) and Venkataraman (2019) argued that entrepreneurship is the creation of a new enterprise; Bygrave (1989b) referred to it as a, *”process of becoming, rather than a state of being”*. Ratten (2020) argued that while entrepreneurship is concerned with the process of change, emergence and creation of new value, it is also a process of change and creation for the entrepreneur. Regarding the term “entrepreneurship” itself, most researchers have focused on process and context, however, the present study adopts Shane and Venkataraman’s definition of entrepreneurship:

“As an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organising, markets, processes and raw materials through organising efforts that had not existed previously.” (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000).

This definition incorporates the domain and why entrepreneurial opportunities exist, the form that they may take, the process of opportunities and the resources which are needed to exploit the discovery of enterprise.

In the 18th century, the concept was broadened to include economic activities. The chronology detailed in the table below reveals that it was not until Joseph Schumpeter’s definition of an entrepreneur in 1934 that more modern interpretations entered the mainstream research such as these shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: A Review of Extant Definitions of Entrepreneurs

The Essence of Definitions	Publication
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurs buy at certain prices in the present and sell at uncertain prices in the future. The entrepreneur is a bearer of uncertainty. 	(Cantillon, 1755/1931)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurs are “projectors.” 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurs attempt to predict and act upon change within markets. The entrepreneur bears the uncertainty of market dynamics. 	(Defoe, 1887/2001)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An entrepreneur is a person who maintains immunity from control of rational bureaucratic knowledge. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An entrepreneur is an innovator who implements change within markets through the carrying out of new combinations of strategy. These can take several forms: 	(Knight, 1921/1942)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The introduction of a new goods or levels of quality. 	(Weber Max, 1947)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The introduction of a new methods of production. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The opening of a new market. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The conquest of a new source of supply of materials or parts. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The creation of a new organisation in an industry. 	(Schumpeter, 1934)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The entrepreneur is a co-ordinator and arbitrageur. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurial activity involves identifying opportunities within the economic system. 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The entrepreneur recognises and acts upon opportunities for profit, essentially acting as an arbitrageur. 	(Walras, 1954)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurship is the act of innovation in new entry. New entry can be accomplished by entering new or established markets with new or existing goods or services. 	(Penrose, 1959/1980)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The field of entrepreneurship involves the study of sources of opportunities; the processes of discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities, in addition to the set of individuals who discover, evaluate and exploit them. 	(Kirzner, 1973)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurship is a context-dependent social process through which individuals and teams create wealth by bringing unique packages of resources to exploit marketplace opportunities. 	(Drucker P, 1985)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurship is the mindset and process used to create and develop economic activity by blending risk-taking, creativity or innovation with sound management within a new or an existing organisation. 	(Shane & Venkataraman, 2000)

Source: Nadim & Seymour (2008).

As shown in Table 2.1, the first formal definition was provided by Cantillon (1755). It was stated by Cantillon that an entrepreneur is an adventurer who invests in the purchase

of goods and materials with the incentive of selling the goods in the future. But later other scholars such as Defoe, Schumpeter and Say redefined the concept of entrepreneurship in relation to different theories.

While research has attempted to explain who an entrepreneur is, Maula and Stam (2019) noted that the lack of basic agreement concerning who is an entrepreneur makes the work of defining entrepreneurship an almost impossible task. Costin *et al.* (2019) observed that, “*the literature and practice illustrated much confusion between the terms entrepreneurship, enterprise and small business*”. Gibb (1993) highlighted that the term “entrepreneurship” was commonly used in Canada and the USA, and not Europe. Therefore, Venkataraman (1997) suggested that some individuals in society exploit opportunities while others do not exploit the many existing opportunities. This research will further discuss Shane’s proposed framework of the nascent entrepreneurial process (Shane *et al.*, 2003). The framework will be explained from a perspective involving the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities, the decision to exploit them, and the resources necessary to organise them into new innovations.

2.2.2. Entrepreneurship Education

Scholars such as Hynes (1966) and Fayolle *et al.* (2019) suggested that entrepreneurship education is the process or series of activities which aims to enable an individual to assimilate and develop knowledge, skills, values and understanding. These are not simply related to a narrow field of activity, but which allow a broad range of problems to be defined, analysed and solved. Thus, this research offers an exposition of entrepreneurial education, as it is known, as a crucial tool in the development of the competences needed for new business creation around the globe. Entrepreneurial education is not a single event, but rather a continuous process of training, and even from a young age, entrepreneurial education should be taught. Rae *et al.* (2010) confirmed that education is vital in creating an understanding of entrepreneurship, developing

entrepreneurial capabilities, and contributing to entrepreneurial identities and cultures, at the individual, collective and social levels of society.

In addition, Allais *et al.* (2019) argued that education is related to knowledge, skills, problem-solving ability, discipline, motivation, independence and self-confidence, to mention but a few elements. Between researchers, there seems to be an agreement that attaining a high level of education positively influences the probability of becoming involved in the business start-up process (Delmar and Davidsson, 2000; Watson and McGowan, 2019). Adesola *et al.* (2019) proposed that entrepreneurship education should be designed so that potential entrepreneurs are aware of the barriers which exist in relation to initiating their entrepreneurial careers, and ways to overcome them should be devised.

Ronstadt (1985) proposed a two-continuum model of curricular design for entrepreneurship education. The methods to be used are lectures, case studies and feasibility plans. The second continuum is “*entrepreneurial know-how/entrepreneurial know who.*” Solomon *et al.* (2002) and Gough (2019), conducted one of the most comprehensive empirical analyses of entrepreneurship education. In their review of entrepreneurship pedagogy, they stated that:

“A core objective of entrepreneurship education is that it differentiates from typical business education. Business entry is fundamentally a different activity than managing a business (Vesper and Gartner, 1997) entrepreneurship education must address the equivocal nature of business entry. Gartner argued that entrepreneurship education must include skill-building courses in negotiation, leadership, new product development, creative thinking and exposure to technological innovation.” (McMullan and Long, 1987).

Thus, different skills, abilities and knowledge may be required to fulfil these different aims of entrepreneurship education programmes. It is argued that the success of many of these traditional types of entrepreneurship education or training remains questionable (De Faoite *et al.*, 2003; Ndofirepi, 2020). However, to understand entrepreneurial education, it is important to examine the factors which

are similar or different to both (entrepreneurship education and training). Both of these activities are concerned with learning and contribute to the progress of the individual or the organisation as it will be discussed later.

2.2.3. Entrepreneurship Training

Entrepreneurship training is defined as planned and systematic efforts to modify or develop the participant's knowledge and skills. This is achieved through learning experiences and performance through a range of activities. Entrepreneurship training can equip women with the knowledge and skills necessary in starting a business (Katz, 2014; Zaring *et al.*, 2019), as training is a practical means to promote entrepreneurship. Furthermore, Martin *et al.* (2013) suggested that entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes, which in turn promotes increased entrepreneurial activity. However, a theoretical understanding of how and why entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies, is still limited (Gielnik *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, as entrepreneurship training is critical for rural female entrepreneurs, there is a growing need for research examining the ways in which training makes a difference for female entrepreneurs (Martinez *et al.*, 2010). In addition, McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) argued that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action, but constant training and development of new ideas and opportunities.

It is critical that training is undertaken throughout the entrepreneurial process (Funken *et al.*, 2020). Balan and Metcalfe (2012) argued that entrepreneurship training is not only about the transfer of knowledge, but also the ability to discover new opportunities, and master venture creation processes, in order to create value at an individual level. Entrepreneurship training is described as a trainer partnered with

individuals to provide them with the essential skills to succeed in entrepreneurial activity (Nwokolo *et al.*, 2017). However, this research adopted the definition of entrepreneurship training suggested by Katz (2014):

“That entrepreneurship training is a structured program which aims to equip participants with the necessary skillset and mindset for identifying and launching new business ventures.”

This definition highlighted the aim of entrepreneurship training as the potential to develop specific knowledge and skills relating to entrepreneurship as confirmed by Sinkovec (2013). In addition, entrepreneurship training has an impact on job creation opportunities (Maina, 2014; Akhmetshin *et al.*, 2019).

Some research has suggested that entrepreneurs who have accumulated entrepreneurship training, have a higher commitment to their businesses as they show a greater level of self-efficacy, skills and confidence (Moodley, 2017). Scholars see entrepreneurship training as an enabler which will prepare entrepreneurs for innovation, risk-taking and new venture opportunities (Gangi, 2017). All these skills enable rural women to turn challenges into opportunities, and thus utilise opportunities to start new ventures.

Kuratko (2003) and Marvel *et al.*, (2020) suggested that entrepreneurship training works as a mechanism which equips individuals with the skills and knowledge required for negotiations, leadership, new product development, creative thinking and innovation. Thus, women participating in such programmes capitalise on the knowledge and skills acquired, allowing them to initiate new business opportunities. Furthermore, entrepreneurship training has the possibility of enriching the mindset of women and inspiring them to turn the results from their knowledge into a real business (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020). From this kind of training, there is a possibility that the women trained may identify opportunities, prepare a business plan and understand their customer needs.

Additionally, Ibrahim and Bakar (2015) have argued that entrepreneurship training is the nurturing of an entrepreneurial mindset. This mindset provides the attitude and skills which allows a woman to take charge of her own economic situation, and identify income-generating opportunities. Meanwhile other studies have confirmed that participants on entrepreneurship training programs can accumulate many benefits in terms of skills improvements and knowledge Olugbola (2017).

2.3. THE EVOLUTION OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP THEORY

Research on entrepreneurship has flourished in recent years and is evolving rapidly. It is recognised that entrepreneurial activity is one of the primary drivers of economic and societal growth and development (Carlsson *et al.*, 2013). As a result, the field of entrepreneurship research has split into many sub-fields within several disciplines. These are mainly economics, business administration, management, sociology, psychology, cultural anthropology, finance and marketing (Carlsson *et al.*, 2013). Despite its relatively recent acceptance as an academic field, there is a long tradition of entrepreneurial research (Landstrom, 2020).

The historical foundation of the term “entrepreneurship” indicates that it has been used in the French language since the 12th century. This is in spite of the feudal system which dominated in Europe in the Middle Ages, however it did hamper the development of entrepreneurship and innovation (Murphy *et al.*, 2006). It was the Irish-born banker Richard Cantillon (1680-1734) who gave the concept of entrepreneurship its economic meaning, and gave the entrepreneur their role in economic development (Carlsson *et al.*, 2013). Cantillon defined discrepancies between supply and demand as an opportunity to buy cheaply and sell at a higher price. He referred to persons who were alert to such opportunities as “entrepreneurs” (Murphy *et al.*, 2006). Cantillon is viewed as the father

of entrepreneurship, and his work is thought to have influenced a long line of economists, such as Adam Smith, Jean-Baptiste Say and Joseph Schumpeter (Thomas, 2019).

The evolution of entrepreneurship can be categorised into three main periods: The prehistoric basis, the economic basis and the multidisciplinary basis (Thomas, 2019). The economic perspective continued to evolve with a focus on the entrepreneur's contribution to the market system. It presented the entrepreneur as one who has access to knowledge which enables them to successfully operate within the market system (Lafuente *et al.*, 2019). It was not until the mid-20th century that the descriptions of entrepreneurship expanded beyond the economic basis, to include human and environmental factors, which in turn led to the multidisciplinary movement (Murphy *et al.*, 2006). The multidisciplinary movement incorporated the environmental-factor-based approach (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), and individual-characteristic based approaches (Wu and Li, 2011).

Some academics have strongly criticised researchers who sought to categorise entrepreneurs by their personality traits and have suggested that it is their behaviour and actions that have differentiated them (Foss, 2019; Venkataraman, 2019). Rault and Mathew *et al.*, (2019) remarked that entrepreneurship researchers tend to get caught up in debates between “behaviour” and “traits” rather than asking why? The multidisciplinary movement also illustrated that entrepreneurship is present at all levels of the economy (entrepreneur, firm, industry, system), as well as all levels to which the individual and environmental factors contribute. While entrepreneurship has evolved to withstand emerging environments and structures, the basic premise of enterprising behaviour has remained. Enterprising behaviour transcends not only the firm, industry and economy, but also research. The multidisciplinary movement led to the development of multiple perspectives of entrepreneurship, including the management perspective,

which suggests that entrepreneurship is a process which can be cultivated and managed (Drucker, 1985; Emmett, 2020).

Gartner (1988) proposed that “who is an entrepreneur?” is the wrong question to ask. Rather, entrepreneurship is about creating new ventures. This viewpoint changed the focus from characteristic-based studies to a more process-oriented view of what entrepreneurs do. Perhaps the largest obstacle in creating a conceptual framework for the entrepreneurship field has been its definition. To date, most researchers have defined the field solely regarding who the entrepreneur is and what he or she does (Venkataraman, 1997). By defining the field in relation to the individual alone, entrepreneurship researcher has generated incomplete definitions which do not withstand the scrutiny of other scholars (Gartner and Teague, 2020).

As suggested by Singh (2019), there are some qualities which an individual requires for decision-making. These include self-knowledge, problem-solving, competence skills and other communication skills in the execution of business ventures. Therefore, to accelerate economic development in the economy, it is necessary to increase the supply of entrepreneurs. The economy can be developed by building on the number of nascent entrepreneurs who are risk takers in uncertainties, who exploit opportunities and create new businesses. Another important element to improve the nascent entrepreneur process is having an entrepreneurship enabling environment. This depends on government policies in order to promote entrepreneurship. Therefore, this chapter will look at the nascent entrepreneur process and the key areas which are being investigated. The following section is concerned with the emergence of new ventures and studying what entrepreneurs do during the pre-venture process.

2.4. THE NASCENT ENTREPRENEURIAL PROCESS

Given the growing interest in nascent entrepreneurship, research indicates that it is a global phenomenon which is a source of insights into social, political, and economic factors. The current literature on nascent entrepreneurship is evolving towards a consensus. This consensus defines the boundaries, limitations and core attributes of entrepreneurship (Davidsson *et al.*, 2011).

“This study is consistent with the adoption of a definition of the nascent entrepreneur described as an individual who is actively taking steps in the creation of a new venture but who is not an entrepreneur yet.” (Landström, 2020).

These individuals expect proprietorship or partial ownership by proactively seeking funding and resources. Scholars offer several characteristics for the concept of nascent entrepreneurship, such as “new venture emergence,” “pre-operational stage,” “business creation process,” “pre-venture activities,” “start-up activities,” “firm founding process,” “spinoff process,” “spinout process,” and “organisational emergence,” (Davidsson *et al.*, 2011).

The entrepreneurial journey follows from inception and captures events as they happen (Nzembayie *et al.*, 2019). Although most research has focused on the importance of entrepreneurs for economies and nations, a number of studies have focused on the nascent entrepreneurial process as discussed in this chapter. Key areas which are being investigated are concerned with the emergence of new ventures and what entrepreneurs do during the pre-venture process (Gartner *et al.*, 1989). However, despite the importance of nascent entrepreneurship, research has shown three examples of shortcomings which currently characterise this field. Firstly, Davidsson (2004) and Markowska *et al.* (2019) have urged that there is no systematic theoretical review on nascent entrepreneurship. Previous literature in this field has focused on addressing methodological challenges (Davidsson and Gordon, 2012). Other reviews (for example, Van Praag and Versloot, 2007) focused on related topics

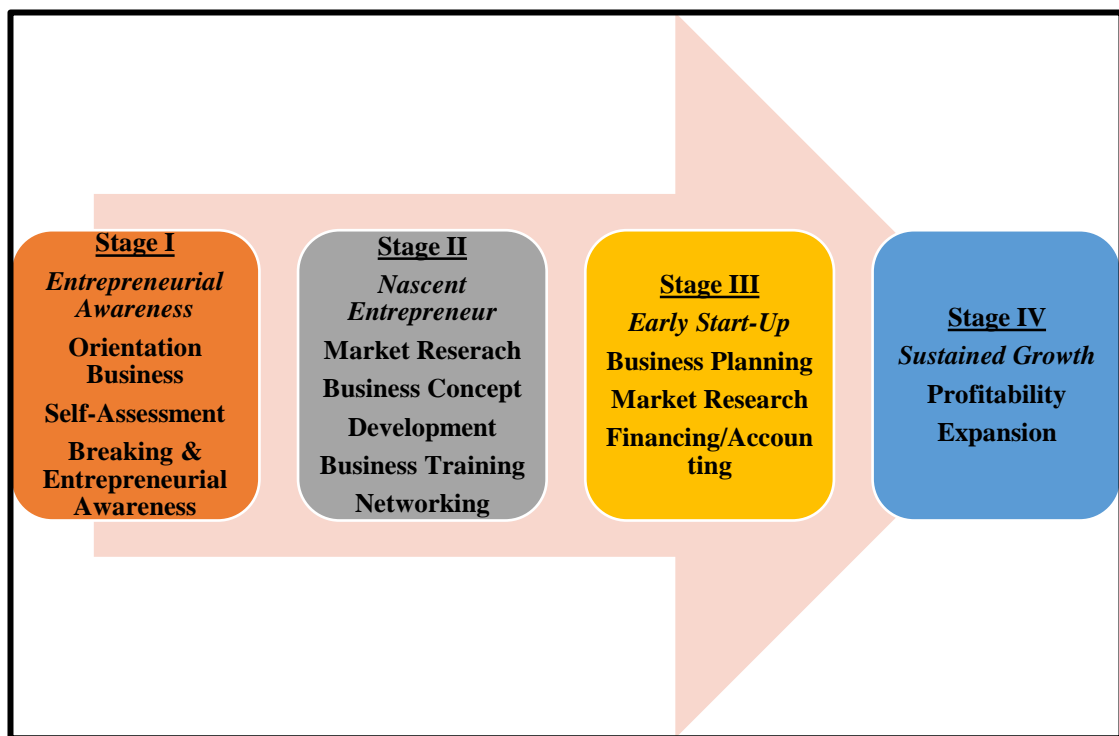
such as entrepreneurship's contribution to economic development. None of this research focused on nascent entrepreneurs and the process prior to venture creation.

Secondly, other nascent entrepreneurship researchers have separately investigated three stages of nascent entrepreneurship: Antecedents (what triggers and motivates an individual to start a business, which will be discussed in the third chapter concerning emancipation), activities (the activities that an individual undertakes to move towards venture creation), and outcome (venture engagement or disengagement). Discussing the major theoretical vantage points from which the nascent entrepreneurial process is examined will highlight the research gaps and explicitly demonstrate the contribution of this study.

2.4.1. Stages of Entrepreneurial Process

The dynamic nascent entrepreneurial process can be divided into two major phases: (I) the pre-venture latent phase; and (II) The actual venture phase following its launch. Within the pre-venture phase, a distinction exists between those individuals who would like to become self-employed within the next three years (aspiring entrepreneurs), and those who have actually taken some action towards becoming self-employed (nascent entrepreneurs) (Reynolds *et al.*, 2004; Davidsson, 2015). However, Reynolds *et al.* (2004), Lichtenstein *et al.* (2007), and Honig and Hopp (2019), have suggested that there are four main outcomes from the nascent entrepreneurial process: (I) The creation of an infant firm; (II) A situation where the nascent entrepreneur can be still trying to start the venture; (III) One where the start-up efforts can be put on hold, with the expectation of continuing the process later; and (IV) One where the nascent entrepreneur can give up and abandon the start-up business completely. When a nascent entrepreneur becomes successful at exploiting his/her nascent activities, the second transition, which is the venture start-up, occurs.

Figure 2.2: Nascent Entrepreneurship Stages



Source: Burton (2009).

In Figure 2.2, Burton (2009) developed the stages of entrepreneurship to clarify the specific types of events that occur when founding a firm. These have been historically correlated with aspects of organisational emergence, such as developing a business idea, writing a business plan, training to acquire skills, market research, acquiring resources, selling, etc. (Gartner and Carter, 2003).

These start-up events, or organisation activities, support the foundation of a new firm. However, previous research has been unable to agree on which specific activities are most likely to support the business start-up (Newbert, 2005; Yang *et al.*, 2020) and which sequences lead to organisational emergence (see Davidsson, 2006). Katz (2019) suggested that during the initial stages of a venture's existence, the new business establishes itself in the marketplace. At the same time the organisational structure is put together, team strategies are formed and services or products are placed on sale. Other scholars have sought to solve these disagreements by controlling the industry sector (Kim,

2006), start-up type (Honig and Samuelsson, 2020) or entrepreneurial experience (Vaillant and Lafuente, 2019).

In the search for the continuation of new enterprises, the pre-venture phase has become a key research area in entrepreneurship research (Gartner, 1989; Landström, 2020). As this research continues, a question to ask is when does a new firm emerge? A variety of perspectives have been used to distinguish the point at which a nascent venture shifts from gestation or start-up to being operational (Delanoë-Gueguen and Fayolle, 2019).

2.4.2. Gestation

While some studies have grouped the gestation by their type (such as developing a business idea, planning, financing, networking and interaction with other external environments) Lichtenstein *et al.* (2007) divided them into organisational behaviours and indicators of start-up activities. Entrepreneurs combine resources with the goal of creating something new (Jones *et al.*, 2018) and capital investments and learning experiences (Balabuch *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the greater the internal drive to start a business, the more energy the nascent entrepreneur will put into starting a firm.

Much of what has been discussed regarding the current state of understanding and knowledge for the process of creating a new venture, has been informed by the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamic (PSED). The contribution of authors such as, Reynolds *et al.* (2004) and Guerrero *et al.* (2020) adds to contemporary knowledge and the theoretical development of the process for business emergence. Table 2.2 below clarifies the gestation entrepreneurial process.

Table 2.2: Gestation Activities During the Nascent Entrepreneurial Process

Reynolds and Miller, 1992	Gatewood et al., 1995	Carter et al., 1996	PSED: Reynolds, 2000
Organising behaviours Personal commitments		Devoted 35+ h/week on business	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Devoted 35+ h/week on business. • Arranged childcare.
Financial support	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saved money to invest. • Asked for funding. • Established credit with suppliers. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saved money to invest. • Asked for funding. • Got financial support. • Invested own money. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Saved money to invest. • Asked for funding. • Established credit with suppliers. • Invested own money.
Hiring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hired employees or Managers. • Organized teams. • Developed prototype. • Applied for copyright, patent, trademark. • Purchased, rented or leased major equipment. • Defined market opportunity. • Developed financials. • Started marketing, promotion. • Purchased raw materials, supplies. • Trained or workshop on starting a business. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hired employees. • Organised team. • Prepared business plan. • Developed Prototype. • Applied for license, patent or permits. • Purchases facilities, equipment or property rented or leased facilities/equipment property. • Formed Legal entity. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hired employees/manager • Organized teams • Prepared business plan • Developed model or procedures of products/services • Applied for copyright, patent, trademark. • Purchased, rented or leased major equipment. • Defined market opportunity. • Developed financials. • Started marketing, promotion. • Purchased raw materials, supplies. • Trained or took a workshop to start a business. • Opened business bank account.
Indicators of start-up Sales	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Received money, income or fees. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Received money, income or fees. • Positive cash flow. • Field federal taxes. • Paid FICA. • Unemployment insurance. • D&B Listing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Received money, income or fees. • Positive cash flow. • Paid managers who are owners a salary. • Field federal taxes. • Paid FICA. • Unemployment insurance. • D&B LISITING. • Business phone listing. • Business phone line.

Source: Adapted from Lichtenstein et al. (2007).

The nascent entrepreneurial process has also been studied from a resource acquisition perspective (Roundy and Bayer, 2019). Researchers have argued that such studies theoretically draw from concepts such as capital, whether that be economic, social, cultural or human (Christensen *et al.*, 2020). Although some individuals have become

successful at the latent entrepreneurial stage, others (temporarily or permanently), discontinue their nascent entrepreneurial efforts, and abandon the business altogether (Lichtenstein *et al.*, 2007; Honig and Hopp, 2019). In the following section, the research focuses on the concept and process of entrepreneurship as the ability of an entrepreneur to recognise and exploit opportunities.

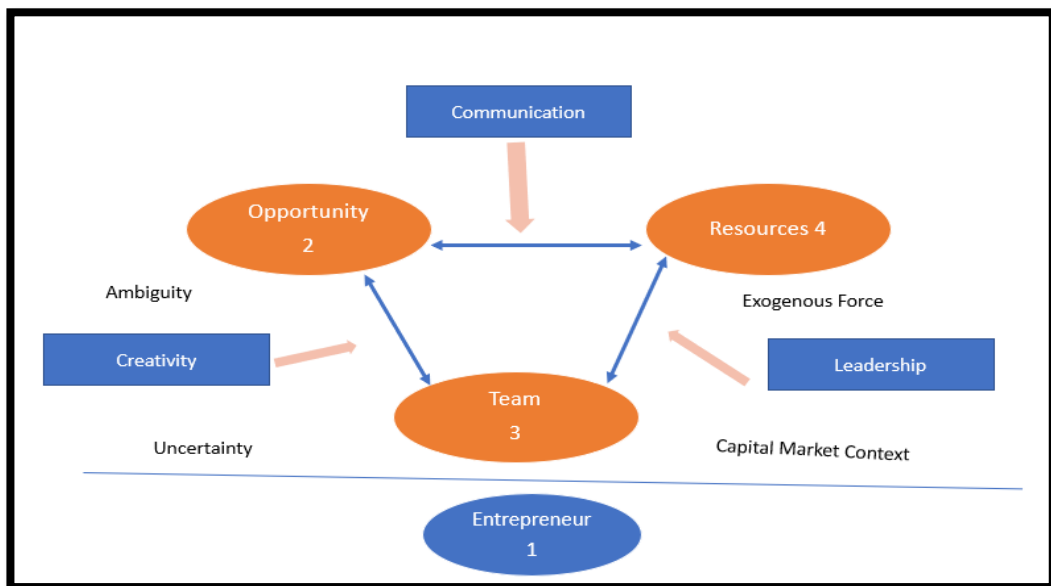
The following discussion will use Shane and Timmons's model to examine opportunity recognition and exploitation. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) highlighted research on entrepreneurship and stimulated a large number of entrepreneurship-related research. A significant number of these studies focused on entrepreneurial opportunity and the individual-opportunity nexus (ION) as a focal point for entrepreneurial research. Entrepreneurs perceive what they believe to be business opportunities. Their actions in relation to such perceptions either help or hinder the creation of new businesses (Klein *et al.*, 2020). Honig and Hopp (2019) suggested that entrepreneurs envision a product, a market, or a need that customers have and subsequently try to create this product, enter the market or fulfil this need.

2.4.3. Models of Entrepreneurship Process

Shane (2003) and Timmons (2009) both suggested that the entrepreneurial process of enterprise development is opportunity-centric, and it is influenced by external and variable factors. However, Timmons argued that the entrepreneurial process focuses on identifying the controllable variables which are critical to the process rather than understanding all influencing factors. A successful entrepreneur is one who can equally manage these critical factors. In this model, the entrepreneur searches for an opportunity, and on finding it, shapes the opportunity into a high-potential venture by putting into place the team and the required resources to start the business, while capitalising on the opportunity.

The Timmons Model states that entrepreneurship is opportunity-driven, or that the market shapes the opportunity. Being successful depends on the ability of the entrepreneur to balance these factors. However, Bygrave (2004) argued that the process involves all of the functions, activities and actions associated with the perception of opportunities and creation of organisations in order to pursue them. According to the Timmons Model of Entrepreneurship (see Figure 2.3), the three driving forces of a successful launch are opportunities, teams and resources. Davidsson (2004) suggested that an opportunity is seen as an idea, a business form or a potential company. Many researchers attempt to define the phenomenon in terms of an entrepreneur’s cognitive capacities (such as Sarason *et al.* (2006), and defined opportunity as a favourable set of circumstances. These create the need for a new product, services or business.

Figure 2.3: Timmons Model of the Entrepreneurial Process

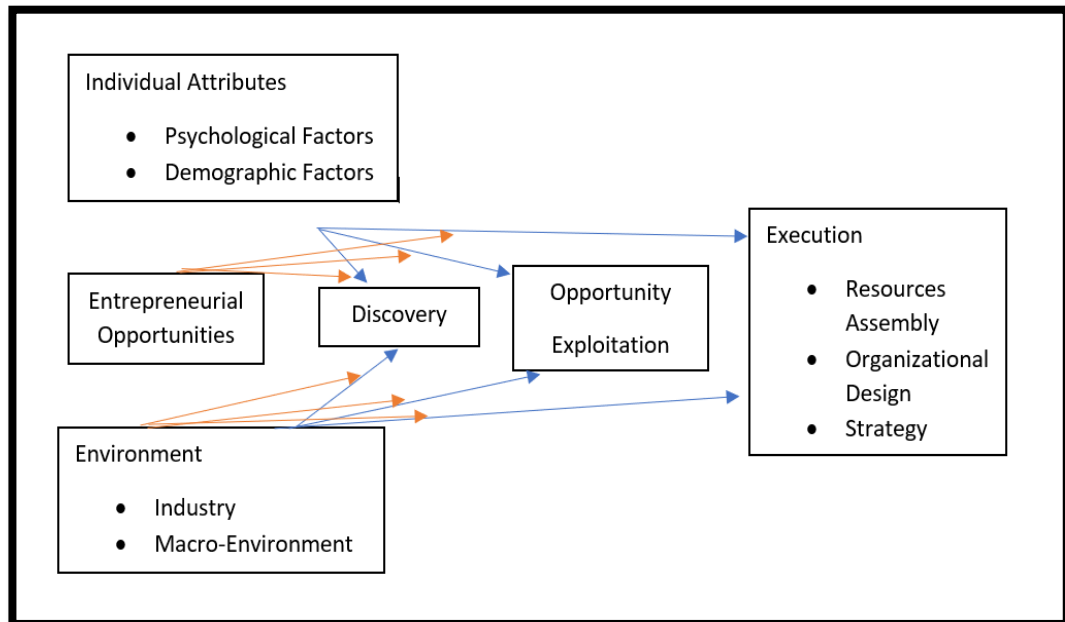


Source: Timmons (2009)

The model suggested that an entrepreneur emerges when a business start-up requires a creator, influencer or someone who can identify opportunities. Therefore, Timmons recognised the entrepreneurial process in terms of the ability to identify market opportunities, source capital and other indispensable resources. It is intended that, by

considering all of these perspectives, a practical and overarching model can be delivered, such as Shane’s model detailed in Figure 2.4 below.

Figure 2.4: Shane’s Entrepreneurship Model Process



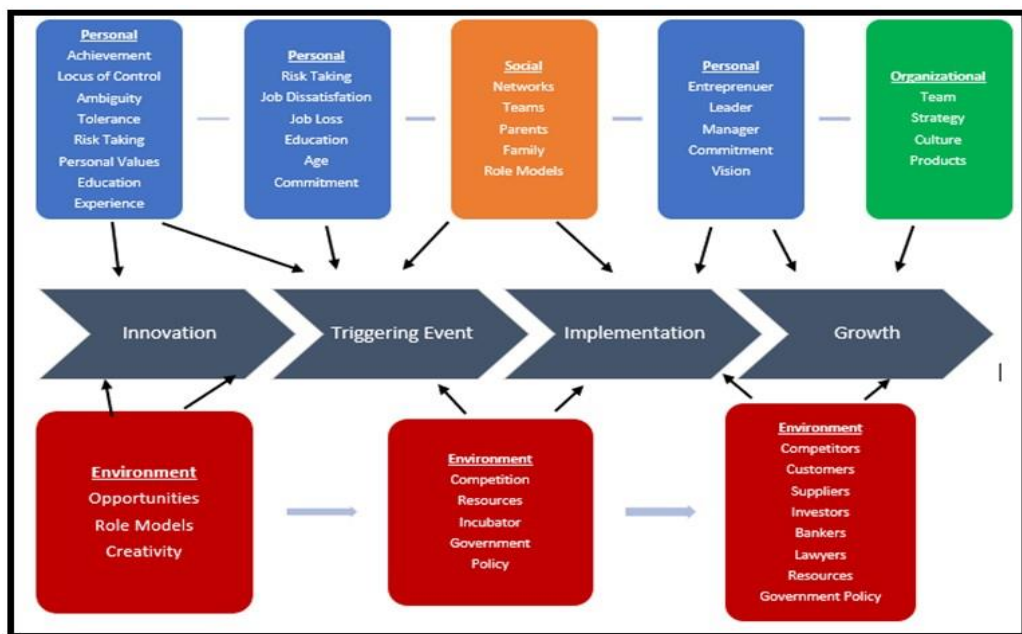
Source: Shane (2003).

The focus of this study is the development of rural entrepreneurship. This is a process which can be cultivated and managed. The idea of entrepreneurship as a process is not accepted by all scholars, nor has it always been taught. There is little relevant theoretical development underpinning the already limited understanding of the entrepreneurship process (Murray and Palladino, 2020). Shane (2003) acknowledged this and responded by developing a model which incorporates all aspects of the process, which have been discussed above. The model proposed was the individual opportunity nexus (see Figure 2.4 above). This model is an interdisciplinary approach, as Shane (2003) posited that this is required in order to incorporate all aspects of the entrepreneurial process.

Bygrave (2004) viewed the entrepreneurial process as a series of events which are influenced by a number of factors. Shane (2003), Timmons (2009) and Bygrave (2004) all viewed enterprise formation as an entrepreneurial process which is centred on

opportunity, whether these opportunities were presented or pursued. Based on Bygrave's model, this the entrepreneurial process is presented as a set of stages and events which follow one another. In the process of nascent rural entrepreneurship, these stages are similar as Bygrave's model. The development of a new idea or conception of a business, or by receiving training. Even the process of implementation and growth of the new business. In Bygrave's model of the entrepreneurial process (see Figure 2.5), the critical factors which drive the development of the business at each stage are shown in Figure 2.5 below.

Figure 2.5 Bygrave's Model of Entrepreneurial Process



Source: Bygrave and Zacharakis (2004).

According to Bygrave (2004) and Thomas *et al.* (2019) entrepreneurial traits are shaped by personal attributes and environment. Personal attributes are described by Bygrave as the characteristics which make entrepreneurs different. Bygrave presented the entrepreneurial process as a series of consecutive stages such as: (I) The idea of conception of the business, (II) The event that triggers the operation, and (III) Implementation and growth. This was supported by Azam *et al.* (2020) who described

the following entrepreneurial characteristics: (I) Seeking opportunities and initiatives; (II) Identification of opportunities; (III) Ability to cope with stressful situations; and (IV) Commitment and independence. Furthermore, Timmons (1978) agreed that certain personal attributes, such as the need for realisation, a propensity to take risks, and control, are all observed traits in many successful entrepreneurs.

In this section, the research focused on who entrepreneurs are in terms of their characteristics and what opportunities are there for them. Recognition of entrepreneurial opportunity includes an entrepreneur's decision to start an enterprise, the nature of the entrepreneurial opportunities and the different ways in which the entrepreneur reaches a decision to start a business. The majority of these quantitative studies included samples of those who have either established a new business, or those who are going to start one (Picken, 2017). However, other studies in this area have included those who are at an aspiring stage, with the intention to start a business, along with those who are at a nascent stage of the entrepreneurial process (Delmar and Davidsson, 2000). Previous research focused on understanding psychological factors and demographic factors, which explains the attributes of those who are more likely to become self-employed.

2.5 ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION VS TRAINING

It has been established that from a process perspective, an opportunity is recognised, a business concept is formulated, resources are acquired, culminating in a venture being launched. Entrepreneurship training equips entrepreneurs with the knowledge and skills necessary to start a business (Katz, 2014). It is also regarded as a practical means to promote entrepreneurship. Martin *et al.* (2013) suggested that entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes which result in increased entrepreneurial activity. However, a theoretical

understanding of how and if entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies, is still limited (Gielnik *et al.*, 2015).

Research in entrepreneurship portrays entrepreneurs as innovative and creative individuals who search for new solutions in order to create value (Kirzner, 2009). Entrepreneurs require business knowledge in order to organise and coordinate resources. This in turn leads to value creation and better business opportunities. Therefore, entrepreneurship training is considered as a key instrument in enhancing entrepreneurial attitudes in potential and nascent entrepreneurs (Ahmad, 2013). Scholars see entrepreneurship training as an enabler which prepare men and women for innovation, risk-taking and new venture opportunities (Gangi, 2017). These skills enable entrepreneurs to turn challenges into opportunities and in turn utilise these opportunities in starting new ventures.

Kuratko (2003) suggested that entrepreneurship training works as a mechanism which equips individuals with the skills and knowledge necessary for negotiations, leadership, new product development, creative thinking and innovation. It is vital to understand what is meant by entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training. Many rural female entrepreneurs who have no education aim to acquire skills which might support them in start-up for their enterprises. Therefore, it is vital to explain the differences which exist between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurship training for the purpose of this study.

Table 2.3: Distinction Between Entrepreneurship Training and Education

Comparison Factor	Training	Education/Formal
Focus on Activity	On knowledge skills, ability and job performance	Structured development of individual to specified outcomes
Clarity of objectives	Can be specified clearly	Objectives stated in general terms
Time scale	Short term	Specified period
Values which underpin activity	Assumes relative stability, emphasizes improvement	Emphasis on breakthrough
Nature of learning process	Structured or mechanistic	Structured or mechanistic
Content of activity	Knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to specific job, basic competences	Imposed and specified curricula
Methods used	Demonstration, practice, feedback	Lectures, guided reading, debate, self-managed learning
Outcomes of process	Skilled performance of tasks which make up a job	Extended specified outcomes
Learning strategy used	Didactic tutor-centred	Combination of didactic, skill-building and inductive strategies.
Nature of process	Outside in, done by others	Largely outside in done by others
Role of professional trainers	To instruct, demonstrate and guide	Act as an expert, instruct, facilitate and guide to learning resources
Document trainer Philosophy	Instrumentalism: transferring knowledge using formal methods and measuring results	Combination of instrumentalism and existentialism
Process of evaluation	Evaluation against specific job performance standards	Evaluation in terms of pass/fail levels
Link with organization mission and strategies	Not necessarily linked to organization's mission and goals	Not necessarily linked to organization's mission and goals.

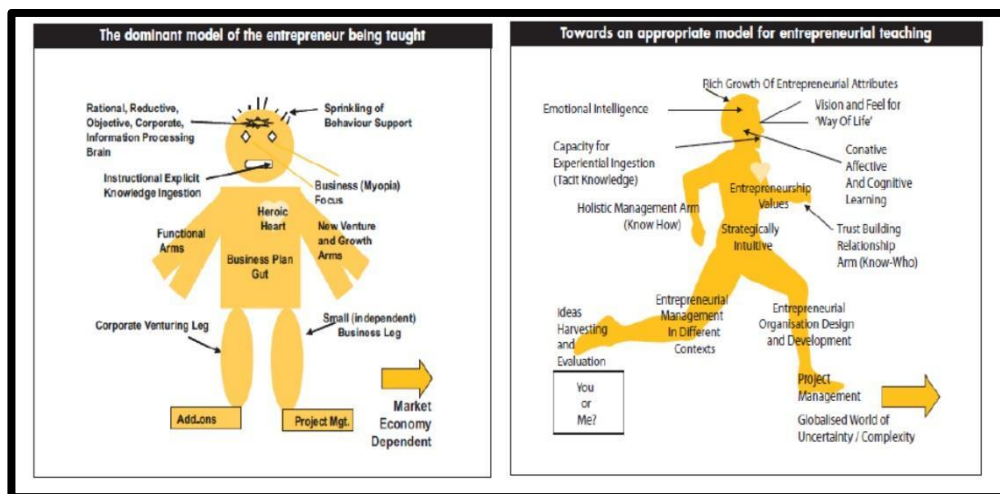
Source: Hynes, (1996).

Some authors argued that entrepreneurship education does not actually address the needs of entrepreneurs due to a significant gap between the perceptions of education providers and those learning, as suggested by De Faoite *et al.* (2003) as their education needs may not be clear to the educator. Henry *et al.* (2020) argued that many providers of education do not have managerial experience in small firms and fail to understand the practical training of entrepreneurs.

According to Gibb (2006), how entrepreneurship is taught needs to be re-evaluated, as the traditional model of entrepreneurship is no longer applicable to a modern

business environment. In Figure 2.6, Gibb (2010) depicted the dominant model of entrepreneurship as static and focused heavily on a business plan and the various functional activities of an enterprise. His alternative “appropriate” model portrays entrepreneurs as dynamic, with a range of behavioural attributes which need to be developed. Gibb (2010) argued that the most important objective for an entrepreneurship education programme is to instil empathy with the adoption of entrepreneurial values.

Figure 2.6: Different Models of Teaching Entrepreneurship



Source: Gibb (2010).

Gibb suggested that these are associated with the ways of doing things, organising, feeling, communicating, understanding and learning things. Morris *et al.* (2013) urged that individuals and organisations prosper in a dynamic, threatening and complex world, by learning to think and act in more entrepreneurial ways. However, Gibb (2010), as indicated in Figure 2.6, above, argued that the conventional model of entrepreneurship education is static, with considerable influence from the economic perspective of entrepreneurship, and is almost exclusively business-management-focused.

Pedagogy has tended to be preoccupied with business planning and tools for small business management, with less of an emphasis on the entrepreneurial mind-set, mastery of the entrepreneurial process or development of entrepreneurial competencies (Morris *et*

al., 2013). Gibb (2010) proposed an “alternative model”, for entrepreneurship education which portrays the entrepreneur as dynamic, and possessing a range of entrepreneurial behaviours, skills and attributes which are applicable to a wide variety of contexts, This rather than exclusively the domain of the high-flying, growth-seeking businessperson. Research in entrepreneurship portrays entrepreneurs as innovative and creative individuals who search for new solutions in order to create value (Kirzner, 2009). Therefore, they are vital contributors to economic growth in their countries. Entrepreneurs require business knowledge to organise and coordinate resources, which in turn leads to value creation and better business opportunities. Therefore, entrepreneurship training is a key instrument in enhancing entrepreneurial attitudes in potential and nascent entrepreneurs (Ahmad, 2013).

Mani (2018) found that participants in entrepreneurship training programs accumulate many benefits in terms of skill improvements, but little research has been undertaken regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation within an African context. This is concerning given the importance of entrepreneurship training in developing knowledge, skills and qualities pertaining to entrepreneurship (Meyer and Hamilton, 2020). This is also concerning given that education is an inherent part of emancipation (Safstrom, 2011). Studies on female entrepreneurs found that women require some form of entrepreneurship training. Matricano (2020) argued that it is necessary to assess the effectiveness of entrepreneurship programmes on a number of grounds. For example, entrepreneurship programmes can be expensive (e.g. guest speakers, mentors and consultants). Learning measures are used to assess training specific skills, knowledge and attitudes. While behavioural measures find out whether the participants are able to apply these skills in their subsequent entrepreneurial activities.

Post-training success measures can be used to measure training outcomes in terms of economic factors such as sales and profits, costs, productivity and quality (Brush, 2019). It is therefore imperative to focus on the training of entrepreneurs and particularly, on the development of disadvantaged individuals, in this case female entrepreneurs (Xu and Shi, 2019). Moreno-Gavara *et al.* (2019) suggested that the only way to encourage larger numbers of women into self-employment is to recognise the need to widen access to business start-up and growth training for female entrepreneurs. Studies have shown that new venture creations benefit from training and skills, while contacts and networking are vital for most successful new businesses (Henry, 2020). Studies also show that entrepreneurship training can complement entrepreneurs in the early stages of awareness. Entrepreneurship training can provide the more practical skills which entrepreneurs require when they are ready to start their business. For example, Sebikari (2019) argued that lack of entrepreneurship training is the main reason for venture failure for nascent individuals wishing to start businesses.

Research carried out in Uganda found that rural female entrepreneurs would like to receive some form of entrepreneurship training. Gavigan *et al.* (2020) found that women may require specific training in areas such as marketing, business planning, financial training, networking, mentoring, and risk management. However, there is a need for organised business training models and other entrepreneurship programmes to support rural female entrepreneurs in Africa. Many researchers such as Gibb (1987) have identified the need for evaluating entrepreneurship training programmes, as this would support the stakeholders who deliver these programmes and the effectiveness of this training.

2.5.1. Business Knowledge

Entrepreneurship is perceived as a behavioural characteristic of individuals, including an input and an output where entrepreneurial behaviour requires entrepreneurial

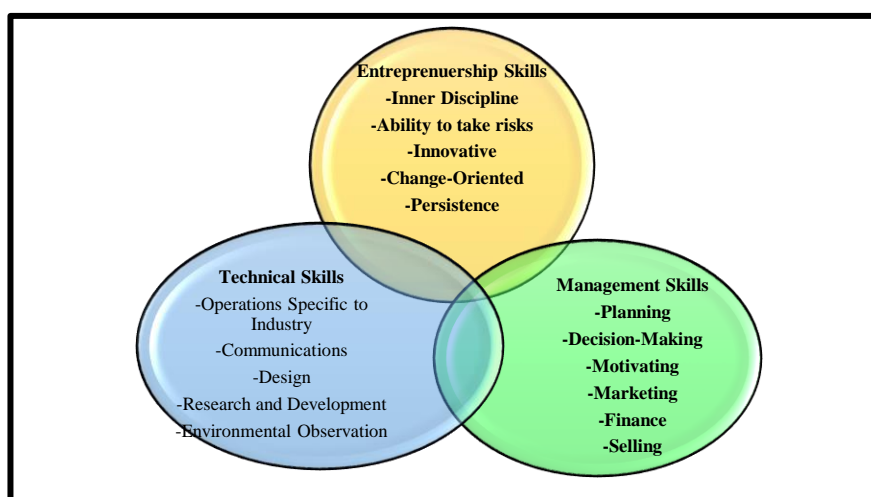
skills and qualities (Urbanoe *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, authors such as Cooney (2012) and Yusoff *et al.* (2019) suggested that to be entrepreneurial, an individual requires the ability to generate ideas and knowledge, as entrepreneurship involves the development of skills to grow a business. This is coupled with the personal competencies of the entrepreneur to transform it into a successful venture. Other studies confirm that business knowledge is an important tool for strengthening a business competitive advantage (Hsu *et al.*, 2006).

Particularly in the context of African economies which are still in development, knowledge is a tool that is used to support rural entrepreneurs (Afrin *et al.*, 2010). The notion of stimulating entrepreneurial activities has emerged as a prominent goal for many nations across the globe, especially in response to the current economic challenges (Cooney, 2012). However, many female entrepreneurs in rural communities have little business knowledge (Hewitt, 2010). Their lack of knowledge of writing, keeping business records and estimating costs, affects their operations. Therefore, this is not unique to most rural women in Africa. According to Nawaz (2010), there are limited opportunities for entrepreneurship training in rural communities. The lack of training opportunities and facilities affect the overall efficiency and innovation of rural female entrepreneurs. Training programmes are required to develop rural female entrepreneurs. These women use their indigenous knowledge and manual skills to develop their businesses. This knowledge is passed on by word of mouth to their neighbours and from generation to generation. However, globalisation has changed some elements of communication due to new technologies such as mobile phone.

Therefore, adult education and training is vital in supporting rural female entrepreneurs. This will improve their literacy levels as many rural female entrepreneurs have not had an education and others have limited educational background. Furthermore, skill development training will support rural female entrepreneurs in creating new ideas and taking care of their existing businesses (Hewitt, 2010). It is evident from a review of

the literature surrounding entrepreneurship, that there are skills needed to grow a business, coupled with personal competences to make a business successful. As Gibb (1987) suggested, while the entrepreneurial role can be culturally acquired, it is consistently being influenced by education and training. Therefore, the training needed for such rural female entrepreneurs is an approach which might develop an individual's mindset, behaviour, skills and capabilities, which in turn can be applied to create value in their environmental context. Shabbir *et al.* (2019) argued that entrepreneurs come with different skill sets and this should be recognised. Researchers such as Bakhshi *et al.* (2017) presented key skill sets which can be broken into three groups: Entrepreneurial Skills, Technical Skills and Management Skills. Hence, technical skills; are those skills necessary to produce the business product or services, managerial skills; are those which are essential to the day-to-day management and administration of the business; and entrepreneurial skills, are those which involve economic opportunities. It is argued that the level of training required to develop these skills is highly dependent upon the level each individual may have before starting their business as shown in Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7: Entrepreneurial Skillsets



Source: Bakhshi et al. (2017).

Ahn (2019) identified key areas required of an entrepreneur and concluded that they require the following:

- The ability to identify and exploit a business opportunity.
- The human creative effort of developing a business.
- A willingness to undertake risks.
- Competence to organise the necessary resources to respond to the opportunity.

Research confirmed that entrepreneurs who nurture their own skills and knowledge, are more likely to have greater profitability and growth for their businesses (Baporikar, 2020).

2.5.2. Competence Skills

Core competence was used to refer to the integrated set of core skills which provide an organisation or a business with competitive advantage (Sihotang *et al.*, 2020). However, for the purpose of this study, competence is used as a broad set of technical and trained skills to be applied by rural women who have never received education or who have received limited primary education. A competent person is discussed as one who has a set of skills to support in running a business (Jagtap, 2020).

Competencies are a set of skills individual requires to effectively perform specified work. A rural woman benefits enormously from training as she becomes economically empowered and business owner and control her assets. She also experiences the freedom to make decisions for her business as an emancipated female entrepreneur. Through archived entrepreneurship skills, nascent rural female entrepreneurs are not only generated income for the family or for the community, but they have a multiplying effect in the following generation which is reflected in higher levels of income and lower levels of poverty. Through identifying entrepreneurial skills, the rural female entrepreneurs may develop those skills for self-development and emancipation. These skills support rural

female entrepreneurs in developing independence, their decision-making, autonomy, and personal capabilities. These competency skills enabled rural women to become emancipated, while running their own businesses as they achieve opportunities to own land, political representation and social equality. However, researchers such as Martin *et al.* (2019) explained competencies from several perspectives, as they distinguished individual competencies from competencies as job requirements. The view of individual competencies is seen as attributes of the individual. Therefore, competencies are viewed as human capital which individual entrepreneurs possess and offer to entrepreneurial activities. Competencies can be divided into two categories (i.e. formal competence and actual competence). Hsiao and Wu (2020) suggested that formal competencies can be described as a formal training which the entrepreneur has received or a in the form of a technical certification.

Actual competence is the potential capacity to succeed in a specific situation or task as used by the rural female entrepreneurs. Competence for an entrepreneur can be used to empower entrepreneurs and their employees as a source of competitive advantage, innovation and effectiveness (Ismail, 2020). Businesses need to know what competencies and skills are needed in different tasks within the organisation to be successful in the entrepreneurial activities. These competencies are gained from past experiences, individual know-how and work processes. For example, if a business wants to create an empowerment structure, the employees must know what skills and competency profiles are required within the business. Studies show that areas of competence can be learned by setting development steps and goals.

It can be expensive to support competence training for many entrepreneurs, particularly for rural female entrepreneurs whose resources are very scarce (Saltsman and Shelton, 2019). Other authors such as Johansson and Wallo (2019) viewed competence

as representing what an individual may have in the form of grades and certificates. Competence might also refer to what the individual has or the attributes of an entrepreneur which can be translated into a specific performance. Furthermore, competence is strongly associated with working life contexts and the ability to carry out certain tasks (Martin *et al.*, 2019) such as knowing what to do and how to do the work in each situation.

2.6. OPPORTUNITY RECOGNITION AND EXPLOITATION

A great deal has been explored while discussing Shane's model Figure 2.4 concerning the discovery of opportunities. The literature discussed has suggested that the entrepreneurial process is reliant on an opportunity, which may present in many forms. However, entrepreneurial opportunities must present themselves in order for an enterprise to be formed, and an individual or individuals must discover and exploit these opportunities. The way in which they choose to exploit them has an impact on the survival of the entrepreneurial venture (Shane, 2003; Bygrave, 2004; Timmons, 2009).

The literature explains the three views of entrepreneurial opportunity: Opportunity recognition, opportunity discovery and opportunity creation. Opportunity creation is in relation to new markets. Whereas opportunity discovery is in relation to the exploration of existing and latent markets. Opportunity recognition is concerned with the exploitation of existing markets, when both sources of supply and demand exist and the opportunity for their meeting can be recognised (Sarasvathy *et al.*, 2003; Gregoire *et al.*, 2010). Shane (2003) suggested that the success of the entrepreneurial process is determined by an entrepreneur's ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors which affect the individual opportunity nexus. It may also be suggested that the entrepreneurial survival rate through the entrepreneurial process is determined by one's ability to judge and select opportunities relevant to their situation (in this case, rural communities). Bobera *et al.* (2014) also discussed the factors which affect

the entrepreneurial process and illustrated certain factors that act as barriers in an entrepreneur's decision to exploit opportunities.

Leković and Berber (2019) suggested that when these barriers are present, an entrepreneur who has a personal means deficit may not continue with the entrepreneurial opportunity. Bobera, *et al.* (2014) conducted a study, and their findings are similar to that of Shane's (2003). They suggested that the entrepreneurial process is influenced by personal attributes and environmental factors. An individual with a high level of personal attributes will have a greater ability to cope with environmental factors such as financial burdens. This concept is also in line with Casson's (2003) suggestion that a key function of an entrepreneur is to express judgment, and in order to be successful, the entrepreneur must select entrepreneurial opportunities appropriate to their means or resources.

However, opportunity identification and evaluation require the cognitive ability to process asymmetric, unreliable and uncertain information (Eckhardt and Shane, 2003). New venture creation also requires the practical intelligence to execute the diverse tasks related to new enterprise creation. Some research suggests that cognition in the form of how individuals perceive their entrepreneurial ability also plays a role in making the decision to start an enterprise. For instance, those who develop positive perceptions in regard to their entrepreneurial ability are more likely to initiate entrepreneurial activities than others (Minniti *et al.*, 2005).

2.7. ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN AFRICA

According to Muriithi (2017), the main drivers of economic growth in Africa are small to medium enterprises (SMEs). Dana *et al.* (2018) emphasised the importance of middle-income entrepreneurial businesses in Africa. Furthermore, SMEs in Africa have played a significant role in reducing poverty, improving GDP and reducing unemployment (Mamman *et al.*, 2019). Kauffmann (2005) found that in Sub-Saharan

Africa, SMEs accounted for more than 95% of all firms. However, SMEs in Africa face challenges such as: Unfavourable business environments; challenging legal requirements; lack of entrepreneurial knowledge; limited access to finance; and unreliable exchange rates (Olawale and Garwe, 2010).

Due to these challenges, many SMEs struggle to survive. In Africa, small businesses tend to be subsistence, necessity-based businesses, with very few growth prospects (Balunywa *et al.*, 2020). However, these small businesses play an important part in African economies and in the lives of all its citizens. Entrepreneurial activity in many economically developed countries varies to the kinds of entrepreneurial activity that occurs in many economically developing African countries (Anderson and Ronteau, 2017).

Although over 400 million individuals in Africa are owners or managers of businesses (Agbenyegah, 2019) much of the literature remains focused on describing the attributes of entrepreneurship in Africa, rather than providing a framework through which entrepreneurs and policymakers can work together, to design and implement appropriate entrepreneurship models and training programmes. Existing models of entrepreneurship are based largely on research conducted in the United States and other developed countries (Baum and Bird, 2011), and these do not accurately represent entrepreneurship activities carried out in African economies.

Scholars and practitioners alike have implicitly stated that entrepreneurship is largely the same all over the world, driven by the same entrepreneurial impulses (Xue *et al.*, 2021). In relation to African economies, the most important and relevant research needs to analyse the differences in ambiguity aversion, self-control and susceptibility to framing, which have an important role in the formation and evolution of businesses in these economies (Elston *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, there is a growing awareness of other

related challenges such as the issue of context and its role in entrepreneurship (Anderson and Ronteau, 2017). Some authors have argued that context is more than merely the background to entrepreneurship and given this understanding, the influence of context appears particularly relevant for African economies which are often characterised as having significantly different characteristics than those in Europe and North America (Welter *et al.*, 2014).

The context of Africa may offer resources quite distinctive to the continent (Berglund *et al.*, 2015) or shape opportunities which are not available in other contexts. However, there is a significant lack of research examining these differences in the context of female entrepreneurship within African economies. GEM (2010) confirms the importance of an individual's perceptions regarding entrepreneurial ability, the recognition of start-up opportunities, and the extent to which social networks support entrepreneurs, as instruments necessary for someone starting a new business. In addition, GEM (2010) measures several indicators of attitudes such as the extent to which people think there are more opportunities for starting a business and their capabilities for doing so. Another indicator is fear of failure, the level of risk individuals might be willing to assume to start a business. Perceptions of entrepreneurship are reflected in questions regarding the status of entrepreneurs as the results shown in Table 2.4 below. Entrepreneurs sometimes recognise opportunities well in advance, or just before they set up the business.

Table 2.4: Entrepreneurs' Attitudes and Perceptions

<i>Factor-driven economies</i>	Perceived opportunities	Perceived Capabilities	Fear of Failure*	Entrepreneurship as a Good Career Choice	High Status to Successful Entrepreneurs	Media Attention for Entrepreneurship	Entrepreneurial Intentions**
Angola	67.3	73.1	32.2	70.1	83.3	74.7	54.5
Bolivia	53.2	75.8	28.4	62.9	66.6	51.1	59.3
Egypt	38.8	63.4	25.3	77.7	89.5	70.5	24.3
Ghana	75.7	74.6	10.4	91.1	90.7	78.6	68.8
Guatemala	62.9	71.0	23.2	73.8	59.7	44.1	30.7
Iran	41.6	65.7	30.1	63.6	84.6	62.3	31.4
Jamaica	56.1	80.2	33.0	85.1	84.8	77.4	38.1
Pakistan	51.9	56.2	34.3	76.3	80.7	61.0	32.4
Saudi Arabia	75.8	69.3	39.0	86.8	92.3	78.0	1.0
Uganda	80.5	86.7	20.7	81.1	87.3	81.9	77.1
Vanuatu	73.6	79.6	46.9	55.6	77.6	34.3	50.5
West bank and Gaza strip	44.0	57.0	40.0	85.3	83.5	62.5	28.2
Zambia	81.4	77.5	12.8	69.9	71.8	72.5	67.1
Average (<i>unweighted</i>)	61.8	71.5	28.9	75.3	80.9	65.3	42.6

Source: GEM (2010).

The continent of Africa is undergoing a number of critical transitions. From a human resource perspective, it is probably halfway through a demographic transition from higher to lower death and birth rates (Namatovu *et al.*, 2011).

The youthful momentum of Africa's growing population means that by 2050, almost one in four of the world's population will live in Africa (Reynolds, 2005). New technologies, including mobile phones and solar cells, are becoming increasingly available across the continent. These are enabling businesses to become more globally competitive. In comparison with other emerging economies, Africa continues to be under-represented as a global player (Sutter *et al.*, 2019). Clearly, Africa will need to focus on policies and interventions that encourage entrepreneurial training and activities.

On average (as Table 2.4 shows), individuals in factor-driven economies such as Africa, have a higher perception of good opportunities for entrepreneurship, and feel as though they have the capabilities to start a business. For example, as the activity section shows, half of the entrepreneurs in Uganda (a factor-driven economy) started businesses out of necessity, with few people having high levels of innovativeness or growth (GEM, 2010). This is further explained in the factor-driven group, that individuals in the Sub-Saharan African countries have the highest-level of perception for good opportunities in entrepreneurship. Some countries also had above average capability perception with nearly 87% individuals, in economies such as Uganda stating, that they had the capabilities to start a business. While on the other hand the MENA/South Asian countries have the lowest perceptions except for Saudi Arabia.

Research by Dzomonda and Fatoki (2019) found that one of the requirements to increase a pool of potential entrepreneurs is effective training programmes. However, if the skills needed for successful ventures are identified and training based on identified entrepreneurship education/skills are conducted, even in a weaker educational system, research shows that the feasibility and desirability of entrepreneurs can still be increased. Some studies show several African economies that have placed an emphasis on developing entrepreneurial skills programmes have solved unemployment problems and ensured economic growth (Nafukho, 1998).

Entrepreneurship training in Africa provides a mix of experiential learning, skills-building and, more importantly, a shift in mindset (Ghafar, 2020). Certainly, the earlier and wider the exposure to entrepreneurship and innovation in Africa, the more likely that individuals will consider entrepreneurial careers in the future. For example, in Kenya, the government created both a youth entrepreneurship fund and a female entrepreneurship fund. They were of the belief that this would stimulate the creation of new business

enterprises by Kenyan entrepreneurs (Stevenson and St-Onge, 2005).

2.8 FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS

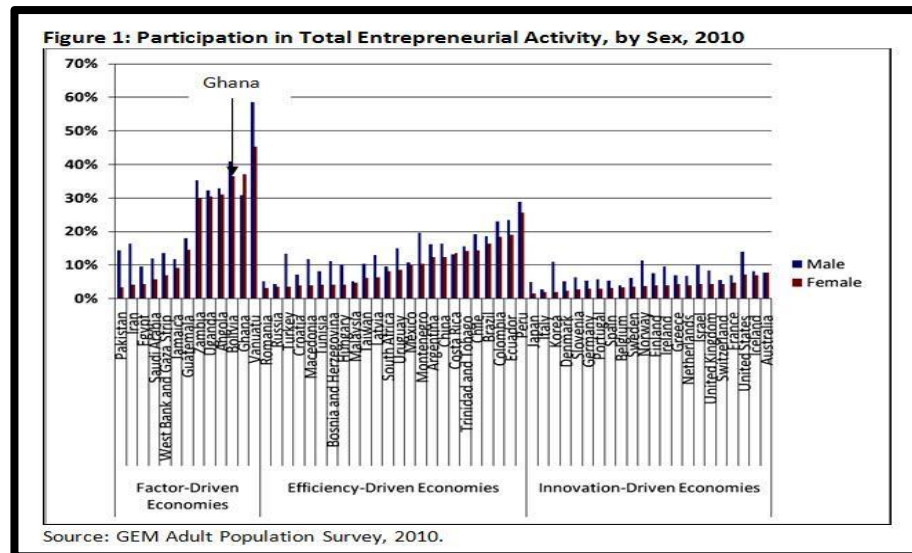
Recently, new opportunities have opened the entrepreneurial space for more women to own businesses. Gender bias in entrepreneurial activity has been well-documented in literature (Huq *et al.*, 2020). While, in recent years, the number of female entrepreneurs has increased dramatically by 30 percent (De Bruin *et al.*, 2006), empirical evidence indicates that still, almost twice as many men as women become entrepreneurs. These differences are consistent across countries. It has been argued by various entrepreneurship scholars that there is limited understanding of the factors involved, and that the decision processes which influence men and women effects their decision whether or not to pursue entrepreneurship and become self-employed.

Although there is in-depth literature which addressed men and women in entrepreneurship, very few studies used the “lens of gender” as opposed to sex (Ngoasong, 2019). Much of the female entrepreneurial literature has suggested that women are just as capable of starting enterprises as their male counterparts. They argued that if women encounter limitations in terms of opportunities as entrepreneurs, these can be easily identified and overcome. Opening opportunities for women in entrepreneurship is defined as facilitating equal access to resources and enhancing human and social capital, while focusing on increasing women’s benefits in terms of economic outcomes.

Research indicates that, despite the growing number of female entrepreneurs, there is little knowledge regarding female entrepreneurial business practices, entrepreneurship education for females, their survival and growth strategies, along with their perceptions of their careers as entrepreneurs (Basit *et al.*, 2019). While the number of female entrepreneurs has been considered by the scientific community, the media continues to cling to out of date gender stereotypes in its representation of females. It is

important to note that local context matters (Asmae and Salwa, 2019), and as a result, there are regional variations regarding entrepreneurial activities amongst females. For example, as indicated in Figure 2.8, Ghana is the only country where females are more active in entrepreneurship than males (Bosma, 2009).

Figure 2.8: Participation in Total Entrepreneurial Activity, by Gender (2010)



Source: GEM Adult Population Survey (2010)

Not only is an entrepreneur usually a man, but the idea of the “family business” is based more on the business than on the family. It is treated as a non-cultural, non-historical and even a non-emotional entity.

Monteith and Camfield (2019) also revealed that some cultural norms in Africa suggest that a woman should be submissive and deferential to men. In Uganda, patriarchal gender norms still favour men and masculinity, and they deny resources, opportunities and power to women (Lundgren *et al.*, 2018). This prevents women from starting their own business. Literature suggested that entrepreneurship is biased and that females face considerably more challenges in their entrepreneurial endeavours, than their male counterparts. Therefore, there are marked differences in the level, type and scope of new ventures established by males and females. Harrison *et al.* (2020) found that there are

gender differences in business start-ups, including those relating to contexts such as country and sector, human capital, entrepreneurial intention, motivation, and entrepreneurial networks.

Overall, regardless of the country involved, males are more likely to be involved in entrepreneurial activities than females at all stages, from start-up through various growth stages. It has been highlighted by scholars such as McAdam *et al.* (2019) that a variety of socio-cultural barriers hinder women in their ability to build networks and access business capital. In addition, the desire for flexibility, job satisfaction and a high quality of life have also been identified as significant to the entrepreneurial decisions made by females. Entrepreneurship is viewed as an outlet for females deciding to leave dependent employment in organisations where they have experienced a lack of opportunities for advancement (McAdam and Marlow, 2012).

Finally, as noted by Wu *et al.* (2019), the presence of females in entrepreneurial careers remains low. These ventures are overly concentrated in crowded and low-value-added sectors, with the majority of female-owned businesses operating in the retail, catering, health or education sectors. McAdam (2013) suggested that one of the global concerns regarding entrepreneurship females are under-represented. Yet it would appear that the subtext embedded within the educational process involves bias and exclusion.

2.9 TRAINING FOR RURAL FEMALE ENTREPRENEURS

Female entrepreneurs are engaged in entrepreneurship in rural communities to effectively generate value, overcome poverty, and promote both societal and economic advancement (Bruton *et al.*, 2013). As productive forces in businesses, female entrepreneurs are both direct and indirect leaders in their communities, particularly in emerging economies. It has been suggested that rural female entrepreneurs experience a

lack of access to business finance, negative attitudes towards them as business owners and limited initiatives to improve their business performance (Lourenco *et al.*, 2014). Although rural women have a significantly positive effect on economic growth (Kyrgidou and Petridou, 2013) there is limited research examining entrepreneurial activity amongst rural women within an African context.

Some studies have explained that when informal sectors are considered, there are more women in rural entrepreneurship in Africa than previously envisaged (Minniti, 2009). Furthermore, female entrepreneurs in Africa who are operating within the informal economy have been associated with economic empowerment and the reduction of poverty (Kondal, 2014). However, Lassalle and McElwee (2016) suggested that many rural women in Uganda have become entrepreneurs due to their need to survive or to enhance their livelihood, rather than through opportunity recognition. It has also been determined that the perceptions which women hold about themselves along with their level of education, work experience, degree of commitment to the business, and quality of social and business networks, influences their willingness to engage in entrepreneurial activity (Yousafzai *et al.*, 2018).

Despite these many factors potentially influencing female entrepreneurial activity in Uganda, little is known about the relationship between entrepreneurship training and business start-ups within such a context. In Uganda, the United Nations Food and Agricultural Organisation stated that, “*women play a vital role in Uganda’s rural agricultural sector and contribute a higher than average share of crop labour in the region. A higher proportion of women than men work in farming, 76% versus 62%.*” (FAO (2018)). Yet compared to men, their productivity is low. In Uganda, many rural women-led enterprises are small and informal, providing goods and services to mainly local communities. Despite the growing number of rural female entrepreneurs, little is known regarding their business practices, availability of entrepreneurship training, growth

strategies, and career opportunities (Adeola *et al.*, 2018). This lack of knowledge surrounding of rural female entrepreneurs in Africa may be a contributing factor to the limited success of rural development policies in Africa. This coupled with the fact that rural female entrepreneurs do not feature in many poverty alleviation or entrepreneurship promotion strategies on the continent (Fox and Sohnesen, 2016).

Entrepreneurship enables females to use their income to support household and family goals, which in turn leads to healthier families, improvement in their standard of living, in addition to independence and autonomy (Ahl, 2006). Therefore, entrepreneurship training which provides tools to aspiring, nascent and practising female entrepreneurs for start-ups or to grow an existing business can enable female entrepreneurs reach their goals (Wannamakok and Chang, 2020). Yet information regarding the training of female entrepreneurs is effectively lacking due to the dearth of research on female success in entrepreneurship education programmes. Langowitz and Minitti (2007) found that females with a high level of education and training are more likely to engage in entrepreneurship. Bholia *et al.* (2006) confirmed that highly educated females are more likely to pursue opportunity-based ventures, while less educated females are more involved in necessity entrepreneurship. Thus, the level of training can be a differentiating factor in making the decision to engage in an entrepreneurial activity. However, in the majority of high-income countries, the female labour force has a higher tendency to attain tertiary education than the male labour force.

In contrast, in low-income rural communities, although the gender gap in primary and secondary schools is closing, females still lag behind their male counterparts in some developing economies (Langowitz and Minnitti, 2007). Gavigan (2018) explained that education and training for girls is vital in Uganda. This is due to girls in many developing economies having lower levels of educational attainment on average than boys at secondary level. A study undertaken by Kozlinska *et al.* (2020) found that

entrepreneurship training produces self-sufficient, enterprising individuals, particularly among women. This study further argued that entrepreneurship education increases the formation of new ventures, development of new products and more high-income businesses. The confirmation that entrepreneurship training has a successful effect among women is discussed by Thapa (2007), who found that entrepreneurship training had a significantly positive relationship with business start-ups, as well as their growth and success. Therefore, knowledge and skills are found to be among the major factors which drive the motivation of entrepreneurs.

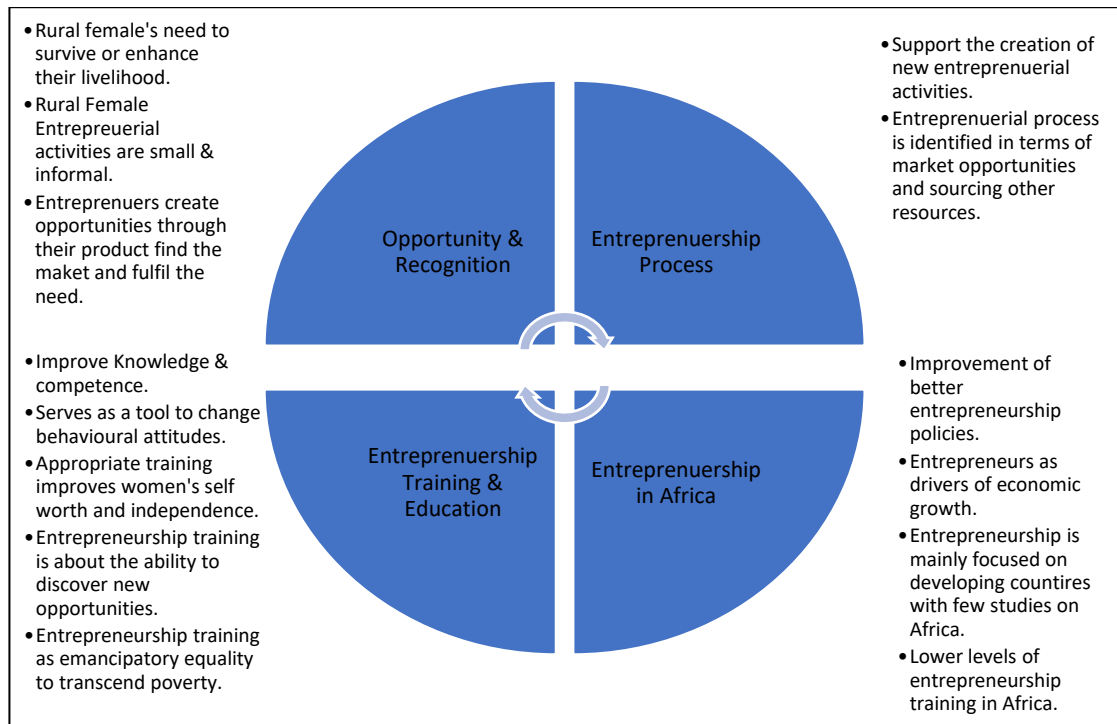
2.10 CONCLUSION

While the field of entrepreneurship training has expanded rapidly in recent years, it is still mainly focused on developed countries (Bruton *et al.*, 2013). Research has only recently focused on the characteristics, individual attributes, education entrepreneurial opportunities and the environment around entrepreneurship in the African economies such as Uganda. This new interest has come in the wake of the increased focus on the private sector in the development debate. Strengthening and promoting entrepreneurship has become a key feature of development policy in the African economies (Africa Commission, 2009). Entrepreneurship is typically seen as the solution to a range of challenges, and entrepreneurs are perceived as the drivers of economic and social transformation in Uganda. There is a growing emphasis in policy debates regarding rural female entrepreneurship as a poverty alleviation strategy and as a preferred tactic to spur economic growth in Uganda. Therefore, this research puts into perspective the nature of Uganda's rural women, paying close attention to nascent rural female entrepreneurs. For example, many of these rural women in Uganda are illiterate (approximately 75%) and run informal non-farming enterprises which are small and seasonal in nature (Guloba *et*

al., 2017). Socio-cultural norms, poverty and levels of education are some of the challenges which impede the growth of rural entrepreneurs.

In addition, accessing finance from banks is often not possible. These female entrepreneurs access finance through local groups such as rotating savings and credit associations, which are run by women themselves in rural areas. Training and mentoring for these women it is crucial before they start a business. Therefore, establishing effective training, management, and leadership programmes is key in enabling many female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Changing the mind-set of nascent rural female entrepreneurs can be difficult, especially in the case of those who have never started a business or those who have never run a profitable enterprise. Unless training is provided, there will not be a change in their mindset and their perceptions of women in business. The need for entrepreneurship training programme is key for nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This presents a research gap to investigate if the current provision of entrepreneurship training programmes supports nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Entrepreneurship training has is one of the key instruments to in enhancing the entrepreneurial attitudes of both potential and nascent entrepreneurs (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020).

Figure- 2.9- Factors Enhance Entrepreneurship Training



Source: Developed by author from literature review.

As shown in Figure 2.9 entrepreneurship training can equip women with knowledge and skills in starting a business as suggested by (Katz, 2007). This training is regarded as a practical tool which can change behaviour, attitudes, and promote entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes which result in increased entrepreneurial activity. However, a theoretical understanding of how and why entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies is still limited (Gielnik *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, research examining the ways training makes a difference for female entrepreneurs is required. McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) argued that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training seems to be limited. This may be due to the fact that entrepreneurial success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action, but constant training and development of new ideas, coupled with opportunities. Shane and Venkataraman (2000) also stated that training results in short-term changes in entrepreneurial behaviour and that it does not lead to long-term entrepreneurial success.

Therefore, it is critical that training is undertaken throughout the entrepreneurial process. Balan and Metcalfe (2012) argued that entrepreneurship training is not only about the transfer of knowledge, but also about the ability to discover new opportunities and master new entrepreneurial activities.

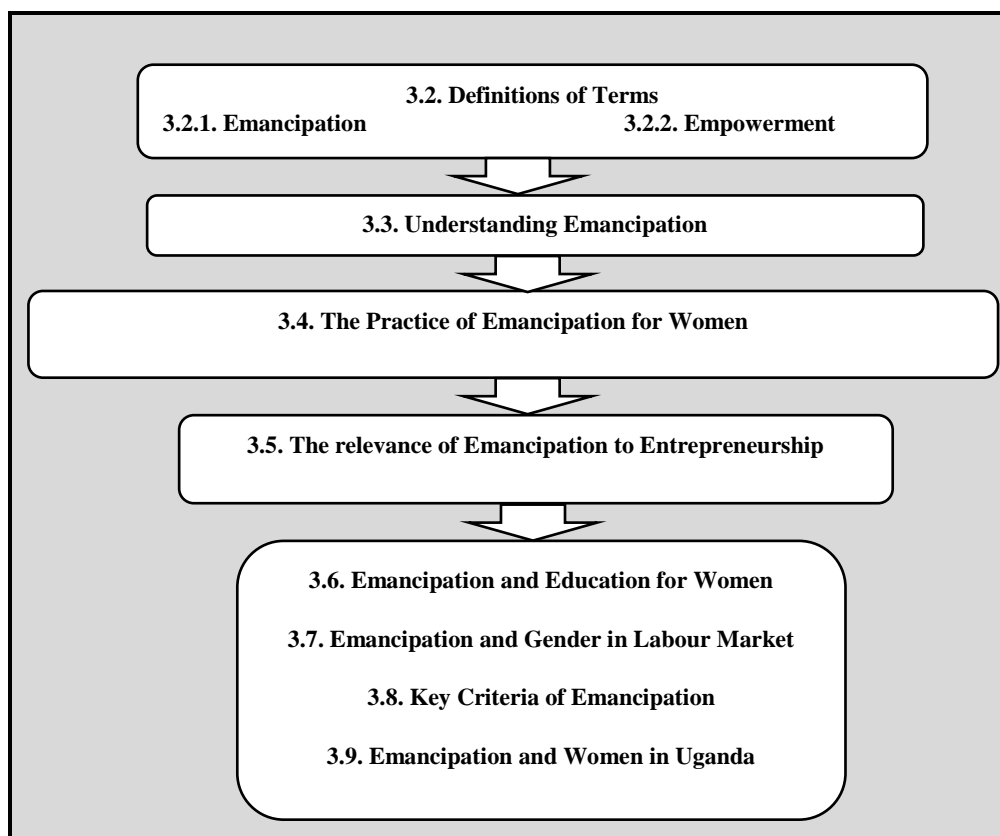
CHAPTER THREE: PERCEIVED EMANCIPATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of perceived emancipation is often associated with connotations of “freedom”, but the question remains thus, “*Freedom from what?*” This question answers the main aim of this chapter and it enables the researcher to address the research question, as emancipation is a critical contribution of the study. The chapter will critically examine the perspectives of emancipation for women, particularly in Uganda. Perceived emancipation as a process contains within itself an ongoing critique of existent injustices, particularly for rural female entrepreneurs.

The idea of perceived emancipation could also be modified during the process of its enforcement under the influence of changing social contexts. Therefore, emancipation, education and entrepreneurship are discussed in this chapter, in order to clearly show the initial process of developing the conceptual framework. This will clarify emancipation which is perceived to be a solution by which to liberate oneself from any kind of bondage. The concept of emancipation recognises some problems as it challenges the status quo. It can be argued that an educated woman is emancipated as she is aware of her rights and freedoms, as is argued in this chapter. The concept of emancipation plays a central role in modern educational theories and practices. Many educators view their task not simply as that of modifying or conditioning the behaviour of the learners. The educator wants learners to become independent and autonomous in order to be able to think for themselves, to make their own judgements and to draw their own conclusions (Biesta, 2010).

Figure 3.1: Discussion Outline of Chapter 3



Source: Author.

This chapter is divided into sections as shown in Figure 3.1: (I) Definition of the terms (i.e. emancipation and empowerment); (II) Understanding emancipation; (III) The practice of emancipation for women; (IV) The relevance of emancipation to entrepreneurship; (V) emancipation and education for women; (VI) Key criteria of emancipation; and (VII) Emancipation and women in Uganda. The components of this chapter indicate that emancipation is a phenomenon which is complex. Throughout this chapter, the discussion will focus on the key criteria of emancipation which will be elaborated in the framework at the end of Chapter Four. There has long been a debate surrounding the definitions of emancipation and empowerment, and this chapter sets out to examine and define both concepts. Emancipation plays a central role in this study and therefore it will be discussed in detail. However, the first part of the section will discuss the phenomenon of empowerment versus emancipation and how they differ.

3.2 DEFINITION OF EMPOWERMENT VERSUS EMANCIPATION

In the following discussion, the double-pronged phenomenon of empowerment and emancipation will be examined, clarifying both. The central role of emancipation for rural female entrepreneurs will be discussed, yet it is important to analyse empowerment also and what it involves, as both concepts are used differently. Many researchers of empowerment and emancipation see the two concepts as not only different, but also fundamentally incompatible due to their different ideological underpinnings. For instance, Inglis (1997) understood the difference between the two concepts as relating to how they view the present (societal) structures of power, suggesting that, “*Empowerment involves people developing capacities to act successfully within the existing system and structures of power, while emancipation concerns are critically analysing, resisting and challenging structures of power.*” However, Inglis argued that the current incompatibility between the two concepts is not a historically unchanging fact, but one that developed over time. This is due to the appropriation of the concept of empowerment by organisational management and industrial training.

Inglis (1997) suggested that by starting with an analysis of power, this leads to a distinction between the two concepts. Firstly, there is empowerment, which is perceived as a means for people to develop capacities through which they can act successfully within the existing system and structures of power. Conversely, emancipation concerns a critical analysis of power which could potentially bring about resistance and challenges the system of power itself. For example, the system of patriarchy or the system of capitalism. Therefore, Inglis argued that there is an over-reliance on the individual rather than on social movements as the agency for social change, which simplifies and distorts the understanding of emancipation. However, Somek (2013) argued that emancipation is a means to accord equal status to formerly marginalised groups. It is therefore important

to discuss what empowerment is and to analyse it in the following sub-section, before clarifying the nature of emancipation, as it is central to this study.

3.2.1. Definition of Empowerment

The term “empowerment” is used in many ways and in a wide range of contexts, including psychology, education, gender, race and disability. In sociology, empowerment is the action of increasing the influence of a social group (Sulosaari *et al.*, 2019). Suárez Vázquez *et al.* (2017) defined empowerment as a worldview which presents a solution to social problems and social policy. Joseph (2020) defined empowerment as an approach which involves supporting the services provided by social organisations for the greater good. Strzelecka *et al.* (2017) added that empowerment is a method which enables an individual to control their environment and achieve self-determination. Empowerment has been associated with a wide variety of radical social movements (Donaldson, 2017; Burrell, 2017; Digan *et al.*, 2019).

In recent years, empowerment has been appropriated by organisational management and industrial training, as discussed by Inglis. Nonetheless, in recent years, empowerment has received theoretical and practical attention from several scholars and activists. For example, Sen (1999) and Addison *et al.* (2019) described empowerment as, “*one of the central issues in the process of development for many countries in the world today,*” criticising national development efforts of the past for their concentration on aspects of wellbeing which treated women as “*passive recipients of welfare-enhancing help.*” Mishra and Tripathi (2011) argued that empowerment is the acquisition by women of “*agency and voice.*” One way of thinking about power, is in terms of the ability to make choices.

To be disempowered means to be denied choices, while empowerment referred to the processes by which those who have been denied the ability to make choices acquire

such an ability. In other words, for Sen (1999), empowerment entails a process of change. People who exercise a great deal of choice in their lives may be very powerful, but they are not empowered in the sense in which this research considers the concept, as they had never been in a position of disempowerment in their lives. Other scholars described empowerment as a process of personal and social change, taking place over interlinked and mutually reinforcing psychology, political, social and economic domain. Women, therefore, individually and collectively gain power, meaningful choices and control over their lives (Stuart *et al.*, 2017). This is not a linear, uncontested process, but instead a journey characterised by negotiating and compromising uncertain outcomes (Cornwall and Edwards, 2010).

Empowerment has attracted increased attention in recent years, but there is no universally agreed definition of economic empowerment. However, existing reviews in the literature have drawn particular criticism from scholars, academics and researchers, due to the paradoxical nature of empowerment across various settings and how empowerment is used (Jenne, 2014; Lam and Kwong, 2014). The paradox here refers to the situation in which the implementation of empowerment intervention leads to the opposite outcome: The dis-empowerment of the individual (Lam and Kwong, 2014). According to Welzel (2013, 2020), after comparing the two concepts, the human empowerment process has three elements:

- Action resources (these empower people existentially by making them capable of doing what they can).
- Emancipative values (these emancipate people psychologically, by motivating people to exercise their freedom).
- Civic entitlements (these empower people institutionally, by guaranteeing the exercise of freedom).

In Welzel's argument, when existential constraints on action resources decrease, freedom increases, and people gain control over their lives. As freedom arises, people's emancipative values emerge as a psychological reaction to increase action resources.

Joo *et al.* (2020) revealed, human agency within the environment is consistent with several assumptions. This is due to empowerment being a multi-level construct, and the radiating impact of one level of analysis on the others is assumed to be relevant. Reviewing the debate around the phenomenon of empowerment and emancipation in order to make an analytical distinction the argument is thus: Empowerment is defined as a means for women to develop capacities through which they can successfully operate within the existing system and structures of power; for example, entrepreneurial skills such as recognising opportunities to start a business. Meanwhile, emancipation concerns a critical analysis of power which may bring about resistance through which existing systems of power can be subverted. The next section defines in detail what emancipation is and the potential outcome of emancipation for female entrepreneurs.

3.2.2. Definition of Emancipation

The origin of this term relates to the Latin word "mancipare", which refers to taking ownership. When breaking up or breaking free from conventional constraints, the emancipated entrepreneur authors the self (Susen, 2014; Andrew and Baker, 2020). From the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* (1884), emancipation is defined as the process of being set free from legal, social or political restrictions. It is also described as liberation, as in the form of "*the social and political emancipation of women.*" This word originated from a Roman legal term for freeing slaves, as explained by Herzig (2015), now referring to the social and legal release of disadvantaged groups from a state of bondage (Chandrika, 2019), or the ruling aristocracy. Mascia (2020) argued that power must be viewed not as something which is static and possessed, but something which circulates

within everyone. Jacobson (2020) argued that the orientation to reach an understanding is a universal feature of human communication. It is central to overcoming self-interest and the domination of economic and political power in the lives of citizens. This is also the fundamental assumption underlying Mezirow's (1994, 1995) and Kokko's (2020) theory of adult learning. Emancipation is described as the process through which individuals and groups of women are freed from repressive social and ideological conditions, in particular those which place socially unnecessary restrictions upon human consciousness (Denizot *et al.*, 2019).

As the quest for freedom is adaptive, this desire flourishes or is hindered depending on the circumstances and the context of a given group of women, as suggested by Wetzel (2013). For example, for most of human history, inequalities existed (De Silva, 2016), in addition to miserable life conditions (Morris, 2019), the oppression of freedom (Rose *et al.*, 2019) along with many other disparities around the world. In contrast, oppression or lack of freedom is the direct antonym and necessary antecedent of emancipation, and it has negative interpretations and outcomes. Freire (1970) and Taylor (2019) argued that to dehumanise is to produce a 'culture of silence' and a 'fear of freedom' that is exploited for labour, in exchange for perceived security. According to authors such as Welzel (2013), there is a casual priority of culture that does not support women in pursuing their emancipation.

The study follows the definition of emancipation as proposed by Rindova *et al.* (2009) which states that:

“Emancipation is an act of seeking autonomy, authoring and pursuit of individual freedom.”

Education and training are inherent in the pursuit of autonomy (Delmar *et al.*, 2013), decision-making (Wittmann-price, 2004), individual freedom (Rindova *et al.*, 2009) and independence (Freire, 1996). Singh (2017) stated that education is also a means through

which one develops knowledge, values, skills and attitudes. As a result, education can also contribute to success in entrepreneurial activities (Pergelova *et al.*, 2017), which allow women to emancipate themselves (Rindova *et al.*, 2009). It is argued that some kind of vocabulary shift, accompanied by an ideological reframing, occurred in regards to the concepts of emancipation and empowerment, resulting in the decline of the former and the rise of the latter. This in regards to the goals of educational endeavours: “*Emancipation is past, and empowerment is present.*” according to Schmidt-Hertha, (2020). On the rise and fall of the concept of emancipation, Gross argued that:

“Emancipation has lost its charisma. In the 1960s, the term had been one of the saviour-concepts in the educational debate on social inequality and the political function of pedagogy in Western countries. Now days, as the discussion is still ongoing, the word is rarely in use. Overloaded with political enmeshments and a plurality of meanings, emancipation seems to be nothing more than a nearly forgotten relic of an ancient time.” (Gross, 2010).

However, in its critical traditions, there is always a new generation which finds something worth preserving in the concept of emancipation. For example, Freire (1996) and Ranciere (2009) reconsidered the aims and means of emancipatory education (Biesta 2010, 2012; Galloway, 2012; Vlieghe, 2016). This is only one example of a recent theoretical discussion in which the concept of emancipation is still critical. Another example is a recent debate considering entrepreneurship as a form of emancipation. McAdam *et al.* (2020) described emancipation as the pursuit to broaden the scope of entrepreneurship theorising, thus bringing within its remit, a wider range of organisational processes which share a capacity for transformation and change.

To conclude this section, emancipation has been discussed as a rallying cry associated with revolutionaries, intellectuals, and oppressed people. Therefore, the definition adopted within this research for emancipation concerns the process of being set free from legal, social or political restrictions and involving liberation (OED, 1884), such

as, “*the social and political emancipation of women.*” As long as women have enough resources to positively use their agency potential, the degree of freedom in their actions increases. Therefore, an understanding of emancipation is critical, as the next section argues that there are still remains inequalities and oppression for many female entrepreneurs.

3.3 UNDERSTANDING OF EMANCIPATION

The origins of the concept of emancipation can be traced back to ancient Roman law, where emancipation referred to the freeing of a son or wife either from legal authority or from the father of the family. Then therefore became a legal person and a self-reliant member of Roman civilization (Biesta, 2010). The act was to acknowledge the independent status of the son or wife by abolishing representation through the father or husband. In a broader sense, emancipation means to give away ownership or to relinquish one’s authority over someone else. This understanding would imply that the “object” of emancipation becomes independent and free due to the “act” of emancipation. Thus, from Roman times, the execution of emancipation related to social inequality and power (Gross, 2010; Takayanagi, 2019).

Gross (2010) argued that emancipation signified integration into the current order rather than freeing oneself from it, as only those who could ensure the permanence of paternal property were guaranteed emancipation. This process was closely intertwined with the unequal structures of society and the renewal of existing inequalities, rather than an attempt to change people. The literature suggests that only later did emancipation come to mean a process of relinquishing one’s authority over someone. The historical process of ‘emancipation’ was strengthened by a Europe-wide intellectual movement. This was at the time of Christian scholars, the Enlightenment and the internal Jewish sphere of Haskalah education (Reszke, 2013). The emancipation of Jewish peoples in Europe

constitutes a historical process which lasted several centuries. Its roots reach back to the age of mercantilism and the Enlightenment. The completion of this emancipation in legal terms was only achieved in the late 19th century. The term “emancipation” was originally used in association with the liberation of the Jewish citizens from ghetto life (Katz, 2020). However, Burdman (2020) discussed his view on the concept of emancipation and the association of a grand narratives which according to him function as stories which no longer have any connection to the fragmentation of the postmodern world.

The history of emancipation goes back to the Roman times, emancipation became a central educational interest in the writings of the Enlightenment. Authors such as Immanuel Kant defined enlightenment as “*man's [sic] release from his self-incurred tutelage,*” and saw tutelage or immaturity as “*man's [sic] inability to make use of his understanding without the direction from another,*” (McQuillan, 2019). Enlightenment thus entailed a process of becoming independent or autonomous, and for Kant, this autonomy was based on the use of one's reason. Kant contributed two further ideas to this line of thinking. Firstly, he argued that the “*propensity and vocation to free thinking,*” was not a contingent or historical possibility but should be seen as something that was an inherent part of human nature. It was man's “*ultimate destination,*” and the “*aim of his existence,*” (Biesta, 2019).

As stated earlier, emancipation carries connotations of freedom. The question to be asked is: “*Freedom from what?*” In the economic context of this research, this can be answered as emancipation from poverty, dependence, and lack of power, for female entrepreneurs in the emerging economies. Laclau (2007) argued that if emancipation is to be restored from its misuse, there is a need to highlight the importance of freedom within any conception. Freedom for Laclau is a freedom vis-à-vis the different forms of identification, which are important to imprison people within the network of an appealing logic (Säfström, 2011). That is freedom, which in a democratic society cannot

be a freedom within the idea of a total order, but one which has been negotiated in a specific way. It is therefore the duality of freedom.

3.4 THE PRACTICE OF EMANCIPATION FOR WOMEN

Emancipation contains within itself an ongoing critique of existent injustices, as social claims evolve in response to changing social circumstances. The idea of emancipation can also be modified during the process of its enforcement under the influence of changing social contexts. This is in order to elucidate the idea of emancipation research which is focused on the social form of care. This has been a fundamental issue in the articulation of women's claims to emancipation (Alkhaled and Berglund, 2018). This section of the chapter is focused on the practice of women's emancipation. It explores the subject of women in the political arena, as this is an important aspect for the emancipation of women, bringing their voices to the table as political leaders. Policies and research concerning women in health care have shown that over 71% of women make decisions for their families (Ezzatabadi *et al.*, 2019) when it comes to health care and the cultural aspects of women's emancipation.

The role of women in development initiatives is widely recognised in scholarly literature. For example, the fundamental rationale for enabling women's participation in public spaces is the intrinsic value of improved gender justice and women's emancipation as a basic human right (LeRoux-Rutledge, 2020). Development discourse emphasises that helping women is helping everybody (World Bank, 2011). For instance, Sen (1999) argued that women's literacy reduced child mortality, and that women's participation in local government leads to better policies for the poor and vulnerable. However, authors such as Galligan *et al.* (2019) along with Black and Dunne (2019) argued that gender equality is a core principle of democracy, and is reinforced in constitutions, treaties and legal texts. For example, in the case of Ireland, it is enshrined in Article 40.1 of the

constitution, which states that “*All citizens shall, as human persons, be held equal before law,*” (Doorley, 2018)). The Charter of the United Nations and international human rights instruments have confirmed that gender equality requires the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women such as stated in the (Convention on the Elimination of the Discrimination against Women, 1979) (Burke and Molitorisová, 2019). Men and women are equal, and are therefore entitled to equally enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil and political rights.

In practice, gains for females (for example, in politics), go beyond numbers, as argued by Paxton *et al.* (2013). For example in the USA, as more women become involved in national legislature, more is spent on social welfare and therefore there are better child health care outcomes, particularly in the most economically disadvantaged regions (Fallon *et al.*, 2012). In 2006, Sweden was ranked number 1 out of 115 countries (Yee and Kwing-Chin, 2020) which benchmarks national gender gaps on criteria based on economic, political, educational and health-based aspects. Various research studies have confirmed that higher levels of female legislative representation, can be correlated with the passing of more women-friendly policies, as well as increasing female representation in other areas of political, social and civil society. This includes labour unions and local government structures (Esarey and Schwindt-Bayer, 2017; Prata *et al.*, 2020).

In addition, the social role theory argued that there is bias in the evaluation of female leaders, caused by the gender stereotypes regarding female and male implicit constructs of leadership (Gerpott *et al.*, 2020). However, of late there has been an impressive rise in female political representation around the world. The global average in terms of the proportion of women in national parliaments has risen and the progress towards the goal of 30% female representation in decision-making in the parliamentary chambers has increased in some countries. For example, Table 3.1 shows the increase in

the political representation of women in African countries, with a higher increase in the world's top 10 countries in terms of female share such as Rwanda, with 60% of women in parliament (IPU, 2015).

Further research has shown different practices such as affirmative action in relation to women in politics or acting as board directors. For example, in the USA, reference has been made to governmental policies on preferential admissions of women into higher institutions of learning, as suggested by Salako (2019). However, in other countries they use legal measures to ensure factually equal position for men and women in professional and political positions. For instance, in Uganda, there are certain parliamentary seats reserved for only women in all districts in the country for woman MP seats (Tripp, 2019). In Argentina the electoral laws which were established as a point of responsibility for the rights of women as specific quotas, are allocated and considered for women, as in Ireland (Buckley and Gregory, 2019). The same case holds for other countries who have recently adapted similar policies such as India, Eritrea and Iran. In terms of women occupying parliamentary seats, this is central to sociological questions of gender and political power.

This clearly explains why some emerging economies, such as Rwanda, Cuba and Bolivia, fill over 45% of their parliamentary seats with women, as Table 3.1 shows. Although they are not listed, Papua New Guinea and Yemen have parliaments which do not even reach 1% (Paxton *et al.*, 2013).

Table 3.1: Percent of women in National Parliaments

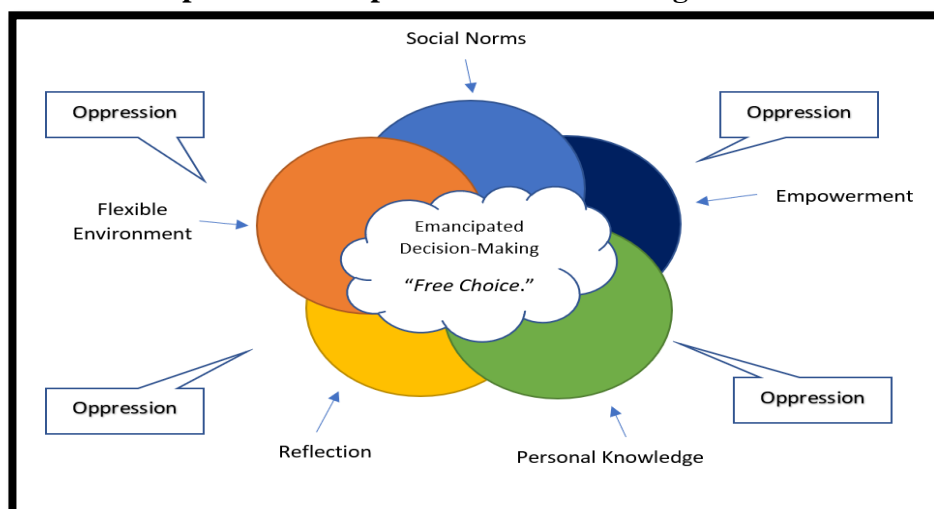
Country	Female Representation in Parliament
Rwanda	63.8%
Cuba	53.2%
Bolivia	53.1%
Mexico	48.2%
Iceland	47.6%
Grenada	46.7%
Sweden	46.1%
Nicaragua	45.7%
Costa Rica	45.6%
Seychelles	43.8%
Sweden	43.6%
South Africa	42.7%
Ecuador	41.6%
Finland	41.5%
Namibia	41.3%
Ethiopia	38%
Germany	37%
Burundi	36.4%
Tanzania	36.4%
Uganda	34.4%
America	30.3%
United Kingdom	30%
China	23.7%
Ireland	22.2%
Eritrea	22%
Saudi Arabia	19.9%
Malawi	16.7%
Malaysia	10.4%
Nigeria	6.2%

Source: Inter-parliamentary Union (IPU, 2015).

Emancipation is viewed as a health care concept which is derived from the long-standing history of social oppression, as discussed previously, and it is addressed by both critical social and feminist theory. Decision-making is critical for the emancipation for women and health care issues, which have historically reflected the social norms of paternal systems of medicine and academia (Ward *et al.*, 2018). Decision-making for women is a significant psychological concern, as women make most of the health care decisions for themselves and their family members, especially for their children. A Canadian survey found that women make 71% of the health care decisions, compared with 55% of men (Vaisson *et al.*, 2019).

Building decision-making from a nursing perspective is an important field of inquiry in the contemporary female care environment due to the increasing alternatives for patients and providers of care (Wittmann, 2004; Binford *et al.*, 2019). Some researchers have noted that developing without discussing oppression and emancipation in the humanistic care of women, is to deny obvious barriers to shared decision-making (Scarry, 1999). The presence of oppression and struggles in emancipation are not only obvious throughout history but are still part of the health care system today, as detailed in Figure 3.2, below.

Figure 3.2: Example of Emancipated Decision-Making in Women’s Healthcare



Source: (Wittmann 2004; Binford et al., 2019).

The choice is determined by a combination of personal knowledge with empowerment from professional knowledge. Figure 3.2 indicated that decisions are made in a flexible environment, and it precipitates the desired outcome of free choice. This indicates that if a choice has negative consequences, it is still bound by oppression. Emancipation involves equalising external and internal demands, which means that patients themselves choose what is best for them even if this is not the best alternative as determined by society's norms (Kalischuk and Thorpe, 2002). Therefore, emancipated decision-making must be cognitively liberating and must involve awareness on the part of the woman and what is the best alternative for her personally. Therefore, producing the ultimate goal of emancipated decision-making is a free choice.

The practice of emancipation involves a process of reaching a more positive state of being, a state of relative freedom in choice by firstly acknowledging an effective experience of oppression, as previously discussed. The experience is cognitively reflected upon, with or without dialogue. However, many women fail to reach a decision due to lack of knowledge about options regarding health care and the unclear perceptions of other people. This includes opinions and phenomena such as social pressure in local communities. For example, in rural Africa, many women are illiterate. There is also a lack of support from partners, a husband/partner may have two or three wives (Sarnak *et al.*, 2021). Many of these women are told by their partners that they (the partners) have nothing to do with their (the women's) problems. When a woman lacks emancipation, her decisions regarding health care for herself and for her family suffer in many ways. There may be conflict in terms of decision-making where she lacks knowledge (via a lack of information about medicine and advice), or in relation to the perceptions of other people (pressure from partners and communities) and resources (a lack of finance) (Binford *et al.*, 2020). Emancipated women can develop skills enabling them to make decisions for

themselves and their families. Therefore, education for women is a critical tool for emancipation.

3.5 EMANCIPATION AND EDUCATION FOR WOMEN

The concept of emancipation plays a central role in modern educational theories and practices. Many educators view their task not simply as that of modifying or conditioning the behaviour of learners. The educator wants learners to become independent and autonomous in order to think for themselves, to make their own judgements and draw their own conclusions (Biesta, 2010). For example, Gur-ze'ev (2005) and Guilherme *et al.* (2019) assert that the emancipatory approach is prominent where the aim of education is conceived as emancipating the learner from oppressive practices and structures, in the support of social justice and human freedom.

What is actually required for emancipation is the expansion of power. It is only when one perceives and understands how power operates that it becomes possible to address the influence of education. That is why notions such as “liberation” play a central role in critical education, as it is assumed that power also operates upon a person’s understanding of the situations they experience. And there is an important strand within the critical tradition in which it is argued that emancipation can only be brought about from the outside, from a position that is uncontaminated by the workings of power. This argument goes back to the Marxist notion of ideology and false consciousness, as discussed in the first section of this chapter. This is where education is perceived as the level of transition from immaturity to maturity, which means that education is intimately connected with the question of freedom.

Säfström (2020) argued that education, since the birth of Enlightenment, has been through a lens of truth and prosperity that shined on people. It is through education that people can live an emancipated life free from the burden of ignorance. However, some

scholars wonder whether there is any room for emancipation in educational policies that are spread all over the world, as education seems to have more of a connection with workforce politics than with emancipating citizens (Szkudlarek and Zamojski, 2020). Education is perceived here as being an exclusive vehicle for obtaining a job rather than learning about the complexities of the society in which one lives. Säfström (2020) insists that an education without emancipation is really no education at all.

However, Laclau (2007) argued that emancipation is a classic concept of any political imagination that is made up of incompatible lines of thought. Instead of dismissing emancipation altogether, Laclau claims that people should accept the basic ambiguity of emancipation. Laclau's argument about emancipation is helpful in two ways. Firstly, it situates emancipatory education in a state of ambiguity in a precise manner. Secondly, it introduces the idea that freedom is central in the context of education. In other words, freedom is an ambiguous possibility that is central for any understanding of education. What is difficult to understand with regard to Laclau is that his argument is basically a structural argument, which is not problematic in itself, but it becomes so when compared with Ranciere's (2009) argument on emancipation, which is rather aesthetic than structural in character, as discussed previously.

Education is a means through which one inculcates knowledge, values, skills and attitudes (Singh, 2017). It is regarded as an emancipatory right which enables marginalised persons and communities to transcend poverty, and to obtain the means to participate fully in community life. Education is a major tool for the socio-economic improvement of females in their communities. It also reduces social inequalities, political assertions and income distribution for females, especially in emerging economies.

The idea of emancipation recognises the problem and challenge of the status quo. It is clearly argued that educated women are emancipated when they are consciously

aware of their rights, able to make choices and have the freedom to contribute more efficiently towards their autonomy (Singh, 2017). This sometimes changes basic power relationships in society and stresses the role of education as transformative, which is inherent to freedom and emancipation. For example, Gandhi (1934) believed that injustice, violence and oppression manifest from the human heart. He believed that education can play an effective role in developing a wholesome human personality that is capable of resisting war, violence, injustice, oppression, in turn building a social order where a person can live in peace and harmony with others. In Gandhi's philosophy, education is indeed a vital social value. It can transform the destinies of women and is capable of establishing an alternative social order if it is practised from its true perspective. The following example more clearly describes this idea, involving an uneducated mother trapped in a bad marriage:

“A 19-year-old woman’s family arranged for her to marry a man who turned out to be violent. However, with no education and no job, and with her family refusing to support her, she was stuck on her own in the marriage. At the age of 27, the woman defied her husband and relatives to become the first person in her family to go to school. She graduated from university at the age of 32 and went on to establish a career as an investigator at the world’s largest investigation firm. During the same time, this woman managed to get divorced, win full custody of her children and obtain a final restraining order regarding her ex-husband.” (Reiss, 2015).

There are many examples similar to this, where education has proven to be a route to emancipation for women, allowing them to become free from their oppressors and make mature decisions to live a more profound life. The example given is simple, but when it comes to caring for children, women shoulder a larger share of the burden relative to men. In this example, education provided valuable insurance to the woman for the following reasons: (I) Without the higher wages associated with a higher education, a divorced mother would have to rely on the ex-husband and face uncertainties; and (II) An educated

woman will be better able to survive divorce and be less likely to be trapped in an oppressive marriage.

In some African economies, a woman's role is centred on marriage and motherhood. This also entails household duties and caring for family members and the sick (Snyder, 2000). Women must consult their husbands regarding the household and family matters, and they must respect their husband's decisions (Gipson *et al.*, 2010). It is assumed that men will have more than one wife or girlfriend, which is considered a sign of masculinity (Fleming *et al.*, 2016), whereas women are expected to be monogamous. These gender roles in African economies often constrain female access to income and other needs, including their participation in economic and political matters. Furthermore, the interplay between education, jobs, marriage and children dominates the lives of women. As these variables change and influence each other, both the standard of living and the family change.

Marriage and children may influence what jobs women take and their education decisions. Costello *et al.* (2016) argued that a high percentage of women stated that they stay at home to care for their children. Further research has shown that females with greater levels of education are more likely to work after marriage or return to work after their children grow up, compared to females with lower levels of education (Ely and Padavic, 2020). Education is a force in the overall strategy which allows females to have extended decisions. Empirical research has demonstrated that an emancipated woman with education is more likely to marry at a later age and have fewer children (Slotwinski and Stutzer, 2018). Education for women improves schooling for children and improves the health of children. In many developing countries, this argument has proven true. As a result, some development agencies and NGOs are offering support for programmes which encourage parents to send their female children to college (Ahmed and Hyndman-Rizk, 2020).

Females with higher education are more likely to obtain jobs in the teaching profession or the civil service, where males and females should receive the equal pay (Bosch and Barit, 2020). However, women still face discrimination in terms of equal pay, as will be discussed later in relation to the labour market. In some emerging economies, education is a human development tool and can increase the incomes of impoverished women and their families. Economic perspectives view education as a means which allows more women to be productive in their homes and workplaces. It can also be perceived as a means of emancipation socially and economically for deprived groups seeking political or economic reforms.

Wigley and Wigley (2006) insisted that education expands the knowledge of opportunities available to poor individuals, and it is often a necessary factor in providing incentives to escape poverty and social oppression for women. This can be viewed as a means of liberating women socially and economically, especially for deprived groups in communities. This approach of emancipation emphasises the importance of freedom of choice, individual heterogeneity and the multi-dimensional nature of welfare. Indeed, educators are challenged to think about how education can play a role in enabling women to lead a life they value, in addition to how education can enhance their wellbeing and support them in the development of their capabilities, creating more freedom to choose alternatives in the social and political context in which they live.

Education is not only a neutral process in which undisputed knowledge is transferred, but involves active ethical and political choices about how knowledge, skills and values are mediated in educational institutions (Singh, 2017). However, education through emancipation has brought about a change in female attitudes by providing educational opportunities. These opportunities have resulted in ending oppression by providing an impetus aimed at achieving equality. The question of whether to start with the assumption of equality or inequality is not a question of politics; it is a central question

for education. One could argue that the pedagogy of traditional emancipation is identical to the pedagogy of traditional education, in that education is often conceived as a practice in which those who do not yet know receive knowledge from those who do know (Ranciere, 2010). Ranciere argued that education conceived in this way is grounded in a fundamental inequality between one who educates and one who receives education. Therefore, Ranciere asks the question of whether this is the only way in which we can understand the logic of education and the logic of emancipation. Attention has been paid to Ranciere's description of emancipatory education, which, challenges the model that is commonly advocated by critical educators.

3.6 EMANCIPATION AND GENDER IN THE LABOUR MARKET

Females are undoubtedly taking an ever-increasing share of leadership roles in the corporate world. Research shows that there is a progression of leadership roles for females in greater numbers in corporate governance (Adams and Ferreira, 2008; Kakabadse *et al.*, 2015). This will lead to better firm performance (Ben-Amar *et al.*, 2013) and better for the firms (Grosvold *et al.*, 2016). Undoubtly, women are appearing in more leadership roles in the corporate world (Welter, 2013). These successful leadership roles provide a number of benefits for companies, including enhanced corporate governance practices (Kakabadse *et al.*, 2015).

Some research has suggested that there is a need for a gender quota in order to increase the worldwide boardroom gender imbalance. For example, Norway enacted a law in 2003 requiring that firms have at least 40% of their directors be female by 2008. Spain passed guidelines in 2007 to encourage firms to increase the share of female directors to 40% by 2015. While Ireland is expected to reach female directorship by 19% revealed by Ryan (2019). Furthermore, the French National Assembly proposed a law that it will impose 20% gender quotas, and similar laws are being prepared in Belgium,

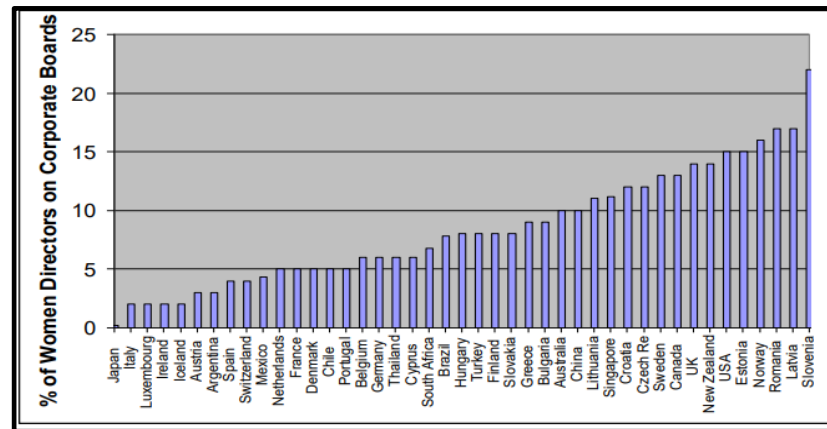
Germany and the Netherlands (Griffin *et al.*, 2019). A growing body of literature further confirms that the presence of women in the boardroom matters for corporate outcomes in relation to the emancipation of women. This is highlighted by Adams and Ferreira (2009) along with Apesteguija *et al.* (2012) who have documented that diversity is related to measures of corporate performance. Gender diversity on boards has been shown to support a broader set of options and solutions, driving improved decision-making through inclusivity of experience, viewpoints and perspectives (Zenou, 2018).

When a particular group in society is systemically excluded from the boardroom for reasons of gender rather than reasons of experience or talent, these boards are not operating at an optimal level (Hosny, 2019). Gender diversity and female presence on a board have been shown to impact governance quality in meaningful ways. Research has shown that women are as effective as men, as well as compliant, and that they display higher standards of governance (Vahama, 2017). Nonetheless, Matsa and Miller (2016) have found that the financial value of firms decreased following the introduction of the 40% gender quota for women directors in Norway. Despite all of these advantages for firms, females are still under-represented in the labour market and on corporate boards (Terjesen *et al.*, 2016). The gender gap representation in labour markets and boardrooms illustrates several burdens in the business world that hinder female access to leadership positions (Grosvold *et al.*, 2016). Corporate research has shown that a strong educational background is essential for women to attain higher positions in labour markets. For example, Singh and Vinncombe (2004) present evidence from Australia and the UK showing that university degrees are prevalent among female directors.

Evidence has shown that the required qualifications for women is higher than for men. To be seen as qualified for a corporate board positions, the educational achievements of women must be stronger than those of men (Terjesen *et al.*, 2009). Women tend to spend more time at home, managing household and family responsibilities. Women often

shoulder most of the household burdens, and this diminishes the time they can spend on working and networking. Both of which are essential if they want to rise through the ranks in their area of chosen employment (Gabaldon *et al.*, 2016). Figure 3.3 shows the percentage of women directors on corporate boards around Europe.

Figure 3.3: Percentage of Women on Corporate Boards



Source: Terjesen and Singh, (2008).

Figure 3.3 indicates that there are major differences between companies regarding board representation. This can be as low as 0.2% in Japan and as high as 22% in Slovenia. On average, women hold nearly 29 % of senior leadership positions, however this varies from 6 percent in Turkey to 46 % in the USA (Terjesen and Singh, 2008). The first woman was elected to parliament ranges from 1907 in Finland to 1992 in Croatia, The Czech Republic and Slovenia (Terjesen and Singh, 2008). It is emphasised that women tend not to focus on power, achievement and autonomy, in comparison to men. These expectations discourage women from aspiring to positions of high rank (Adams and Funk, 2012; Terjesen *et al.*, 2009).

Job selection committees often harbour stereotypes concerning women, in regards to inferior leadership skills which hinder their access to leadership positions in labour markets. The many assumptions that women lack the qualifications and expertise to succeed as directors for example, is an additional barrier for gender diversity and stereotype. Gender equality initiatives in the labour market have undoubtedly been the

main vehicle for implementing gender policy and have retained that over time. Inequality is a fundamental experience in social life. Two factors make it impossible to eliminate inequalities in the labour market entirely. Firstly, the need for hierarchies of power in any political and legal system. Secondly, the fact that there are natural inequalities of ability, enterprises and luck which affect a person's course in life (Millward-Hopkins, 2021).

When discussing inequality, the main question is not whether the world wants inequality, but rather how the world can deal with inequality. Critical pedagogy regards this challenge as one of its core issues and has developed several concepts focusing on at least three different aspects, in particular regard to women. The first is the emancipation of the underprivileged and oppressed (Freire, 1996), and this can easily be addressed by starting literacy and awareness campaigns for adults. The second is the claim that raising its voice against inequalities by establishing the critical relationship between pedagogy and politics is essential in combating inequality. Therefore, the question of equality and social justice cannot only be perceived as an arbitrary spare part, but it is the integrated pedagogy within its own structure.

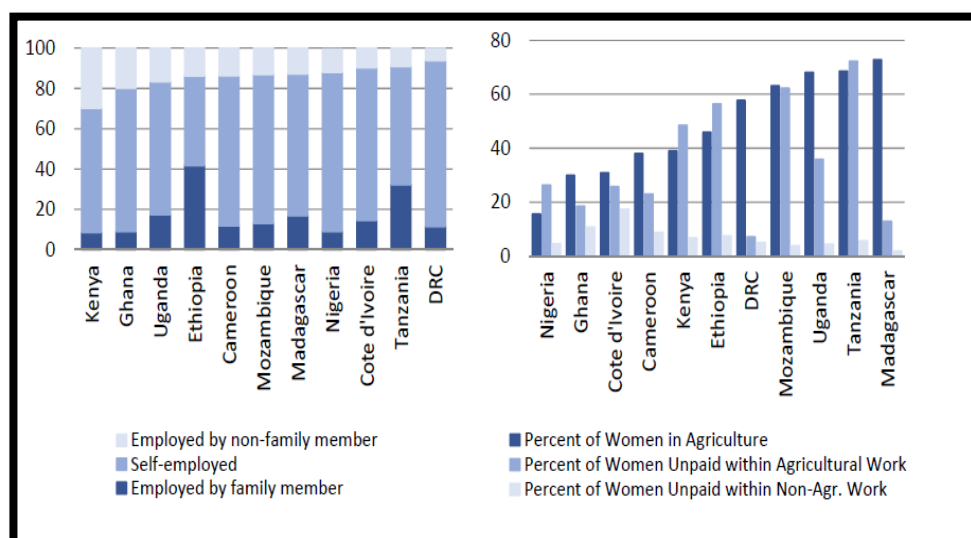
The focus on women's emancipation and employment in Africa is important for one or more reasons: (I) Women's employment is essential to eliminate poverty. This is not only due to the direct and interrelated contribution employment makes to household welfare. It is also due to the personal power it provides to women in shaping and making decisions in their families and household spending on family needs, especially for children's education and health care. (II) It promotes access to their rights and gender equality in employment, and international recognition that everyone deserves the same opportunities is critical. The World Bank (2016) notes that gender equality in employment is about fairness, equity, increasing productivity, widening the taxpayer base, enhancing development in decision-making, greater opportunities to expand women's businesses and contribution to social protection systems. Thus, gender equality

in employment is one of the greatest challenges facing many African economies. For Africa as a whole, the male employment-to-population ratio was estimated at 69.2% compared to a female employment-to-population ratio of 39.2% (World Bank, 2016). Literature suggested that key factors affecting the gender gap in employment relate to education, cultural norms and the infrastructures available for women, along with perceptions, expectations and political systems. The employment of women can improve development directly through economic growth and productivity, and indirectly through increased agency and lower fertility (Campos and Gassier, 2017).

There are some underlying gender constraints for firms and entrepreneurial performance in African economies that need to be considered, and there is evidence concerning those gender-specific constraints, as argued by Campos and Gassier (2017).

Employment by family members and self-employment are classified by the ILO as “vulnerable employment,” due to the informal nature of these occupations, as per Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.4: Vulnerable Employment (agriculture) and Unpaid Work among Women in Sub-Sahara Africa



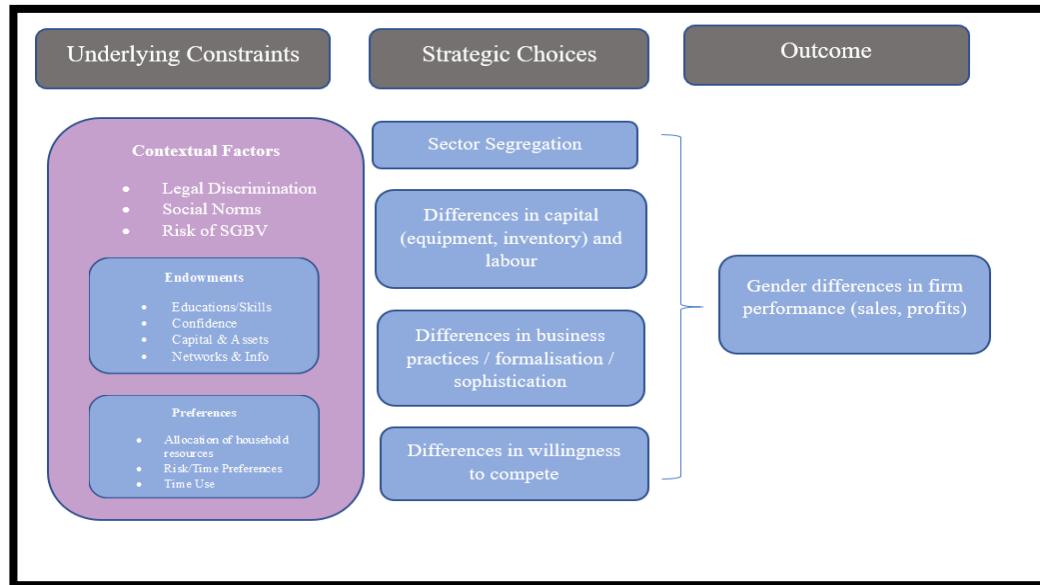
Source: ILO – Demographic and Health Survey Data 2008-2014,

The literature has shown that in 2013, the ratio of female-to-male labour force participation rates was higher in Sub-Saharan Africa than in any other region, at 0.84% (Campos and Gassier, 2017). However, these higher rates of female labour force participation mask underlying challenges. At the same time, the unemployment rate for women aged 15 to 24 was 1.26 times the rate faced by men (Elder and Siaka Koné, 2014).

In the African countries, the ratio of female-to-male employment rates varied widely across the region. Entrepreneurial activities by women in African economies have become a key feature of development policy (Africa Commission, 2009; UNDP, 2004). As a result, in some African economies, governments regard SMEs led by women as a means of increasing economic diversification, creating job opportunities, effective distribution of resources and providing support to women engaged in different sectors of the economy. This economic empowerment of women can also lead to improvements in their livelihoods (Singh and Belwal, 2008).

Both Reynolds (1999) and Sánchez (2011) advocated that one way to improve the labour market performance for women and to stimulate entrepreneurial activities is to provide appropriate education and training for women. Women's involvement in early stage entrepreneurial activity varies greatly around the world. Kelley *et al.* (2016) stated that although women start entrepreneurship to support their families and to attain financial independence, they face significant challenges such as a lack of education, lack of knowledge, lack of finance, lack of collateral and access to loans. Figure 3.6 shows the constraints that affect enterprises for female entrepreneurs in Africa. This enables us to better understand the choices that female entrepreneurs make.

Figure 3.5: Gender Constraints for Female Entrepreneurial Activities in Africa.



Source: Campos and Gassier (2017).

The figure clearly shows the underlying gender-specific constraints that restrict their choices. While employment rates are among the highest in the world, at 46.8% in African countries, this is not necessarily indicative of productivity. Women in Africa are mainly engaged in sectors traditionally perceived to be ‘female’ (Guloba *et al.*, 2017), which also match their existing knowledge and skills. Although the rates of entrepreneurial activity amongst women are almost equal to men in Uganda, women are much more likely to have a lower accumulation of business skills when compared to men (GEM, 2012). However, female-owned firms tend to adopt fewer advanced business practices such as marketing strategies and human resource management than male-owned firms (McKenzie and Woodruff, 2015).

To conclude, women’s emancipation and employment in Africa is important for many reasons. It is critical in increasing gender equality in employment, equity, productivity, widening the taxpayer base, enhancing development in decision-making, providing greater opportunities to expand women’s businesses and contribute to the social protection systems which support women’s welfare and their entrepreneurial activities. Thus, gender equality in employment is one of the greatest challenges facing many

African economies. As literature suggested that the key factors affecting the gender gap in employment relate to education, cultural norms and the infrastructures available for women, along with perceptions, expectations and political systems that needs to be improved. Therefore, the employment and entrepreneurial activities of women may improve their development directly through economic growth and productivity, and indirectly through increased agency.

3.7 THE RELEVANCE OF EMANCIPATION TO ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The relationship between entrepreneurship and emancipation was established by Rindova *et al.*, (2009), along with Goel and Karri (2020). This perspective is a worthy development as it moves entrepreneurship theory into a domain which has long been a concern for organisational scholars (Sklaveniti and Steyaert. 2020). The focus on emancipation broadens concerns regarding the role of organisational processes in the production of, and resistance to, inequalities of power (Garavan *et al.*, 2010). Shane (2003), along with Lopes and Lima (2019) suggested that the success of the entrepreneurial process is determined by an entrepreneur's ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors which affect individual value creation.

In addition, the emancipatory approach highlights the freeing or emancipatory process, and the results of becoming a new venture creator (Rindova *et al.*, 2009). This approach emphasises the importance of an entrepreneur as evolving oneself, just as new agencies emerge and propagate in the external world (Lindbergh and Schwartz, 2018). Verduyn *et al.* (2014) identified four interpretations of emancipation along two axis (utopian-dystopian and heterotopian-paratopian) and related these to various strands of critical entrepreneurship research to provide a framework from which others could build. Some literature has suggested that the greater participation of women in entrepreneurial

activity is increasingly being viewed as one of the prime contributors to individuals benefiting from economic growth (Shastri *et al.*, 2019).

Rural female entrepreneurs can use business as a tool to create value for oneself and one's community, which can also make a difference to wider society (Nguyen *et al.*, 2014). It has been further observed that women, through increased participation in income-generating activities, can contribute to the stability and reduction of social problems, therefore the need for independence in business start-up activity (Tadele *et al.*, 2019). This is what Rindova *et al.* (2009) tried to do when seeking, "*to broaden the focus of entrepreneurship research by drawing attention to the emancipatory aspects of entrepreneuring.*" Other authors such as Steyaert and Hjorth (2008) argued that women are not only good for entrepreneurship, but that entrepreneurship can also be good for women which brings social change through gendered norms.

Studies have shown that entrepreneurship emancipates women from poverty and creates jobs through entrepreneurial activities and therefore liberates them from patriarchy and labour market discrimination (Rosca *et al.*, 2020). More authors revealed that emancipation of female entrepreneurs have demonstrated the personal and financial gains of their entrepreneurship (Marlow, 2020), while emphasising the importance of formal enterprises such as policies, regulations and laws, along with the informal issues such as norms and attitudes surrounding the female entrepreneurs in the society (Welter and Smallbone, 2010). Although entrepreneurship seems to emancipate female entrepreneurs from oppressive systems in both the formal and informal businesses, this has been questioned by some researchers who have argued that female entrepreneurial activities are not likely to change the status quo (Jennings *et al.*, 2016), while others believe that female entrepreneurs efforts perpetuate their oppression within the pervasive system (Verduijn *et al.*, 2014).

As discussed earlier, Rindova *et al.* (2009) suggested a reconceptualization of entrepreneurial activity as being ‘entrepreneuring as emancipation,’ where the start-up of the business is viewed through an emancipatory lens. It can be seen as social change through the removal of constraints which affects female entrepreneurs while starting their own businesses. This is what Rindova sees as autonomy and freedom for becoming self-employed and a goal of emancipation which breaks free from authority and removes the perceived constraints in a variety of environments. It also works breaking economic and social-cultural barriers around female entrepreneurs. A further benefit comes from the psychological gain from the emancipatory entrepreneurial endeavours that female entrepreneurs achieve. However, other studies have suggested that there is no direct gender relations and forms of patriarchy from Rindova *et al.* (2009). However, there is an appreciation for context and the social aspects of entrepreneuring in the female entrepreneur’s environment, which led other scholars such as Goss *et al.* (2011) and Jennings *et al.* (2016) to adopt and use the approach. These studies are critical of the emancipation concepts within the context of the degree of freedom which the female entrepreneur gains (Goss *et al.*, 2011) the gendered relationship between entrepreneurs, their motivation and emancipation beyond the wealth creation (Al-Dajani and Marlow, 2013). This is also present in the contradiction regarding the oppressive and emancipatory potential of female entrepreneurs in the African contexts (Verduijn *et al.*, 2014).

Such arguments lead to an acknowledgment that female entrepreneurs can gain emancipation through their psychological factors, such as autonomy, self-esteem and being free. Researchers such as Gill and Ganesh (2017) described this as ‘bounded emancipation,’ which is intersected by context and experience that provides to the entrepreneur a more complex view of how emancipation works. This is further supported by Al-Dajani and Marlow (2013) who suggested that while female entrepreneurs may

gain from entreprenuring, patriarchal societies remain embedded within those particular contexts, and therefore women may be far less liberated than assumed.

Research shows that there are new avenues for future entrepreneurship as an instrument of emancipation. However, there has been an increasing interest in the broader social value of entrepreneurship, as discussed by Zahra and Wright (2016). While Rindova *et al.* (2009) called for new research directions that considered entrepreneurship, “*outside of its traditional contexts including the activities of explorers, artists, and scientists to migrant workers turned wine makers,*” others focused on the pursuit of freedom and autonomy. For example, Nelson Mandela stated that:

“.....the liberator of the South African political arena, with pragmatic nature showcased how Mandela emphasised the importance of entrepreneurial activities and the creation of a prosperous black middle-class emancipation; Nelson Mandela said, “the ANC has never in any period of its history advocated a revolutionary change in the economic structure of the country, nor has it to the best of his recollection, ever condemned capitalist society.” (Mandela, 1990)

Mandela argued that there were two fundamental routes to lift black South Africans out of poverty: (I) Through formal education; and (II) To ensure that blacks quickly acquired new skills. A better solution for Nelson Mandela was to pursue policies which liberated large numbers of the black majority through mass quality education and technical skill transfer. This would enable more than five million black small enterprises to emancipate poor communities. Therefore, the following section will discuss critically the key criteria of emancipation and the emancipation process for women as individuals and groups.

3.8 KEY CRITERIA FOR EMANCIPATION

As discussed earlier, emancipation is a process through which individual women become freed from repressive social and ideological conditions, especially those that are socially, economically and politically placed upon them (Denizot *et al.*, 2019). This

research critically analyses how emancipation is key to nascent rural female entrepreneurs and how they perceive entrepreneurial activities as their source of income. When discussing the perceptions of women and their expectations as new entrepreneurs (agents), acknowledging key emancipation criteria is essential. These criteria include freedom, independence, autonomy, perception, equality, decision-making and personal knowledge. These elements are critical when considering women who aspire to be business agents or entrepreneurs.

Female entrepreneurs are agents of change, using their businesses as a tool to create ripples of change in their communities (Rey-Martí *et al.*, 2015). The role of the agent remains unique, as the term “emancipation,” which refers to the act of setting free from the power of another, is critical for women in starting businesses, as suggested by Rindova *et al.* (2009). Women are one of the beneficiaries of this research and they make up the majority of small-scale entrepreneurs, especially in African countries such as Uganda (Webb *et al.*, 2020). This is due to the fact that women are often marginalised in many African economies, and by improving the lives of women, implies a significant impact on their families (Singh and Belwal. 2008; Araar *et al.*, 2019).

Furthermore, in the case of SMEs, there are emancipatory factors which play an important role in when influencing the behaviour of entrepreneurs along with their decision-making. These factors include age, gender, education and training, family background (number of children) and ethnicity (Gartner, 1988; Hisrich *et al.*, 1997; Nakara *et al.*, 2019). Female entrepreneurs are motivated to start their own businesses to be independent (Ngoasong, 2020). This is a very important factor in emancipation (being their own bosses), to achieve job satisfaction, for economic independence, for an opportunity to be more creative and to gain the freedom to start their own businesses (Zin *et al.*, 2020). The literature search of the key criteria yielded a substantial body of

knowledge regarding the sources of emancipation as shown in the Table 3.2 and Figure 3.7, of the key 13 criteria of emancipation.

Table 3.2: Key Sources of Emancipation Typology

Source	Dimension of Emancipation
Freire, 1996	Independence: Independence entails allowing rural women to use their own judgement as opposed to blindly following the assertions of others – for example, their husbands or partners – who may not give them permission to start their own enterprises. In order for emancipation to be realised when making entrepreneurial decisions, women (individuals) need to recognise that oppression exists and that it is negative.
Delmar <i>et al.</i> , 2013	Seeking autonomy: The need to develop emancipation theory is the expressed motivation for autonomy from the existing structures of authority, income reliance and resource constraints
Goss <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Kozan & Akdeniz, 2014. Oe & Mitsuhashi, 2013	Authoring: Authoring means becoming an engaged actor. To be a successful entrepreneur, one has to forge networks and relationships with other actors of power while starting an enterprise. The financial support of a new venture capitalist may be invaluable, but this support may come at the expense of giving up control of the entrepreneur’s business
Ranciere 2009 Bourdier 1999	Equality: One of the most interesting pieces of work was Ranciere’s radical premise of equality between beings. Ranciere did not disagree with the existence of power struggle, work division or unequal access to resources, nor did he deny the exploitative nature of wage relations or the “deskilling” of workers that the labour process theory highlights.
Singh, 2017	Education: Education as emancipation is a solution to liberate oneself from any kind of bondage. The idea of emancipation is to recognise problems and challenge the status quo. An educated person is emancipated when she is consciously aware of her rights and freedom.
Beijing, 1995	Decision-making: Discriminatory laws and practices hold women back in many ways. However, the Beijing Conference Agreement, which is known as a platform for action, referred to women involved power and decision-making as one of the main critical areas for the emancipation of women.
Kalischuck and Thorpe 2002 August-Brady, 2000	Flexible environment: Flexibility should also free people to make choices. A flexible environment can also be described as one that is responsive to change, leading to personal benefits for individuals and society. It increases choice and thereby enhances self-esteem and understanding.
Berragan, (1998) Polanyi (1958)	Personal knowledge: This is a type of knowledge that makes the individual self-aware. This is described as the ability to understand oneself. Personal knowledge influences everything one does, because it involves being aware of one’s own feelings
Ranciere (1998)	Perception: This is the mental space that is used to order the perception of the world and how we connect sensible experiences to intelligible modes of interpretation.
Verduijn <i>et al.</i> , 2014	Emotions: Emotions constitute factors in the decisions that people make in personal and professional relationships. Research suggests that deviant emotions constitute a driving force among subordinates as part of a power ritual.
Bird & Schjoedt, 2017; Weber & DeSoucey, 2008	Declarations: Making declarations refers here to the intentions and acts of creating change as a necessary component of the business. Through a declaration, an entrepreneur may position the new enterprise in a way that stakeholders might perceive as meaningful and valuable.
Romyn, 2000 Penney and Warelow (1999)	Reflection: This has also been called a form of critical thinking or cognitive awareness. Reflection is seen as developing a perception of questioning practices that are based solely on the tradition of emancipation or authority.
Rindova, 2009	Freedom: The role of the agent remains unique, because the pertinent term “emancipation”, which refers to the act of setting free from the power of another, this is critical for women starting businesses and therefore value creation.

Source: Literature review.

The emancipatory typology detailed in Table 3.2 and Figure 3.7 indicated an overarching framework that brings together individuals (women entrepreneurs), opportunities (environmental conditions), modes of organising (new ventures) and increased networks of new customers (value creation), demonstrating that the concept of emancipation is a complex phenomenon. Overall, the examination of perceived emancipation in this study occurs at an individual level, at a community level and a societal level overall, as it involves women who seek to improve their knowledge and skillsets in order to effectively manage a business, as well as grow through personal development.

Figure 3.6: Key Criteria of Emancipation



Source: Literature review.

Emancipation can be approached from distinct perspectives which carry different priorities, such as political or economic. For some women this may be making changes which give them greater freedom to pursue their goals (Batool *et al.*, 2020). Therefore,

the framework that will characterise entrepreneurship as emancipatory involves the 13 elements which are discussed below.

(I) Independence:

Independence entails allowing rural female entrepreneurs to use their own judgement as opposed to blindly following the assertions of others. For example, their husbands or partners who may not give them permission to start their own business. In order for emancipation to be realised when making entrepreneurial decisions, women (whether individuals or groups), need to recognise that oppression exists and that it is negative (Freire, 1996; Machakanja and Manuel, 2020). Freire referred to oppression as “dehumanisation” and explained that it is a concrete historical fact, not a given destiny but the result of unjust order (Freire, 1996).

Oppression and power imbalances decrease a person’s self-esteem and autonomy, and thereby restricts their choices. Female entrepreneurship is said to be a process constrained by gender ideologies. However, research shows that female entrepreneurship has the potential to produce change in women and communities, leading to greater gender equality, emancipation and empowerment (De Vita *et al.*, 2014). Although entrepreneurship itself might not be enough to produce complete gender equality, some women are using entrepreneurship as a tool to redefine themselves, gain independence and contest their subordination (Modarresi *et al.*, 2017).

(II) Autonomy:

The need to develop emancipation theory is the expressed motivation for autonomy from the existing structures of authority, income reliance and resource constraints (Delmar *et al.*, 2013). The hope for autonomy is consistently self-reported as among the top motivators for individuals who are self-employed (Schjoedt and Shaver., 2020). The creators of emancipation theory emphasised how the individual could create

change, which did not negate the creation of wealth. Autonomy is a fundamental goal of breaking free from the control of another agent – finding release from existing power structures and finding agency in oneself. In contrast to seeking autonomy, the theme of entrepreneurship research involves a focus on seeking opportunities and, after recognising them, developing a new system or innovation to provide a new solution (Karbasi & Rahmanseresht, 2020).

(III) Reflection:

Freire (1970 and Barros, 2020) described reflection as a consciousness or a learned method of perceiving society and its oppressive influence. This has also been called a form of critical thinking or cognitive awareness. Reflection is seen as developing a perception of questioning practices which are based solely on the tradition of emancipation or authority. This was further explained by Penney and Warelow (1999) as a behaviour: “*Reflection is action-stepping out of one self-framing the moment to understand it better.*” Reflection is needed to in order for a person to think critically about the information gained from personal and professional knowledge in order to synthesise the latter into decisions made in society.

(IV) Authoring:

Authoring means becoming an engaged actor (Goss *et al.*, 2011; Kozan and Akdeniz, 2014). To be a successful entrepreneur, one must forge networks and relationships with other actors of power while starting an enterprise. This task constitutes a pitfall met by many entrepreneurs. For example, the need to raise capital for new ventures is often an avenue by which to get the business off the ground (Ployhart *et al.*, 2014). The financial support of a new venture capitalist may be invaluable, but this support may come at the expense of giving up control of the entrepreneur’s business (Oe and Mitsuhashi, 2013). In addition, when starting an enterprise, building something which

consumers want could go against the motivation of doing something novel and creative while on the path to autonomy and authoring (Foley and O'Connor, 2013). Therefore, the entrepreneur needs to author a leadership role and company structure to ones that do not compromise the vision and original intent of the work (Engelen *et al.*, 2015).

(V) Declarations:

Making declarations refers here to the intentions and acts of creating change as a necessary component of the business. A declaration of independence is an important act with the intention to gain freedom in an enterprise. Through a declaration, an entrepreneur may position the new enterprise in a way which stakeholders might perceive as meaningful and valuable (Bird and Schjoedt, 2017).

The declaration could serve as the interface between two phenomena. One phenomenon consists of the new enterprise as an idea in the mind of the entrepreneur and the other phenomenon pertains to how the rest of the world might receive the idea (Welter *et al.*, 2017). The entrepreneur has to have very good knowledge of the new enterprise in the marketplace and how it will be received, as these are critical to the financial success of the enterprise.

(VI) Emotions:

Emotions constitute factors in the decisions that people make in personal and professional relationships. Research suggests that deviant emotions constitute a driving force among subordinates as part of a power ritual (Verduijn *et al.*, 2014). As discussed by Verduijn, deviant emotions are feelings experienced in response to a power ritual situation. The ritual involves some aspects such as the following: The physical co-presence of two or more actors being freed from a situation; barriers to outsiders (i.e. an awareness that participants are involved); and a common focus of attention on the activity and a shared mood. However, when there is success, these translate into an outcome of

collective solidarity, individual emotional energy, group symbols and standards of morality.

(VII) Equality:

One of the most interesting pieces of work from Ranciere (2009) was his radical premise of equality between beings. Ranciere did not disagree with the existence of power struggle, work division or unequal access to resources nor did he deny the exploitative nature of wage relations or the “deskilling” of workers that the labour process theory highlights (Kugler *et al.*, 2010). However, the starting point should not be inequality but equality. The only way to achieve equality is to assert it. Equality is not a goal to reach; it is a supposition to actualise. This is the fundamental reversal of what Ranciere (2009) called “*egalitarian syllogism*.” This is the major contribution of his work. He viewed equality as a founding premise rather than a programmatic goal which needed to be achieved. Within society, there are inequalities and emancipation involve the assertion of the logic of equality. This logic of equality is not utopian insofar as it is seen as something that should come in the future.

(VIII) Perception:

This is the mental space that is used to order the perception of the world and how we connect sensible experiences to intelligible modes of interpretation. This is enabled through the interruption and reconfiguration of what is called the share of perception (Ranciere, 2009). For example, to illustrate what he means by “*reconfiguring the shares of the sensible*,” this occurred in 494 BC when the majority plebeian class of ancient Rome left the city and threatened to settle in a new town. Furthermore, Ranciere (2009) stated that: “*The patricians do not hear the plebe. They do not hear that it is articulated language that comes out of their mouths. The plebes must not only argue their case but also set the stage on which their arguments are audible, on which they are visible as*

speaking subjects, referring to a common world of objects that the patricians are required to see and to recognise as encompassing both parties.” This mass action gained a series of political concessions from the ruling patrician class at a time.

(IX) Freedom:

Different people and groups have experienced and interpreted freedom in different ways. Each have challenged how others used the word. Freedom has been invoked by those in power to legitimise their aims and seized upon by others seeking to transform society. From the beginning of history, freedom was affected by the existence and the concept of slavery, as explained in relation to Roman law at the beginning of this chapter. Of course, freedom held a central place in other social languages which flourished in colonial times. Indeed, in the 18th century, the “invented tradition” of the “freeborn Englishman” became an essential feature of Anglo-American political culture and a major building block in Britain.

(X) Education:

Education as emancipation is a solution to liberate oneself from any kind of bondage. The idea of emancipation is to recognise problems and challenge the status quo. An educated person is emancipated when they are consciously aware of their rights and freedom. An educated person can contribute more efficiently towards their emancipation and autonomy. This sometimes changes the basic power relationships in society. This stress on the role of education as transformative is inherent in freedom and emancipation. Education is one of the most important factors affecting the holistic development of people. For example, Gandhi stated that injustice, violence and oppression manifested from the human heart and that education can play an effective role in developing a human personality capable of resisting war (Singh, 2017).

(XI) Decision-making:

Discriminatory laws and practices hold women back in many ways. However, the Beijing Conference Agreement, which is known as a platform for action, referred to women being involved in power and decision-making as one of the critical areas for their emancipation. Two essential commitments made at the conference included the following: (I) It called for measures ensuring women's equal access to, and full participation in, power structures and decision-making (political quotas and positive measures are examples of these). (II) It called for an increase in women's ability to participate and train in relation to leadership and political campaigning (Beijing, 1995).

(XII) Flexible environment:

A non-judgemental environment that supports freedom of choice is imperative. If the chosen alternative attracts sanctions of any sort, this just elicits another kind of oppression. Kalischuck and Thorpe (2002) stated that flexibility freed students to apply knowledge. Flexibility should also free people to make choices. A flexible environment can also be described as one that is responsive to change, leading to personal benefits for individuals and society. It increases choice and thereby enhances self-esteem and understanding.

(XIII) Knowledge:

This type of knowledge makes the individual self-aware. This is described as the ability to understand oneself. Personal knowledge influences everything one does, as it involves being aware of one's own feelings (Berragan, 1998). Grant (2007) described personal knowledge as objective, as it makes a person aware of how knowledge affects any situation. For example, competence in a language or sport requires a great deal of investment in training to build up that competence, which takes a long time to learn. If one stops using the language, it will diminish. New knowledge always begins with the

individual. For example, a business researcher has insight that leads to a new product, and a middle manager's intuitive sense of market trends becomes the catalyst for an important new product concept. In each case, an individual's personal knowledge is transformed into organisational knowledge which is valuable to the business or organisation.

To conclude this section, the concept of emancipation is a phenomenon that is quite complex. Throughout the discussion, this research found that emancipatory themes are present in many areas, such as education, psychology, nursing and, recently, in entrepreneurship. The key criteria of emancipation typology have been illustrated detailing 13 attributes that are key to this research. The main objective of this research is to evaluate how entrepreneurship training contributes to the perceived emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Although the research focused on articulating some elements which affect the emancipatory potential of entrepreneurship, the argument is open to further discussion, and it is important for research surrounding entrepreneurship to acknowledge that entrepreneurship itself is often an act aimed towards emancipation. This will draw attention to the many challenges that rural female entrepreneurs face as they start their enterprises. The consequence of emancipation is free choice. It is a modern concept with strong historical ties and requires exploration and development within the context of emancipatory entrepreneurship and female entrepreneurs in African Countries.

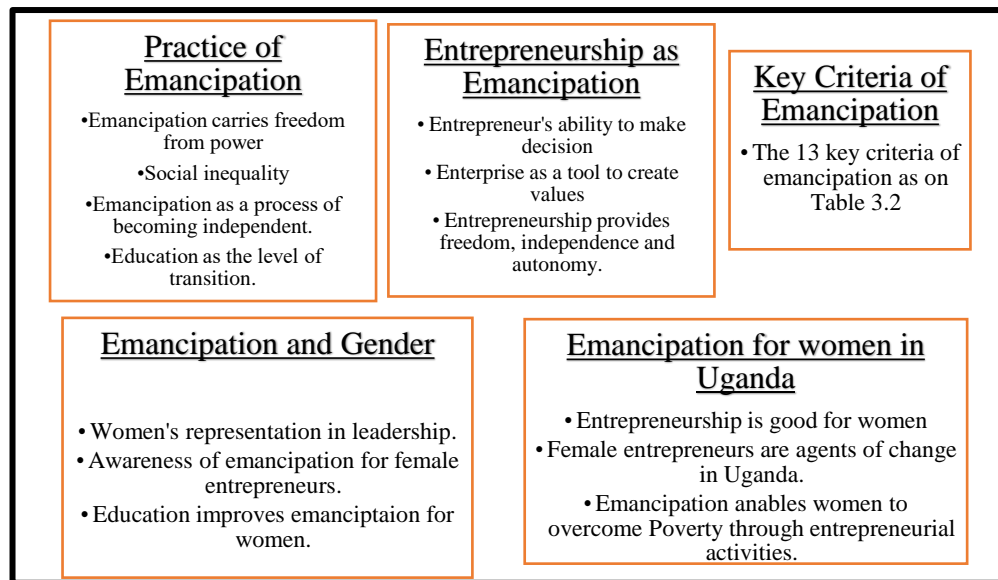
3.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter critically discussed some specific set of gender relations and the emancipatory potential of entrepreneurial capacity which are shared as an outcome from the literature, to examine the perspectives of emancipation for women in Uganda. Therefore, emancipation, education and entrepreneurship were discussed to set the initial process of the conceptual framework development. This is due to the fact that

emancipation is perceived to be a solution to liberate women. Literature in this chapter has shown that women were denied knowledge of their legitimate past, and they were profoundly affected individually by having to see the world through males' eyes.

History confirmed that the concept of emancipation can be traced back to ancient Roman terminology, more specifically to Roman law, where emancipation was taken to signify an act of freeing a son from the legal authority of his father (Biesta, 2010). The concept of “entrepreneuring-as-emancipation” shifts the ground of entrepreneurship research towards issues of change and transformation. There has been suggestion by researchers that, if the notion of emancipation is to bring a difference, it needs a more explicit understanding of what is involved in “the act of setting free from the power of another” (Rindova *et al.*, 2009). Figure 3.8 shows the links between entrepreneurship and emancipation and the main findings in Chapter Three.

Figure 3.7: Links between Entrepreneurship and Emancipation



Source: Developed by author from literature review.

Entrepreneurship is regarded as an emancipatory right which enables female entrepreneurs and their families to transcend poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in community life. Emancipation is a major tool for the socio-economic

improvement of females in their communities. It also reduces social inequalities, political assertions and boosts women's representation in leadership roles in Uganda. In addition, education has shown to improve emancipation of individuals (Biesta, 2012), as educated individuals gain knowledge and skills that improve their wellbeing (Singh, 2017). Research exploring the link between entrepreneurship training and emancipation remains limited. Therefore, this chapter delved further into what emancipation is, the process of emancipation, how it links to entrepreneurship training and education, and discussed in detail the 13 key criteria of emancipation that developed the chapter.

By analysing a specific set of gender relations in this chapter, one might show how the emancipatory potential of entrepreneurial capacity could be understood as an outcome of organised processes of constraint and agency. In conclusion, the research has attempted to critically examine the perspectives of emancipation for women, particularly in Uganda. The country has made great progress since the early 1990s. More women became Members of Parliament through the use of electoral gender quotas and they continue to raise awareness of emancipation for other women through their electoral membership particularly in areas related to family law, gender-based violence, land and changes in institutional cultures.

**CHAPTER FOUR: NASCENT RURAL FEMALE
ENTREPRENEURS IN UGANDA**

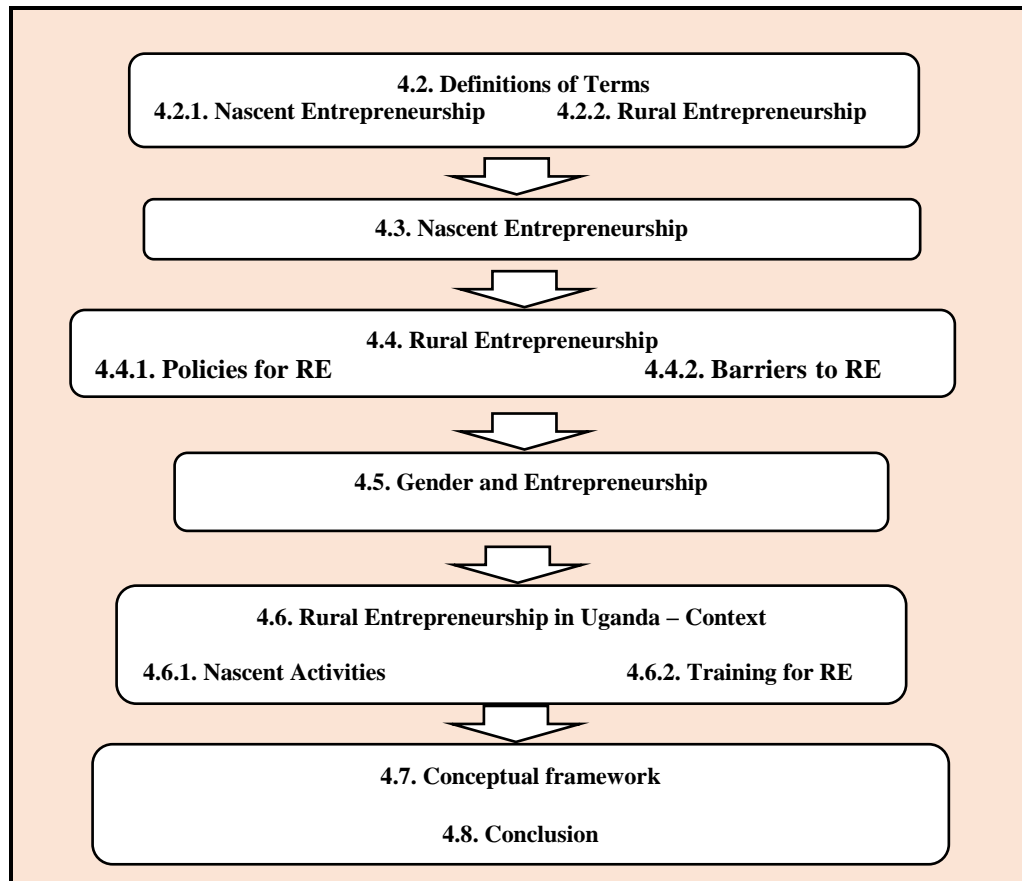
4.1. INTRODUCTION

While the number of nascent rural female entrepreneurs involved in entrepreneurial activities has grown in Uganda, significant disparities remain. The factors affecting long term entrepreneurial activities for women include poverty levels, lack of education and training, lack of employment opportunities, and access to productive resources and land (Kyrgidou and Petridou, 2013). Some studies have found that an increasing number of rural women are starting enterprises in rural communities because of a higher rate of unemployment and family commitments (Okolie *et al.*, 2021). Other studies suggested that women in Uganda are much less likely than men to have the skills necessary for business. In addition women tend towards necessity-driven enterprises rather than exploiting market opportunities (Balunywa *et al.*, 2012). Arguably, entrepreneurship is gender-biased as females face considerably greater challenges in their entrepreneurial endeavours than their male counterparts (Marlow and McAdam, 2013). For example, Lourenco *et al.* (2014) list multiple barriers to entrepreneurship for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, such as a lack of access to credit, gender inequality and lack of access to knowledge and training.

A significant percentage of household business owners involve family members in their business. This is true for a household farm, which falls into an economic segment commonly known as the informal sector. However, many studies have focused on urban areas, neglecting rural entrepreneurship (Naude, 2011; Lecuna, 2019). Therefore, this chapter will explore nascent rural female entrepreneurs and investigate the contribution of the rural entrepreneurs in Uganda. This chapter will further investigate the increasing number of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda who are entering entrepreneurial activities, while their role in society is changing with the growing economic leverage that they have been mastered (Ahmad *et al.*, 2020). This chapter starts by examining the definition of terms such as nascent entrepreneurs and rural entrepreneurship. It continues

to discuss and investigate in detail both concepts, including why they are important for this research.

Figure 4.1: Discussion Outline of the Chapter



Source: Author.

The knowledge gap regarding rural entrepreneurship constrains policymaking. This will be discussed in detail, as policies in these areas are lacking, and policies are required for the process of supporting rural female entrepreneurs. Nevertheless, this research is focused on nascent rural female entrepreneurs, revealing that there is an increasing number of women who are starting enterprises in rural communities because of a higher rate of unemployment and family commitment. According to Fox *et al.* (2013), enterprises in rural Africa may have to absorb at least 65 million new labour market entrants by 2020. Therefore, it is critical to investigate rural entrepreneurship, particularly in Uganda, as presented in the background and the context of the study. Furthermore, nascent rural entrepreneurial activities will be examined, and the chapter will conclude

by discussing the link between entrepreneurship training and the emancipation of rural nascent female entrepreneurs in rural Uganda.

4.2. DEFINITION OF TERMS

Before discussing and examining the theories of nascent entrepreneurship, it is important to define the meaning of nascent entrepreneurship and the rural entrepreneurship in order to clarify the contribution of these terms and their benefits to the study. While it is essential to define the terms, it is equally critical to explain why certain individuals succeed and others fail in starting new businesses in rural areas.

4.2.1. Definition of Nascent Entrepreneurship

New venture creation requires the practical intelligence to execute diverse tasks related to new enterprise creation (Baum *et al.*, 2011). Some research suggested that cognition in the form of how individuals perceive their entrepreneurial ability, also plays a role in making the decision to start an enterprise. For instance, those who develop positive perceptions regarding their entrepreneurial ability are more likely to initiate entrepreneurial activities than others (Arenius and Minniti 2005; Townsend *et al.*, 2010; DeClercq *et al.*, 2013; Wannamakok and Chang, 2020). Although, some researchers suggested that judgment based on perceptions is often inaccurate (Urban and Urban, 2019). As a result, inaccurate perceptions have the opposite effect on the decision to initiate entrepreneurial activities, especially among individuals with differences in abilities. Many factors can discourage nascent entrepreneurs from growing and becoming successful in their enterprises. What, then, is a nascent entrepreneur? A nascent entrepreneur is defined as a person who is trying to start a new business, who expects to be the founding owner or part owner of the new business (Reynolds *et al.*, 1999, 2004). This is a person who has been active in trying to start a new business – for example, in the past 12 months – and whose start-up did not have a positive monthly cash flow to

cover expenses such as the salary of the owner / manager for more than three months (Wagner, 2020).

Reynolds defines nascent entrepreneurship according to a range of specific behaviours that include planning, obtaining resources, networking, registration and similar activities related to organisational emergence (Carter *et al.*, 1996; Zhao and Smallbone 2019). Some of these activities may define the critical point by which certain individuals succeed and others fail in starting a new business (Hyder and Lussier, 2016). New businesses establish themselves by introducing new goods, new methods of production, new markets, new services or new ways of organising the business (Gartner, 1985). Nonetheless, authors such as Chadwick and Raver (2020) have explained that launching a new business is challenging for all entrepreneurs. This is particularly demanding for nascent entrepreneurs, who are burdened with the liability of newness, when trying to cope with searching for resources, as well as dealing with psychological challenges and risks (Politis *et al.*, 2019). This study adopted the definition of Reynolds *et al.* (2004) who defined nascent entrepreneurs as:

“A person who is trying to start a new business, who expects to be the founding owner or part owner of the new business.”

Furthermore, other authors have argued that nascent entrepreneur failure rates are high (Guerrero and Espinoza-Benavides, 2020), with half of new ventures failing in the first five years. Therefore, nascent entrepreneurs need to be strong to be able to cope effectively with the many challenges they face as they start their new ventures.

4.2.2. Definition of Rural Entrepreneurship

Rural entrepreneurship is a recent research area that has gained importance as the prevailing method of fostering rural development. Marković (2010) suggested that rural entrepreneurship emerges in economically and socially underdeveloped regions. These

regions are characterised by inadequate infrastructures, low levels of education, unskilled workforces and low incomes, where the level of local culture does not support rural women in enterprises. Important as it is, rural entrepreneurship has nonetheless only recently been clearly defined. Unfortunately, the research has failed to provide a clear definition what rural entrepreneurship is. Many authors assume that everyone knows what rural entrepreneurship means.

In a definition of entrepreneurship developed by Sandner and Geibel (2016) they adopted a definition of rural entrepreneurship as the creation of a new organisation which introduces a new product or service, or creates a new market entirely, or utilises new technology in a rural environment. For example, in this definition, rural entrepreneurship would include new organisations that: (I) Introduce a new agricultural product, such as corn starch in biodegradable plastics or dairy products; (II) Create a new market; or (III) utilise a new technology, such as the core-satellite model. This works as a food processor linked up with farmers through production and the exchange of agricultural inputs and services, for the assured delivery of produce.

Studies revealed that entrepreneurship serves as a vehicle to improve the quality of life for individuals, families and communities, as well as sustaining a healthy economy and environment in rural areas (Kurniasih *et al.*, 2019). When Wortman (1990) and de Gortari and Santos (2020) developed their definition of rural entrepreneurship, they suggested that it is a creation of a new organisation which introduces a new product or service, or creates a new market in a rural environment. Around the globe, rural areas are considered economically disadvantaged when compared to urban areas, and they are characterised by high unemployment, poverty, income inequality, poor economic activities, a lack of infrastructure and fewer social services (Fiseha *et al.*, 2019).

Many scholars have given different definitions, such as Carolan (2020), who has described rural areas as those which are sparsely settled, away from the influence of large cities and towns. Where people live in villages, on farms or in other isolated places. Furthermore, Fiseha *et al.* (2019) have defined rural areas as areas where people have settled on only a small share of land, where the environment is dominated by pastures, forests or deserts, and where there is low population density, with many people engaged in farm activities. Therefore, the concept of rural entrepreneurship arises due to the linkages between the concept of entrepreneurship and rural life. Boohene and Agyapong (2017) stated that entrepreneurship in a rural context is focused upon creating new employment opportunities through new ventures.

Wortman (1990) and Pato (2020) suggested a framework and a set of typologies for integrating the many definitions in the field of rural entrepreneurship to clarify the efforts that can advance the fields of rural entrepreneurship and small business. For the purpose of this study, a rural enterprise is defined as:

“An enterprise that employs local people, uses and provides local services and generates income flow to the rural environment, inferring that rural enterprises provide a ‘value-addition’ function to both their local economies and, in the case of larger ventures to wider economies and markets.”
(McElwee and Smith, 2014).

Traditionally, rural entrepreneurship research focused on the farmer (Marković 2010; Dung *et al.*, 2020). Yet the concept of “rural entrepreneurship” goes beyond that and covers many other activities. For instance, the creation of food and beverages, handcrafts, small-scale manufacturing, catering and tourism hospitality (Galvão *et al.*, 2020). Despite the above discussion, there is less known of the rural enterprise as a distinct concept and phenomenon. Rural enterprises have tended to be equated with land-based businesses such as farms and agricultural-related services.

4.3 NASCENT ENTREPRENEURSHIP

This section will discuss the identity of a nascent entrepreneur, as section 2.4.1 discussed in detail the nascent entrepreneurial process. To succeed in new venture creation, the literature has confirmed that following the business creation process is crucial, while dealing with the outcome in real time with a holistic perspective. This is when several dimensions are investigated, not separately but jointly, as suggested by Katz and Gartner (1998). Gartner adopted a framework of how new ventures came to be, with the four dimensions to support the study: (I) Individual(s) involved in the new venture creation; (II) The activities undertaken by those individuals during the venture creation process; (III) The organisational structure and strategy of the new venture; and (IV) The new venture's environment context (Delmar and Davidsson, 2006; Tunberg and Anderson, 2020).

Nascent entrepreneurs who, by definition, are in the early stages of their learning curves are particularly susceptible to these considerable forces and they react to new events (González-López *et al.*, 2020). In addition, there appears to a relationship between the frequency of gestation activities and the start of a new business. This is even though the sequential importance of activities is not conclusive (Teague and Gartner, 2020). Further literature has shown that nascent entrepreneurs are much more likely to make a transition to actual entrepreneurship if they have established credit with suppliers and received some money from nascent operations already. For example, if they own their own home, if they are planning a sole trader business and if they are the head of a household (Van der and Thurik, 2017). Furthermore, nascent entrepreneurs who take longer to launch their businesses, may be saving to provide more self-finance. This is usually that they might still be lacking networks and established links with suppliers or customers. As starting a new venture is complex, the literature has shown that entrepreneurial intentions are likely to affect the way nascent entrepreneurs perceive the

new venture and how to organize the activities (Chadwick and Raver, 2020). Aspiring nascent entrepreneurs need sufficiently high levels of confidence in their own abilities to start the venture and engage in subsequent activities to successfully bring the venture to life (Carsrud and Brannback 2011; Acciarini *et al.*, 2020).

Experience and training increase the confidence of nascent entrepreneurs, and as Townsend *et al.* (2010) confirmed, people's actions are contingent on their ability to take on the new venture. If individuals do not believe that they have what it takes to succeed in a particular activity, they will not engage in the new venture. Therefore, it is important to link this concept with the pre-start-up experience. For example, if the nascent entrepreneur had any previous entrepreneurial activity, labour market experience or formal education, all of these will contribute to and shape the entrepreneurial gestation process. This will eventually lead to the success of the new venture, as discussed in Chapter 2.4.2. The study collected information on the characteristics of the nascent entrepreneurs, their potential new businesses and the details of the start-up activities (Reynolds *et al.*, 2005). This study contributed to the understanding of the overall process, and the way experiences and intentions affect the success of the new ventures (Iyortsuun *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, there are substantial research opportunities to be explored in providing new information on the prevalence of individuals involved in new venture creation, and on the major activities undertaken to implement these new ventures at present.

The question then is, why are some founders able to create new ventures more quickly than others? In addition, why do other founders quit the start-up process sooner? Furthermore, why do some founders persist and become more successful? These are some of the questions that the research will examine and explore further. New venture start-ups can vary dramatically based on the characteristics of founders, and a possible answer may

be related to the capital structure decisions of the start-up venture (Kim *et al.*, 2018). Start-up financing is a relevant argument, as the kinds of financing utilised during the earliest phase of the venture creation process, influences how long a venture is in gestation. Hechavarria *et al.* (2015) argued that start-ups that use credit as their major source of start-up funding to reach new venture creation sooner than nascent entrepreneurs who do not, and their ownership is an additional factor to the success. Among nascent start-ups, there are two possible outcomes of the start-up process: New venture creation or quitting the start-up. According to Reynolds and Curtin (2009), a new firm is defined as a profitable venture affecting the prices and quantities of goods traded in the market. An alternative transition for nascent entrepreneurs is quitting the start-up process, as explained by Reynolds and Curtin (2009).

Reynolds (2007) has added a third status, called an ongoing or hold on attempt in the start-up efforts. Nascent ventures that fail to experience an outcome over the observation period remain in the hold phase and continue in the effort to start a new business. As regards a further argument to tackle the dilemma of starting a new venture and dealing with failure, entrepreneurship scholars such as Heß *et al.* (2019) embraced the concept of resilience. Studies have suggested that the capacity to bounce back from negative emotional experiences and flexibly adapt to the changing demand of stressful experiences enables entrepreneurs to be more successful if they are resilient (Davidsson and Gordon, 2016). However, scholars have been inconsistent in their conceptualisations regarding resilience. There is limited knowledge of how resilience enables nascent entrepreneurs to cope with challenges more effectively in the process of business creation (Hopp and Sonderegger 2015). Similarly, studies have linked different forms of proactive behaviour with the survival of a nascent entrepreneur's business. Proactive entrepreneurship might mean anticipating and preparing to be ready for challenges, as well as being able to overcome those challenges for a greater likelihood of success (Glaub

et al., 2014). Proactive entrepreneurs are thus more likely to continuously create advantageous opportunities for their business, which in turn succeed as they overcome the challenges to meet their goals (Jacob *et al.*, 2019).

Nascent entrepreneurs who are proactive develop relative skills and resources (such as social and psychological skills), that motivate them towards fulfilling the future demands of their new businesses. For example, proactive nascent entrepreneurs are more likely to seek out information, skills or resources that may be lacking in. They are therefore, in turn, likely to address those gaps and improve the success of their new venture (Mergemeier *et al.*, 2018). Indeed, proactivity is a key behaviour which may set apart a nascent entrepreneur who becomes successful opposed to those who fail. As discussed earlier, a nascent entrepreneur is viewed as someone involved in establishing a business venture, as suggested by Reynolds *et al.* (1999). Other sources of literature have revealed that the start-up process is comprised of different stages, such as aspirations of an entrepreneurial career, the attempt to start a business, market entry or abandonment during the venture creation process (Brandt, 2019). Research has found that many nascent entrepreneurs disengage from their initial business idea before starting their businesses (Reynolds, 2010). The question to ask here concerns why some individuals manage to start a new business, while others fail (Lofstrom *et al.*, 2014). However, scholars such as Cooney and Licciardi (2019) have questioned whether nascent entrepreneurs, and particularly those in disadvantaged communities, have the same reasons for starting a business as those in the mainstream population.

Meanwhile, other researchers have examined some individual characteristics such as self-efficacy, human capital components or social networks (Hechavarria *et al.*, 2012). Other hindering factors frequently reported as causing one to abandon a new business venture are financial and capital issues (Kollmann *et al.*, 2017). Further studies have cited

specific personal characteristics such as lack of confidence in one's ability, fear of failure (Kollmann *et al.*, 2017) and a lack of individual skills or knowledge, as hindering factors (Razmdoost *et al.*, 2019). Overall, there are no systematic and comprehensive considerations of barriers to nascent entrepreneurship. For example, the literature has revealed that if a nascent entrepreneur encounters a single barrier, such as being unable to acquire financial support, knowledge or networks to start a new business, they tend to abandon the business due to the financial difficulties they encounter.

4.4 RURAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Rural entrepreneurship is one of the new areas of research in the field of entrepreneurship. It has become one of the significant supportive factors for rural economic development and agribusiness around the world (Wortman, 1990; de Gortari and Santos, 2020). Research has shown that entrepreneurship is recognised as an area of management, and more recently, attention has been focused on rural entrepreneurship, agribusiness and small business for females in rural areas globally. This interest in rural entrepreneurship has brought many changes in rural society, and in particular for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in African economies. Studies show that the creation of new firms is a tremendously important phenomenon. Each year, globally, there are millions of people who engage in new venture start-up efforts (Wannamakok and Chang, 2020). These new ventures play a very significant role in creating new jobs, productivity, growth and innovations (Block *et al.*, 2017).

Research suggested that increasing demands made by society in rural areas as sites for tourism and recreation, as well as quality and regional food production, have transformed many rural communities from a production to a consumption space (Hu *et al.*, 2019). For this reason, rural areas have become multi-functional spaces for leisure, recreation, working and living (Wolski and Wójcik, 2019). Although rural areas in

Europe are still dominated by agricultural land use, activities such as tourism and agribusiness are becoming more rural than urban (Vitale and Cotella, 2020). Pérez-Caselles *et al.* (2008) suggested that agricultural land use will continue to decrease as more land is designated to nature and recreation areas, along with more space for housing (increasing by 4% by 2035). Further research has suggested that rural entrepreneurship typically involves agriculture or agribusiness, with many of the people involved in these activities living in rural communities, particularly in African countries (Yu and Artz, 2019). Scholars have confirmed that the majority of people in developing countries live in rural areas, and agriculture is their main occupation (Balunywa, 2009; 2020).

The literature illustrates agreement in regard to the challenges and opportunities that the rural context provides. In some rural and peripheral communities, employment has mainly relied on natural resources, particularly agricultural businesses. This has resulted in the loss of jobs due to structural and market adjustments in Africa (Anthopoulou, 2010). Conversely, there are new opportunities which have increased the demand for new ventures in rural communities to be of a sustainable nature. Such as tourism and recreation, agri-business, as well as quality products from light manufacturing sectors and processing (Akbar and Zaim, 2019).

In many cases, rural entrepreneurship offers an opportunity to develop cultural items such as local food, crafts, art, historical sites, which can be converted into resources to increase entrepreneurship opportunities (Sundermeier *et al.*, 2020). Rural entrepreneurship is critical as it plays a crucial role in addressing the social-economic challenges of rural poverty (Fiseha *et al.*, 2019), unemployment, inequality and low economic growth (Galvão *et al.*, 2020). Rural entrepreneurship has worked as a vehicle in improving the quality of life for individuals, families and communities, in order to sustain a healthy economy and environment around rural communities (Saxena, 2012).

Rural communities have met their basic needs, improved their health, created jobs for local people (Ademiluyi, 2019). As well as this, they have improved the availability of goods and services in the local communities, thereby improving local industry (Adenutsi, 2009; Fiseha *et al.*, 2019). Rural entrepreneurs are more likely to flourish in those rural areas, for instance, where the two approaches to rural development, the “bottom-up” and the “top-down”, complement each other. The “top-down” approach is effective when it is tailored to a local environment which it intends to support. Therefore, a prerequisite for the success of rural entrepreneurship, in relation to the “bottom-up” approach, is that ownership of the initiative remains in the hands of the members of rural communities. For example, the National Spatial Strategy (Scott *et al.*, 2020) and the national planning framework for Ireland (2002-2020), recognised the importance of making the most of cities, towns and rural places, to bring a better spread of opportunities and a better quality of life. The nature of the enterprises encouraged to be started in rural areas should be appropriate to those areas in terms of economic, social and environmental factors.

4.4.1. Policies for Rural Entrepreneurship

The relationship between entrepreneurship and economic growth has seen increased interest at the local, state and national levels. Recent research has shown the contribution that the entrepreneurial sector had to employment, in turn increasing GDP worldwide (Urbano *et al.*, 2019). There is significant work which has been established through entrepreneurial activities and this has social implications (Chell, 2013). Policy discussions centred on the idea that governments who want to stimulate their economies should reduce constraints on entrepreneurship.

For many countries, rural entrepreneurship policy presents a significant challenge. The effectiveness in practice depends on the establishment of an appropriate trade-off, along with low degrees of market power which is characteristic of highly fragmented

industries who yield higher industry performance but higher degrees of market power (Audretsch and Moog, 2020). During the 1980s, several countries in the Western world were unable to sustain competitive production. Coupled with the growing need for services, many public-owned enterprises became privatised and there was a reduction of regulatory controls on certain industries. In the case of government support policies, it is assumed that since governments are in the lead as regards entrepreneurial development, they should provide the necessary resources as much as possible. Such resources include the provision of an environment conducive to businesses which promote entrepreneurship. Government policies in this context include any course of action which is aimed at regulating and improving the conditions of SMEs. These can be in terms of supporting, implementing and funding policies for rural entrepreneurship (Dana and Ratten, 2017). For example, Scott (2019) highlighted the National Spatial Strategy in Ireland, and the following features as appropriate to elements of rural entrepreneurship policy:

- Enterprise policies must be flexible to facilitate local circumstances, rather than being rigid national ones.
- Policy regarding enterprises must involve features which go beyond the bounds of traditional enterprise policy.
- Policies in relation to enterprise in rural areas and in smaller towns should be seen as an integrated package.
- Consistency and co-ordination regarding the choice of rural enterprise locations among the various national bodies involved should be ensured rather than each having its own.

This presents the question of whether an entrepreneurial approach should be applied in rural areas. Bock (2010) suggested that rural areas, in general, are characterised by a deficit in entrepreneurial attainment.

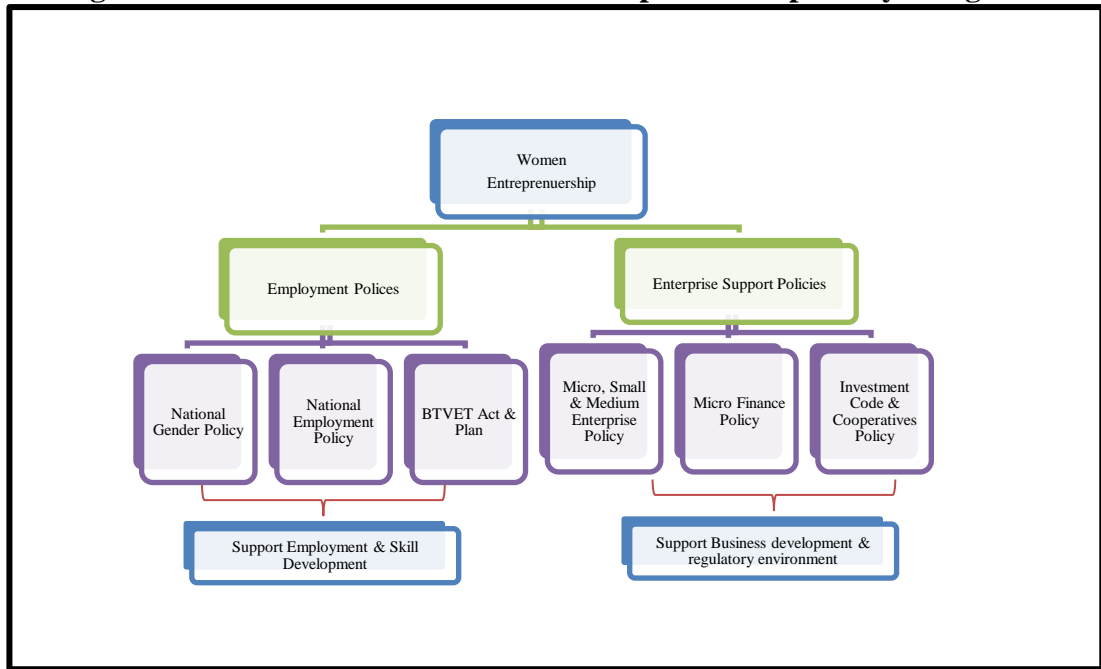
Other researchers argued that the idea of “rural” is often portrayed as underdeveloped and peripheral (Scott *et al.*, 2020) and as having few employment opportunities. For instance, entry into the local labour market for women is constrained by the lack of basic child-care facilities, as well as traditional gender barriers which view women as being “by nature” home-centred or nurturers, not as the breadwinner of a family (Collazos and Mora, 2020). As a result, rural women often take the primary responsibility for the household and child rearing rather than taking the initiative to become an entrepreneur. Rural entrepreneurship tends to be dominated by what is traditionally viewed as women’s activities and this often involves a low level of entrepreneurial activities. Research suggested that many female rural entrepreneurs, particularly in African countries, become entrepreneurs due to the need to survive, or to enhance their livelihood. They can then be dependent on the opportunity structures that are available (Lassle and McElwee, 2016). Family support is often fundamental to these nascent rural female entrepreneurs, but the added presence of role models and mentors is found to be influential in supporting women’s decision-making and entrepreneurship choices.

In many African economies, attempts have been made to implement policies that enhance the finances offered to entrepreneurs (Harrison *et al.*, 2020). This specifically includes governments that have tried to reduce the financial constraints faced by entrepreneurial ventures, by adding instruments such as mutual credit guarantees and microfinance schemes to traditional bank loans for rural female entrepreneurs. These mutual credit guarantees have the advantage of reducing information asymmetries, thereby reducing transaction costs for entrepreneurs, especially those in rural

communities. However, empirical evidence on the effectiveness of financial support is mixed. For example, Nguyen *et al.* (2020) argued that credit assistance programmes, in the form of interest subsidies, effect on the allocation of credit to target entrepreneurs. This comes at the cost of non-targeted entrepreneurs. Another contributing factor to the lack of rural entrepreneurship in Africa is the increase of urbanization and industrialization which have consequently been a focus of policy development and in turn repressed rural entrepreneurship in rural communities. Studies show that the main focus in Africa has been on urban areas rather than rural areas. Further literature suggested that around 50% of household income in rural Africa comes from rural entrepreneurship (Rijakers and Coast, 2012).

However, in Uganda, there is no specific law or policy exclusively addressing entrepreneurship, and Guloba *et al.* 2017 confirmed that there is no need to establish one. They further suggested that entrepreneurship is embedded in several existing policies and laws such as the national gender policy (2007), the national youth policy (2016), the national employment policy (2011), and the education training strategy plan (2015-2020) among others. Figure 4.2 summarises the policies and regulatory framework in Uganda

Figure 4.2: Classification of Women Entrepreneurship Policy in Uganda



Source: Guloba et al. (2017).

While these local entrepreneurial policies are still evolving, they are becoming more relevant and impacting the overall portfolio of economic policy instruments. In the last 20 years, governments such as in Uganda have become increasingly active at assisting entrepreneurs at the regional level and fostering industrial clusters, technology transfer and high-tech start-ups under the assumption that these sectors will be competitive in the future (Mayanja *et al.*, 2020).

4.4.2. Barriers to Rural Entrepreneurship

According to the United Nations (2007), the nature of a country's culture acts as a barrier to female entrepreneurship in many countries. It hinders their access to capital, control over their own labour and decision-making powers. These cultural norms have stifled the untapped potential of female entrepreneurship as a contributor towards economic growth in many countries, particularly emerging economies. For instance, recent statistics suggested that the representation of females in formal small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) in the Middle East is the lowest in the world (World Bank,

2011). This is a result of socio-cultural and religious factors, which define the role of females in relatively narrow terms relative to entrepreneurial activity.

In many African countries, cultural norms within society have prevented females from engaging in entrepreneurship or reduced their entrepreneurial activity. However, this phenomenon affects not only African nations, but in South-Asian nations also. The business environment for females reflects a complex interplay of various factors, such as psychological, socio-cultural, religious, economic and educational factors. In these regions, females remain far behind males in terms of freedoms and other basic human rights, never mind the freedom to participate with males on an equal footing in economic activities. The low levels of education and lack of training opportunities for female entrepreneurs in rural areas (the illiteracy rate for females is still higher than that of males), is also considered as a hindrance to women contributing to the economic growth of rural communities. Consequently, research by Rafiki and Nasution (2019) found that rural female entrepreneurs in Indonesia are left behind due to social, cultural and religious taboos preventing females from accessing higher education.

Table 4.1: Summary of Some Challenges and Suggested Initiatives

Problems	Suggested Initiatives
<p><u>Technical assistance:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High cost • Few support institutions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation and training of national trainers • Application of successful experiences • Promotion and development of institutions for support services of a technical kind
<p><u>Entrepreneurial attitude/behaviours</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency towards isolation • Lack of organisation and integration • Little willingness to undertake associative entrepreneurial projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurial training and preparation • Dissemination of successful associative experience • Support to, and co-operation with, existing businesses • Training and preparation of enterprising young people
<p><u>Financing:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited access to financing for both start-ups and expanding enterprises • Lack of endorsement and guarantees 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assistance in the establishment of credit schemes targeting SMEs • Co-operatives
<p><u>Policy and enabling environment:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excessive regulations and formalities • Political and economic instability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification of specific obstacles and bottlenecks • Adaptation and adjustment of the legal framework
<p><u>Gender imbalances:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulties for women to start-up businesses • Difficulties for women entrepreneurs to get access to support and finance services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurial training and preparation • Sharing of experiences and best practices for women entrepreneurs • Assistance in the establishment of micro-credit schemes geared towards women
<p><u>Qualification of Human resources:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of training and very little specialisation • Low levels of productivity • Low valuation and encouragement to work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skilled training • Managerial training • Improvement of the work environment and organisational climate
<p><u>Market:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low share in the domestic market and almost no share in external markets • Lack of expertise in the area of domestic and external marketing • Lack of insight into product differentiation and other competitiveness issues 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Entrepreneurial training and preparation • Information links, and regional and international networks • Establishment of business and entrepreneurial co-operatives

Source: Sherief (2008).

Table 4.1 summarises the problems faced by SMEs in rural areas and the suggested initiatives which may help overcome these challenges in African countries. Some government organisations such as ILO and Irish Aid partnered in 2008 to provide business

support and training. This was accomplished by access markets through trade fairs and exhibitions, support services, strengthening the voice of female entrepreneurs and representation through networks and to improve much-needed entrepreneurship training for rural female entrepreneurs (Foy, 2013). Conversely, cultural norms related to ownership rights, which deprive female entrepreneurs of land and property ownership or access to bank loans in some cultures, also reduce female entrepreneurial contributions to economic growth (Sebina-Zziwa and Kibombo, 2020). For example, in countries such as Malaysia, Indonesia and many African countries, female entrepreneurs are faced with challenges due to land ownership, thereby making involvement in entrepreneurial activity difficult (Prasad, 1998).

In conclusion, difficulties in accessing education and start-up loans reflect cultural barriers and discriminatory treatment experienced by rural female entrepreneurs (Etim and Iwu, 2019). Therefore, it is crucial that future government programmes emphasise the status of female entrepreneurs as equal partners in society. Awareness programmes to educate people on the important role that rural female entrepreneurs play in creating prosperity through job creation and reducing poverty in their communities should be on the agenda.

4.5 GENDER AND RURAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Gender is one of the primary means through which people anchor and develop a stable sense of self and social identity. Marlow (2020) discussed gender through a lens of the self and one's social identity. Hearn (2020) stated that gender as a category is associated with male privilege, power and hierarchy. According to Adom and Anambane (2019), gender operates as a primary cultural frame which structures social relations, creates privilege for men over women, and is reinforced through social interaction in domains such as work and family life. It is suggested by some studies that female identity

is partially constructed within the power dynamics of hierarchical gender politics, which can have a constricting effect on self-identity (Marlow, 2020). The definition of gender for the purpose of this study has been adopted from Cush *et al.* (2018):

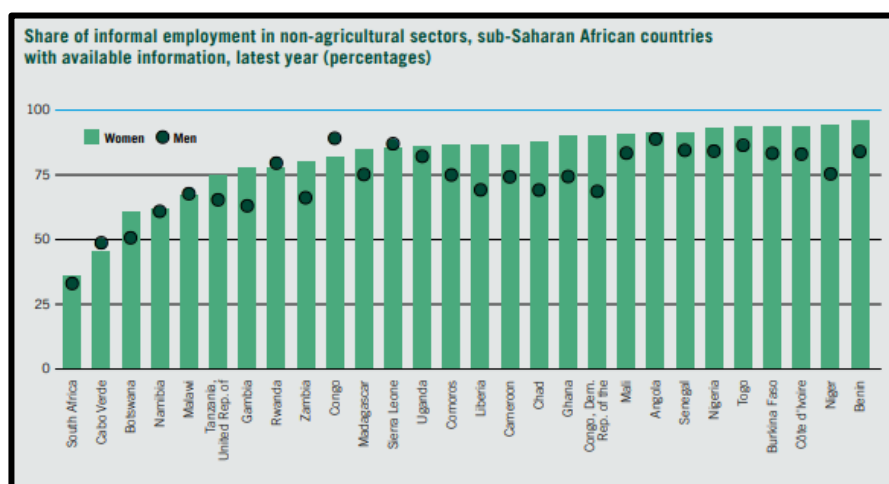
“Gender is regarded as involved in the primary ordering of social identities: It is a collective categorisation, marking boundaries of difference between female and male, stressing similarity within these social categories, but also emphasising difference within hierarchies of males and females.”

Research observed that gender, like identity, is simultaneously internal and external to the person (Pinna, 2020). Gender is implicated in the composition of self-identity, affecting personal conceptions of social identities of womanhood and manhood. When discussing gender and rural entrepreneurship, there are some factors which are critical and one of them is land ownership. Byrne *et al.* (2014) explained that in many parts of the world, men own a higher percentage of land, than women. For instance, in countries which lie outside of the EU, these disparities are greater. In Vietnam for example, only 8% of the land is held by women, with 5% of this jointly held with a spouse. While in Peru, only 13% of landowners are women, and 13% is held jointly (García-Reyes and Wiig, 2020).

Taking the Republic of Ireland for example, farmland transactions indicate that two thirds of farms remain in family ownership for a century or more (NDP GEU, 2004) with only 12% of farms owned by women (Shortall, 2018). Fremstad and Paul (2020) argued that a gendered distinction between the productive (male) and reproductive (female), on the family farm persists. This is a consequence of patrilineal succession norms, where the farm is passed from father to son, with women mainly entering farming through marriage rather than entrepreneurial choice (Cush and Macken-Walsh, 2016). Rural female entrepreneurs are generally involved in home-based activities that do not require a large initial investment. This is particularly true when they face a shortage of collateral, such as those related to Agri-tourism, crafts, care services, and agro-food

production and processing, not faced by men. Figure 4.3 shows the informal employment in non-farm sectors for women and men in the Sub-Sahara Africa. The figure shows that women are over-represented in informal employment in many African countries. Rural female entrepreneurs utilise local resources such as farm production and family labour, along with tacit knowledge and know-how which can be adapted to local consumer demand (Anthopoulou, 2010). Figure 4.3 shows the informal employment in non-farm sectors for women and men in Sub-Sahara Africa.

Figure 4.3: Informal Employment in Non-Agricultural Sectors in Sub-Saharan Africa



Source: ILO (2018)

The reason for this is due to the higher proportion of women who work as contributing family worker. This is a category which accounts for approximately one-third of overall informal employment in the African economies (ILO, 2018).

Women’s enterprises are mainly small and informal businesses (Nagler and Naude, 2014), with nearly 95% of rural enterprises employing less than five workers (Ijatuyi, 2020). According to the ILO (2018) the share of women in informal employment in African countries is 4.6% higher than that of men, including agricultural workers. The gender gap is much higher in some Sub-Sahara African countries, at over 20%. In close

to one third of Sub-Saharan countries according to available data (ILO, 2018), the share of women in non-agricultural employment, who are in informal employment is over 90%. While for men, the share is approximately 82%. The gender perspective is often applied in the analysis and evaluation of initiatives taken by women, and the challenges they face in starting, managing and developing their new ventures. It has been argued that rural female entrepreneurs are subject to the gender gap and thus have different expectations from their achievements compared to men (Anthopoulou, 2010). A further example, females in Uganda constitute 51 percent of the total population (UNFPA, 2017). One in every four house holds 31 percent are headed by a female (UNFPA, 2017). According to the Global Gender Gap (2016) Uganda ranks 61 overall position out of 144 countries in terms of addressing the gender gap. Vision 2040 points out that in spite of progress in the political and decision-making arena, other conditions sustaining gender inequality in Uganda remain salient, including gender disparities in access and control over productive resources such as land, limited share of female wage employment in non-agriculture, limited participation in household, decision making, and increase of gender-based violence.

There are many factors which could account for the “gender gap” in small enterprise success. For instance, structural factors such as firm size, the age of the business, the type of business, the status of the sector, the legal status of the business and the capital to be invested in the business. Yet in regards to women, their perceptions about starting a business, demographic characteristics and specific features of human capital (for example, education and work experience, the degree of commitment to the business, along with the quality of social and business networks), all influence rural female entrepreneurs (Bird and Sapp, 2004). According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, it is likely that, when informal sectors are taken into consideration, women contribute an even greater role to rural entrepreneurship as previously thought (Minitti *et al.*, 2005).

In summary, the deficit in entrepreneurial attainment on the part of rural entrepreneurs is likely to be further exacerbated by the practical as well as the ideological and cultural barriers that women face, irrespective of whether the environment is urban or rural when starting a business. Perception and social prejudices concerning gender role distribution in the family, deficiencies in basic child-care facilities, gendered stereotypical social images, gendered-based inequalities of access to developmental resources, such as credit and financial systems, training and information, and a lack of education all affect nascent rural female entrepreneurs (Driga *et al.*, 2009). In rural areas, women encounter more obstacles that restrict their opportunities and limit their opportunities for starting or successfully managing a business. Accepting the implications of this argument, the next section will further explore these barriers in a detailed context.

4.6 RURAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN UGANDA

Throughout Africa, rural entrepreneurship is varied, and businesses are often located in family homes, market squares and road vendor locations. These rural enterprises tend to be small and informal businesses, providing a wide range of goods and services for rural communities (Nagler and Naude, 2014). Scholars such as Muriithi (2017) have argued that the main drivers of economic growth in Africa are small and medium enterprises (SMEs). The SMEs in the rural agri-food industry in Africa play a significant role in reducing poverty, improving the GDP and reducing unemployment (Mamman *et al.*, 2019). Kauffmann (2005) has found that in Sub-Saharan Africa, SMEs account for more than 95 percent of all firms. Fierro *et al.* (2018) suggested that African governments and non-governmental organisations place considerable importance on small and micro-scale businesses in order to develop and assess the current entrepreneurial environments. This has been confirmed by Gajbiye and Laghate (2017) and Lyakurwa (2009) who stated that the SMEs in African economies are important drivers for economic growth, with approximately 80% of the population in Africa

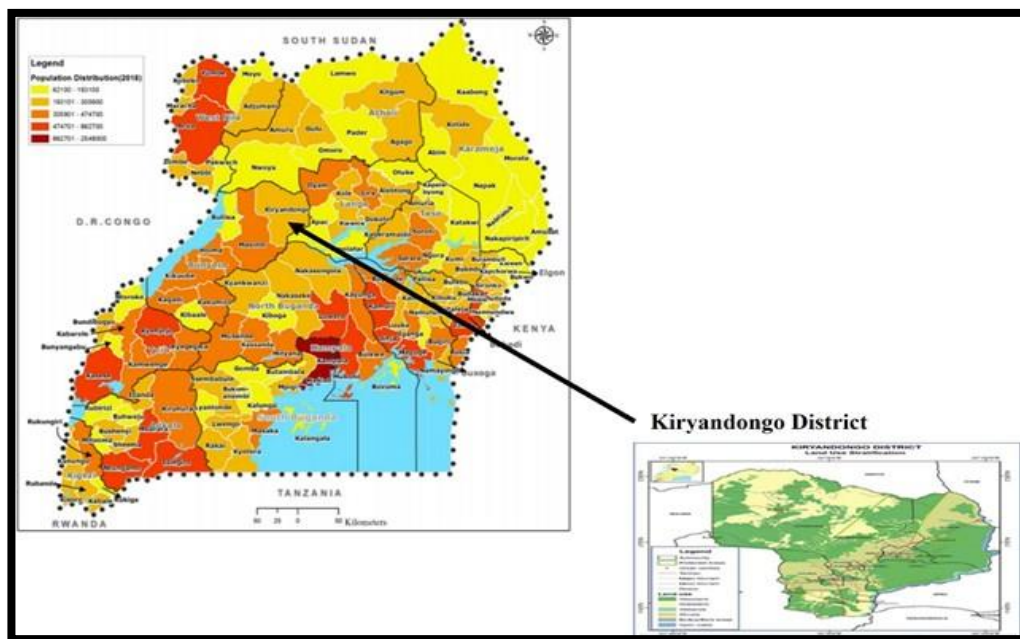
working in small and growing businesses. A significant level of population growth is expected in the future, which means that the anticipated increase in demand for goods and services will need to be matched. This can only be achieved with an increase in entrepreneurship activity. An important factor in entrepreneurship activity is to provide individuals willing to start a business with appropriate business training (Raposo and Paço, 2011) and therefore job creation.

This section presents the contextual background of the study, including the history of Uganda, its economic growth, and the role played by SMEs (in particular rural entrepreneurs). SMEs account for over 95% of all businesses outside of the agricultural sector, which constitutes a major source of employment and generates significant domestic and export-related earnings in rural communities. This is specifically through nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda (Tumwesigye, 2019). Therefore, the development and sustainability of SMEs is a key instrument in poverty reduction in Uganda.

- **Geographical location of the study**

As Figure 4.4 shows, Uganda is a landlocked country, sharing its borders to the East with Kenya, to the North with Sudan, to the West with The Democratic Republic of Congo, to the Southwest with Rwanda and to the South with Tanzania. Uganda has an area of 241,000 sq. km, of which approximately 44,000 sq. km consists of inland water, and it lies at the equator. According to UBOS (2019), Uganda had a population of approximately 45 million people in 2019, and its economy is predominantly agricultural, based on coffee and tea, which are its major exports. The Kiryandongo district is the area in which the field study took place and it is located in the North-Western region of Uganda with its headquarters 218 km from Kampala.

Figure 4.4: Map of Uganda



Source: Google map.

Kiryandongo borders with Nwoya district in the North, Oyam in the Northeast, Apac in the East, Masindi in the South and Southwest in Buliisa. The district has a land area of 3,624.1 km² of which 1,747 km² is arable land. UBOS (2014) recorded the population of Kiryandongo at 266,197, of which 133,701 (50.3%) are male and 132,496 (49.7%) are female. The Kiryandongo district has a refugee population of over 64,000 people (Atari and McKague, 2019).

The Kiryandongo belong to diverse ethnic backgrounds including: The Acholi, Masaaba, Kenyan Lous, Congolese and South Sudanese (UIA, 2012; 2019). The majority of the population in the district are engaged in farming and the main crops are: Cassava, maize, sweet potatoes, beans, rice, sunflower, chia, and tobacco. Other major business activities include livestock rearing and fishing. Many women engage in farming activities, roadside vending, markets, restaurants, hair salons. While men engage in wholesale and retail merchandise, metal works, carpentry workshops, taxi driving and boda boda (moto cycle) transportation for hire.

- **History of Uganda**

When Uganda gained independence from the British Protectorate (from 1894 to 1962), there was a political power struggle between various groups until the late 1960s (Reid, 2017). During the 1970s and 1980s, the country experienced civil and social unrest, all of which culminated in a military coup in 1971 when Idi Amin seized control of the country, ruling until 1978. During this period, the level of unrest in the country was high. Many entrepreneurs and employers, who were of Asian descent, were forced out of the country, which exacerbated the economic downturn Uganda was experiencing. The reign of Idi Amin ended in 1979 and Uganda was subsequently led by President Milton Obote from 1979 to 1985. However, the economic chaos engendered by the years of military mismanagement of the economy and the instability it caused, meant Uganda required a stronger government to make changes (Karugire, (2010).

The National Resistance Movement came to power in 1986, led by President Yoweri Kaguta Museveni. Museveni has overseen the country since. Many people believed that the arrival of President Yoweri K. Museveni signalled the end of war. Nevertheless, under his presidency, a range of wars and conflicts continued to rage. One of the major reasons for civil war against is against the Lord's Resistance army, led by warlord Joseph Kony. This represent a further major challenge to the economic development and social well-being of so many of the people of Uganda (Bakashaba, 2019). After establishing security, the government carried out a series of economic rehabilitations through structural adjustment programmes (Hope, 2019).

- **Ugandan Economy**

Uganda suffered from political turmoil and economic mismanagement from the early 1970s until the mid-1980s. Most of the country's infrastructure and manufacturing industries were destroyed or collapsed due to wars. The aforementioned expulsion of the

Asian community from Uganda was also a major blow to the economy (Monteith, 2019). The government's incoherent policies and the subsequent declaration of an economic war hastened the movement of money out of Uganda and only proved to accelerate the rate of economic decline (Bakashaba, 2019). The outcome of the expulsion of the Asian community was the East African Community and the common market was dismantled in 1977. This contributed to the decline of the manufacturing sector and wholesale trade, which had been run by Asian businesses. Furthermore, these years saw many skilled workers flee the country, leading to a rapid deterioration of human capital and managerial skills. The economy collapsed, and agricultural output had no value because of the insecurity and war which existed in rural areas of the country (Fan and Zhang, 2008).

- **The Present Situation of Uganda**

Uganda has made great strides towards economic growth in the recent past and reduction of poverty began in the late 1980s. As the economy changed, the annual GDP climbed steadily from 3% to 6.9% per annum during the 1990s (Fan and Zhang, 2008). As a result, the proportion of the population below the poverty line fell from 56% in 1992 to 35% in 1999 (Fan and Zhang, 2008). However, this success was not equally distributed among all regions of the country or between rural and urban areas. Those living below the poverty line remains severe in rural areas at 39%, while it was a mere 10% percent in urban areas (Nandyose, 2019). As a result, the majority of the poor in Uganda are concentrated in rural areas, with agriculture as their primary source of income.

In the cities and urban areas, the drive for privatisation started in the early 1990s, making the government of Uganda the number one national employer. Nevertheless, the civil and public service reform downsized public services, reducing the number of staff employed by central government from 320,000 in 1990 to 191,324 in March 2001. This represented a reduction of 40 percent (Kintu *et al.*, 2019). As a result, tens of thousands

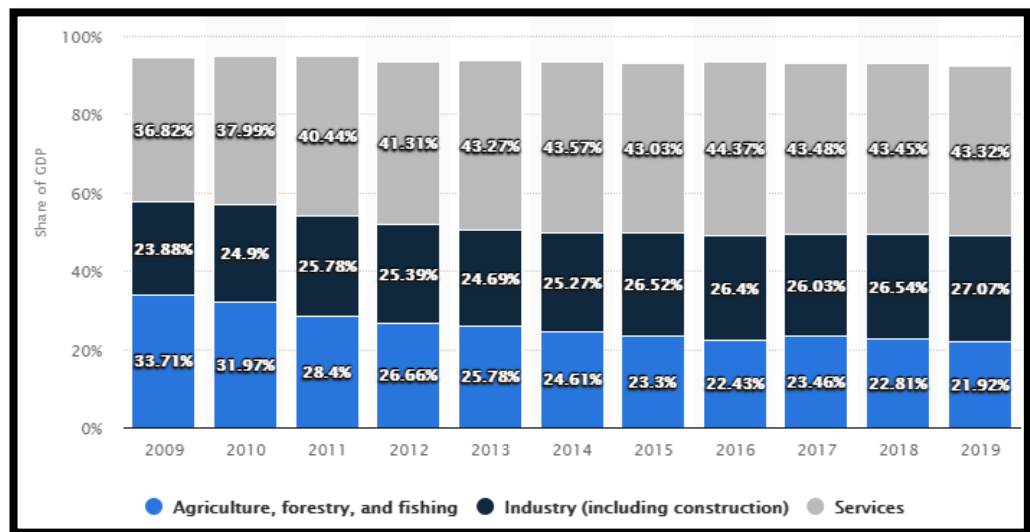
of these civil servants joined the private sector through SMEs. This brought a large number of new SMEs, most of them sole traders, who employed 3-5 employees. Economic growth and income distribution are fundamental forces driving poverty reduction in Uganda. Equally, as argued in Section 4.4.1, if the governmental policies are implemented, they will play a crucial role in promoting both economic growth and better income distribution.

When the National Resistance Movement (NRM) came to power in 1986, the tax base was small, and inflation was high. Uganda embarked on economic reforms, although challenges such as increasing tax revenue and controlling public expenditure were visible. Some policies were introduced including: (I) The liberalisation of prices and trade in the domestic market further boosted agricultural growth; and (II) the liberalisation of foreign exchange, payments and the trade system led to the diversification of Uganda's exports and a high level of competitiveness in relation to traditional agricultural products in external markets, such as coffee and tea (Aragie and Pauw, 2019).

As Uganda moved into the new millennium, it faced many challenges. One such challenge was that Uganda is predominantly an agricultural economy. Most of its exports comes from cash crops, particularly coffee and tea. Another challenge was that Uganda is a landlocked country, which may be to its disadvantage, as it experiences high transportation costs which hinder international trade. For example, during the late 1980s, the country undertook some reforms which led to trade liberalisation measures, as discussed earlier, in order to encourage exports. The government has also encouraged diversification of commercial agriculture and the export of non-traditional agricultural products. Other changes include the monetary constraints which led to price stability, contributing to the restoration of confidence and external competitiveness (Agbahoungba *et al.*, 2019).

Recently, Uganda’s economy has been driven mainly by the service sector, as the manufacturing sector stood at just over 8% of GDP (Nakazi and Nathan, 2020). The construction sector, which is included in the category of other industry, contributed over 7% of output in 2015. As shown in Figure 4.5, the changing sectoral distribution of GDP has not been matched by the change in the distribution pattern of the labour force, as the agricultural sector continues to dominate employment in Uganda. As a result, Khan *et al.* (2019) considered how the present rate of poverty can be reduced in Uganda. Since these questions have been asked, the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) selected Uganda as a pilot country to test a new set of African Union guidelines for estimating agricultural expenditures (Koroma *et al.*, 2016). Figure 4.5 show the sectoral distribution of Uganda’s GDP from 2009 to 2019.

Figure 4.5: Uganda Distribution of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) across Economic Sectors from 2009 to 2019



Source: O’Neill (2020)

A study that was carried out by Koroma *et al.* (2016) confirmed that the proportion of agricultural expenditure in Uganda reached a low in 2019. Some regard this as a signal that Uganda no longer considers agricultural spending an important driver of rural growth and poverty reduction, despite evidence to the contrary (Obura *et al.*, 2020).

A closer analysis of 2018/2019 agricultural spending reveals a significant shift by the Ugandan government to improve the following: (I) Domestic development available to the National Agricultural Advisory Services (NADDSS); and (II) Operation wealth creation (OWC) for input purchases such as fertilisers and seed to be distributed to farmers, to construct grain stores and for the provision of agricultural equipment (Aragie and Pauw, 2019). The OWC programme, however, was a highly politicised presidential initiative which entailed members of Uganda's Armed Forces rather than extension agents distributing farming inputs. However, it has yet to be demonstrated that agriculture in African countries such as Uganda can generate productivity gains like those experienced in developed nations. Therefore, the poor historical agricultural performance might reflect a long-term under-investment in the sector, rather than its growth potential.

- **Employment in Uganda**

Uganda is a largely agrarian economy where the population continues to develop, with agricultural production as the main source of livelihood at the subsistence level (Lourenco *et al.*, 2014). There is a significant rural-based population in farming via non-commercial crop farming, with very small-scale commercial farming businesses. Under these circumstances, the Ugandan economy faces the particular challenge of absorbing 392,000 new entrants into labour markets every year (Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, 2010). The labour force rate accelerates every year by 4.7% as reported in the Uganda National Household Survey (2009/2010) (UBOS, 2010; Waeyenberge and Bargawi, 2018).

The employment-to-population ratio is estimated to have increased from nearly 70% in 2005/6 to approximately 75% in 2009//2010 (UBOS, 2010). Studies have revealed that 85% of the labour force in Uganda remains rural, at 85% in 2009/2010 (UBOS, 2010). Almost 17% of the labour force does not have any formal education, while half of

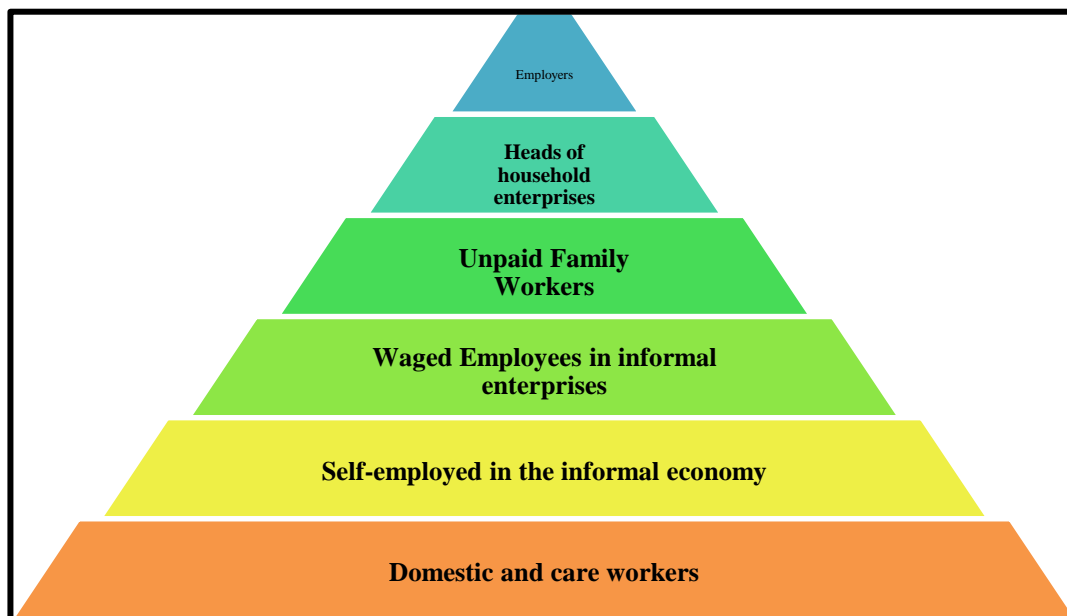
the labour force has only primary education (53%, down from 59% in 2005/6) (UBOS, 2010). For example, obstacles to self-employment are manifold and rise from day to day (Goshu, 2020). Despite its many university graduates, the declining education system in Uganda means that it does not have high-quality human capital (Tuyiragize *et al.*, 2019). The majority of children complete primary school without acquiring basic reading and numeracy skills, and a lack of required skills and competencies is the main factor contributing to the high rate of youth unemployment (ILO, 2018). Hope for employment has worsened over time, as those who are graduating from higher education seek jobs for several years (Goshu, 2020). In addition, political policies, corruption and a lack of finance to start new businesses, are some of the main challenges to self-employment in Uganda (Goshu, 2020). Therefore, many Ugandans find themselves unemployed or working at very low-productivity economic activities, particularly women and the youth (Waeyenberge and Bargawi, 2018). Many youths in Uganda find it difficult find a job, and therefore, they are motivated by necessity rather than opportunity to engage in entrepreneurship.

However, it has been observed that improving the quality and quantity of employment opportunities directly links economic growth with poverty reduction (Seguino, 2020). Therefore, a development strategy that employs the country's human resources and raises the returns for the labour force, would become an effective instrument in reducing poverty. Uganda's national employment policy concurs with the view that inadequate productive employment opportunities perpetuate poverty. The policy goes on to explain that for the poor, most of whom have not completed primary school and who face difficulties in acquiring productive assets such as land and credit, access to wage employment opportunities for them is the only means of escaping poverty.

A further study has indicated that the labour market participation rate in Uganda

is approximately 70% and is higher for men 81% than for women 65% (UBOS, 2017). More information shows that approximately 49% of those in employment are waged workers, while 35% are self-employed, and others are counted as contributory family workers or employers. For waged workers, 90% are employed in the private sector (UBOS, 2017). As the highest population of Uganda lives in rural communities, agriculture still remains the major sector of employment, with its share increasing from 66% to 73% in 2005/6. Therefore, agriculture employs a high proportion of economically active people in the country (ILO, 2011). Figure 4.6 breaks down and differentiates between types of economic activities of work, from those at the bottom end of the informality pyramid (with the worst working conditions and pay) to those at the top, where conditions and pay are similar to those in the formal economy (Taylor and Rioux, 2017).

Figure 4.6: The Informal Economy Pyramid



Source: Adapted from Kabeer (2008) and Taylor and Rioux (2018).

The level of informal employment tends to be higher for women than for men. This is due to the extent of the informal economy and informal employment in Uganda. Figure 4.6

reveals that there is an underlying gender division in paid and unpaid work in Uganda. Finally, the wages in Uganda have remained low by international standards and are lower than in Tanzania and Kenya (Gelb *et al.*, 2013). This reflects the absence of a minimum wage in Uganda.

4.6.2. Entrepreneurship Levels and Ecosystems in Uganda

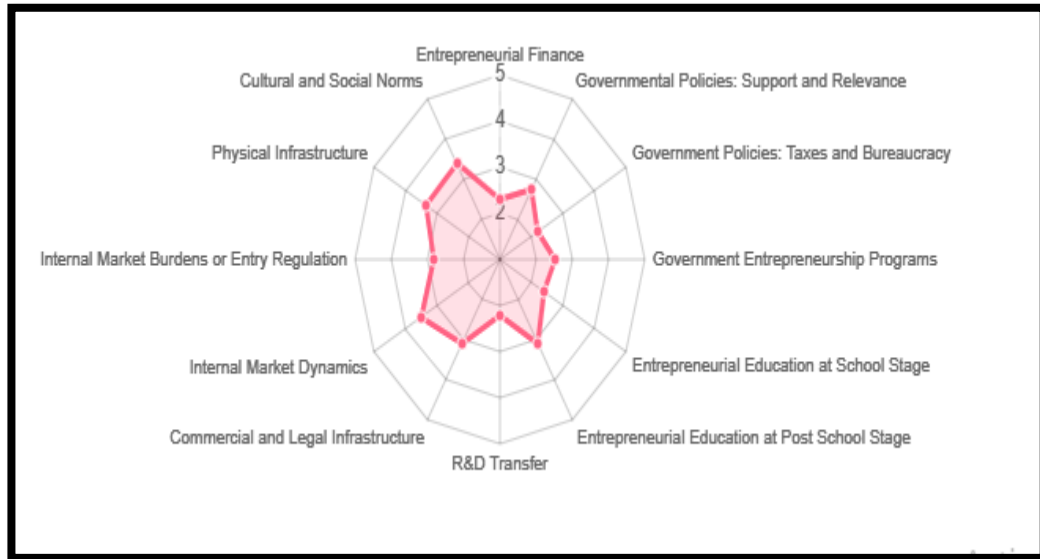
In recent years, the fields of entrepreneurship, economic geography, urban economics and the economics of entrepreneurship have moved closer to each other through research on the context of entrepreneurship (Welter, 2011). According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM, 2015), Uganda was the most entrepreneurial country in the world in 2015, with 28% of adults owning or co-owning a new business. However, most of these businesses are small and informal, with a few to no employees, and a high discontinuation rate. Uganda experienced a fall in real GDP growth in the period of 2008 to 2011, from approximately 10% in 2008 to as low as 5% in 2011, due to a rising inflation that was attributed to the global recession. An improved real GDP growth rate of 4.6% was recorded in 2012 (Balunywa *et al.*, 2012). It was later suggested that the high TEA figures for Uganda were similar to those reported in 2012 for other sub-Saharan African countries outside southern Africa, such as Zambia, Ghana, Malawi, Nigeria and Angola. Uganda had the third highest TEA and the second highest rates of nascent entrepreneurship (26%), established business ownership 31% and discontinuance of business 26%.

Studies have shown that nearly one third of Ugandan adults have started a new business within the last 24 months (Balunywa *et al.*, 2012). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Uganda has given the reasons why Uganda was recorded as the highest in terms of establishing new businesses, citing the following: (I) Necessity, and (II) Opportunity. In addition, the 25-34 age bracket had the highest TEA in Uganda, while the 55-64 age bracket had the lowest TEA. Uganda had the highest TEA for the 18-24 age bracket from

sub-Saharan African countries. The main reason for these numbers Uganda is that the younger generation has relatively few job opportunities. The concept of entrepreneurial ecosystems has recently attracted much attention (Stam and Spigel, 2016). Cohen (2006) was the first to use the concept of entrepreneurial ecosystems, and defined it as, “*an interconnected group of actors in a local geographic community committed to sustainable development through the support and facilitation of new sustainable ventures.*” Consequently, scholars have stressed the importance of interactions between elements of an entrepreneurial ecosystem which would increase the entrepreneurial performance of a region.

The rationale behind the entrepreneurial ecosystems is a need to understand entrepreneurship in broader contexts, such as regional, temporal and social settings (Zahra *et al.*, 2014; Bhawe and Zahra, 2019). Entrepreneurial ecosystems, which are new to the literature, are described by Isenberg (2010) as “*a set of individual elements that combine in complex ways,*” allowing regions to grow, improving job creation and economic stability. Isenberg proposed the elements that should be present for entrepreneurial ecosystems to thrive, but has also portrayed the difficulties found in developing an entrepreneurial ecosystem. Isenberg (2010) argued that entrepreneurial ecosystems consist of a set of individual elements, such as leadership, culture, capital markets and open-minded customers, combining in complex ways. Together, these elements support venture creation and growth for the economy, as seen for Uganda in Figure 4.7.

Figure 4.7: The Entrepreneurship Ecosystem in Uganda



Source: GEM (2014).

The role of the government is paramount in the development of an entrepreneurship ecosystem in a state such as Uganda. However, the Ugandan government is in the process of developing systems to foster entrepreneurial activities in order to achieve entrepreneurial economic growth. It is essential that the government exert more effort in developing these systems. For example, in Uganda, the main hurdle to the private sector development in the country has been difficulty in accessing finance and credit, as shown in Figure 4.7.

Finance is at the lowest level within the entrepreneurship ecosystem in Uganda. The country also has very high interest rates, inadequate physical infrastructure, a lack of government entrepreneurship programmes, and a lack of entrepreneurship training and education (GEM, 2014). A government agency, the Uganda Investment Authority (UIA), was established in 1991 with a mandate to engage with both the government and private sector. This was to spearhead economic growth and development by contributing to and advocating for a competitive environment, in order to simplify the process of conducting business in Uganda (Sheriff and Muffatto, 2015). Another agency mandated to improve

the operating environment of business is the Private Sector Foundation (PSF). This organisation has a mission to improve the business environment in Uganda in areas such as policy research, designing, and coordinating the development of private sector initiatives (Sheriff and Muffatto, 2015).

Although some basic components of the entrepreneurship ecosystem are in place, the linkages which connect these basic components are missing. For example, in 2018, the Aspen Network of Development Entrepreneurs launched the first Ugandan entrepreneurial ecosystem initiative pilot project. The Uganda entrepreneurship ecosystem was called the SIX-SIX entrepreneurship ecosystem. The six-six activity pillars discovered to understand the core of the entrepreneurial activities in Uganda were the following: (I) Identify, (II) Train, (III) Connect, (IV) Sustain, (V) Fund and (VI) Enable (Walter *et al.*, 2018). This however, has not addressed the necessary interventions in Uganda, such as reducing barriers to business growth, or training and education. These should be given a priority to develop the human capital that is so important for the cultivation of entrepreneurship ecosystems (Sheriff and Muffatto, 2015). To conclude, entrepreneurship in Uganda is a highly dynamic process in which the start-up and closure of a business is a routine and frequent occurrence.

4.6.3 Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda

Women's involvement in early stage entrepreneurial activity varies greatly around the world. Kelley *et al.* (2016) stated that although globally women start entrepreneurship to support their families and to attain financial independence, they also face significant challenges such as a lack of education, little knowledge in entrepreneurship, lack of finance, and lack of collateral and access to loans. Women in Africa are mainly engaged in sectors traditionally perceived to be 'female' (Guloba *et al.*, 2017), which also match their existing knowledge and skills. In Uganda, women are much more likely to have a lower accumulation of business skills when compared to men (GEM, 2012).

As a result, women move towards necessity-driven enterprises, such as agriculture, rather than exploring other labour market opportunities. For example, only 13.8% of working women are in paid employment, compared to 27.9% of working men (UBOS, 2010). Over 86% of working women and 72% of working men are self-employed, and close to 80% of all self-employed work is in subsistence agriculture (Farris *et al.*, 2017). Since the labour force participation rate of men and women in Uganda is very high, 92.2% for men and 91% for women (Farris *et al.*, 2017; UBOS, 2013), a high level of self-employment is indicative of few paid employment opportunities.

Female entrepreneurs emerge from within a context that has economic, socio-cultural and situational dimensions. Overall, Ugandan women do not have the same opportunities as men in regard to paid employment, work experience, contacts and the opportunity to accumulate savings from a salary. In spite of all the developmental activities which have happened over the years, the gender gap is still significant. Although progress has been made in female political representation, and the fact that the number of women involved in enterprise activity has grown, there are significant disparities with respect to poverty levels, education, employment opportunities and women's access to productive resources (Snyder, 2000).

In Uganda, agriculture is the main economic activity, employing two-thirds of the population and generating 25% of the gross domestic product in 2014 (UBOS, 2014). Despite its current position, the sector is projected to become less significant as the country becomes more industrialised. This will significantly increase challenges facing rural female entrepreneurs. According to Minniti (2009), when informal sectors are taken into consideration, women contribute an even greater role to rural entrepreneurship than previously envisaged or understood. Jaffee and Hyde (2000) contended that greater priority must be given to promoting entrepreneurial activity and value creation goals

amongst rural female entrepreneurs, as women tend to emphasise societal values. However, Lassalle and McElwee (2016) suggested that many rural female entrepreneurs in emerging economies (like Uganda) have become entrepreneurs due to the need to survive (the push factor) or to enhance their livelihood, rather than through opportunity recognition (the pull factor). It has also been determined that the perceptions women hold about themselves and their human capital (e.g. education and work experience) affects their entrepreneurial activity.

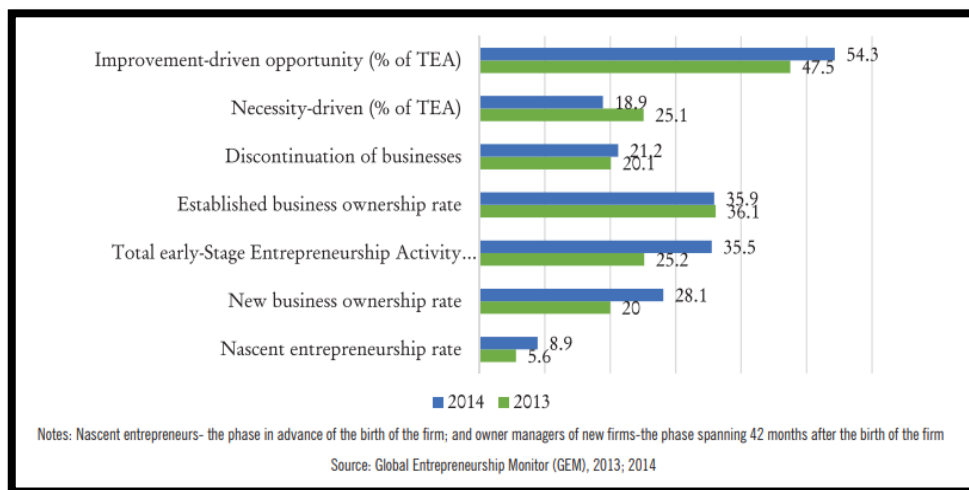
Women lack independence and decision-making. This is due to a number of factors, for example there is unequal ownership of land and property. Domestic violence against women is also prevalent in rural Uganda, and the practice of bride-price being also means that women have less autonomy. The vulnerability of rural females, due to these socio-cultural dimensions, is still widespread in Uganda. Females in Uganda, especially in rural communities, do not have equal access to justice or protection under the law, nor are they adequately included in decision-making in the justice system. Many laws are discriminatory towards females, and the interpretation of the law often discriminates based on gender (Reynolds, 2005). Moreover, females, particularly those with lower literacy levels and those living in rural areas, lack awareness of their rights, the freedom to make decisions and economic alternatives and as a result are disadvantaged in regard to growth-potential enterprises.

Government and non-state bodies engaged in interventions, created opportunities to encourage rural women interested in starting up their own enterprises. For instance, support provided to female groups for skills were provided in the forms of training through seminars, fostering self-help credit groups such as the rotating savings and credits associations (ROSCAS), village savings and loan associations (VSLAS) along with national programmes such as the Youth Livelihood Programme (YLP). Other national-level programmes that indirectly supported rural women in starting enterprises included

the Plan Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) and National Agricultural Advisory Services (NAADS). Despite all these supports, women in rural areas still lag behind when compared to their urban counterparts in term of access to opportunities such as markets, infrastructures, technology and education (Guloba *et al.*, 2017).

It is not surprising that, in 2014, for example, around 8.9% of Ugandans aged 18-64 were nascent entrepreneurs trying to get a new enterprise started, and 28.1% already owned an enterprise which was less than 42 months old as shown in Figure 4.8.

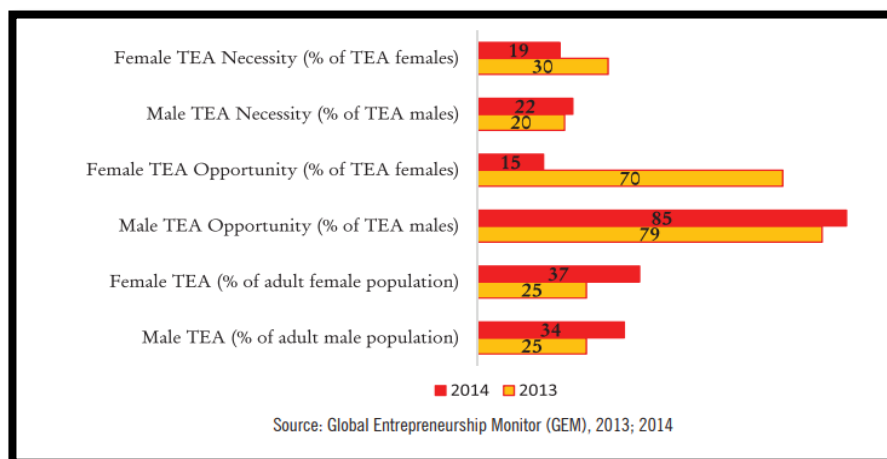
Figure 4.8: Entrepreneurship Activity in Uganda, 2013-2014 (percentage), aged 18-64



Source: GEM (2013, 2014)

The share of individuals who started businesses out of necessity declined by 6.2% between 2013 and 2014, as shown in Figure 4.8. The informal sector appears to be important in terms of job creation in Uganda, especially for female entrepreneurs. In 2013, Uganda’s total entrepreneurial activity (TEA) for females, as a percentage of the adult female population matched that for men, at 25%. However, female TEA rates increased in 2014 to 37% (see Figure 4.9) (GEM, 2013, 2014).

Figure 4.9: Gender Distribution of Total Early-Stage Entrepreneurs (TEAs) and Necessity vs Opportunity Entrepreneurship



Source: GEM (2013, 2014).

A gap emerged between male TEA opportunities (the percentage of TEA men) and female TEA opportunities (the percentage of TEA women), at 79% in 2013 and 85% vs 15% percent in 2014 (GEM, 2014). Snyder, (2000) argued that the contemporary story of female entrepreneurs in Uganda is also the story of the country’s experience of, and recovery from, civil war, along with its legacy of death, destruction and fear. To explain the rise in female entrepreneurship is vital as Uganda’s case is unique. The “*veritable explosion of Ugandan African entrepreneurship was born out of the need to survive amidst chaos,*” according to Snyder (2000).

4.6.4. Training for Rural Entrepreneurs

While the number of women involved in entrepreneurial activities has grown in Uganda, significant disparities remain with respect to poverty levels, the lack of entrepreneurship training, the lack of employment opportunities and women’s access to productive resources and land (Kyrgidou and Petridou, 2013). Furthermore, women are much more likely than men to lack the skills required for business. Women also tend

towards necessity-driven enterprises rather than exploiting market opportunities (GEM, 2012). For example, Lourenco *et al.* (2014) list multiple barriers to entrepreneurship for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, such as a lack of access to credit, gender inequality and lack of access to knowledge and training.

Gorgievski *et al.* (2011) examined some of the factors associated with entrepreneurial value creation at an individual level. Miller *et al.* (2012) identified that psychological factors such as self-efficacy, confidence and motivation towards achieving social goals have contributed to value creation at an individual level. Other factors include issues such as cultural norms regarding commercial ventures (Terjesen *et al.*, 2016), social and environmental businesses. Stephan *et al.* (2015) suggested that a deficit in entrepreneurial attainment and self-employment of rural female entrepreneurs is likely due to barriers faced by women in society. Perceptions and social prejudices concerning gender roles, deficiencies in basic child-care facilities, gender-based inequalities accessing developmental resources and a lack of training affect value creation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs. Yousafzai *et al.* (2018) argued that female entrepreneurs may not set growth as the primary goal of a business due to their family commitments and life-work balance. In a rural setting, this balance is important and opportunities for targeting business growth is less likely. However, in order to generate wealth, value creation is required. This is achieved by leveraging innovation to exploit new opportunities and creating a new product-market domain.

4.6.5. Relationship to Perceived Emancipation

The focus on emancipation broadens concerns regarding the role of organisational processes in the production of, and resistance to, inequalities of power (Garavan *et al.*, 2010). Shane (2003) suggested that the success of the entrepreneurial process is determined by an entrepreneur's ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors which affect individual entrepreneurial activities. In addition,

the emancipatory approach highlights the freeing or emancipatory process of becoming the creator of a new venture (Rindova *et al.*, 2009). This approach emphasises an entrepreneur as evolving oneself, just as new agencies emerge and propagate in the external world (Lindbergh and Schwartz, 2018).

Verduyn *et al.* (2014) identified four interpretations of emancipation along two axes: Utopian-dystopian and heterotopian-paratopian. They related these to various strands of critical entrepreneurship research, to provide a framework from which others could build upon. Education has been shown to improve the emancipation of individuals (Biesta, 2012). This is due to the fact that educated individuals gain knowledge and skills which improve their wellbeing (Singh, 2017), although research exploring the link between enterprise training and emancipation remains very limited. With the increasing number of rural women entering entrepreneurial activities, their conventional role in society has changed with the growing economic leverage they have mastered (Islam and Ahmad, 2020).

Rural women have developed their managerial skills, knowledge and adaptability in difficult times to create new business ventures and have turned them into success stories where men had previously dominated such sectors. Gender has been recognised as an important variable influencing the experiences of various actors such as rural female entrepreneurs (Sesan *et al.*, 2019). Nevertheless, existing research on the gender differentiated experiences of rural women is lacking at a local level (Riisgaard *et al.*, 2010). There is also recognition that female representation can be physically present “at the table,” but have less influence over the outcomes that are realised (Mendelberg *et al.*, 2016).

Therefore, it is important to tease out the value that is added to women by their participation in entrepreneurship training and in entrepreneurial activities. This study indicates that the narratives and experiences of women move from simplistic assumptions

to emancipation. Then then consider their enterprises to be an option. It is argued that rural women can exercise and build influence through at least two channels: (I) Equal participation in the discussion; and (II) Experiencing equal affirmation while speaking (Mendelberg *et al.*, 2016). The more the women engage in these activities, the more they will influence others and thereby affect authority.

However, the mere presence of women at the table does not consistently lead to the outcome that their voices will be heard. According to Sesan *et al.* (2019), although the number of women at the table may be many, this does not necessarily mean that they will carry equal influence as men in the group. Rural women in Uganda have long relied upon entrepreneurial activities to evade the demands placed on them by the patriarchal institutions. The early colonial period brought the ratification of domestic virtue as a female ideal, through which women were valued for their contributions within the family and expected to be submissive and deferential to their husbands (Camfield and Monteith, 2019).

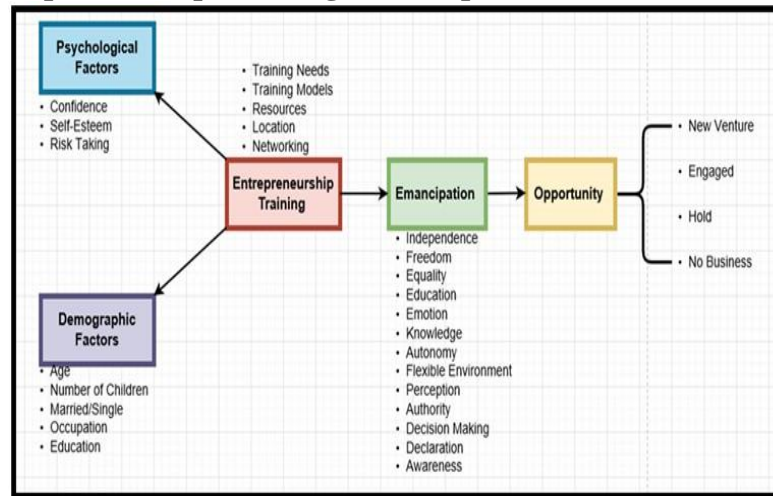
In recent times, many women express their freedom through their own business and the ability to earn their own money. Nonetheless, men still dominate women in many African countries, especially married women. This is manifested in social norms, in beliefs and in relationships. In Uganda, patriarchal gender norms still favour men and masculinity, and they deny resources, opportunities and power to women (Lundgren *et al.*, 2018).

4.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study presents the three chapters of the literature review and their interactions (i.e. entrepreneurship training, emancipation and the nascent rural female entrepreneurs) into a model to show the interrelated and relationships of the three chapters as discussed in the literature review. Authors such as McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) argued that entrepreneurship training is generally important for any entrepreneur to acquire or

improve knowledge and perform better, but the impact of such training depends on the individual who receives the entrepreneurship training and what the training offers

Figure 4.10: Conceptual Framework showing the Linkages between Entrepreneurship Training, Emancipation and RNFE Activities



Source: Literature Review

The literature review from Chapter Two found that entrepreneurial activity is one of the primary drivers of economic and societal growth and development (Carlsson *et al.*, 2013). Chapter Two discussed in detail how entrepreneurship training (knowledge and competence) interrelated with psychological factors and demographical factors.

In Chapter Three, the emancipatory process emphasised an entrepreneur as evolving oneself, just as new agencies emerge and propagate in the external world (Lindbergh and Schwartz, 2018). Furthermore, the Chapter found that education and training are inherent in seeking autonomy (Delmar *et al.*, 2013), decision-making (Beijing, 1995; Wittmann-Price, 2004), individual freedom (Rindova *et al.*, 2009) and independence (Freire, 1996). Singh (2017) stated that education is also a means through which one develops knowledge, values, skills and attitudes. As a result, training can also contribute to the success in entrepreneurial activities (Pergelova *et al.*, 2017), which allows rural female entrepreneurs to emancipate themselves (Rindova *et al.*, 2009).

Chapter Four found that, with the increasing number of nascent rural female entrepreneurs entering entrepreneurial activities, their conventional role in society has changed with the growing economic development (Islam and Ahmad, 2020). Therefore, nascent rural female entrepreneurs have developed their managerial skills, knowledge and adaptability in difficult times, to recognise the opportunities and create new business ventures. They have transformed themselves into success stories where men had previously dominated such sectors. Consequently, Uganda's female entrepreneurs are frequently motivated to start their own businesses in order to become independent, achieve job satisfaction, gain economic independence (be emancipated) and to have an opportunity to be more creative.

This study agreed with the findings of authors such as Miller *et al.* (2012), who found that psychological factors such as self-efficacy, confidence and motivation towards achieving social goals have supported and contributed to the creation of new ventures. Other factors include issues such as cultural norms regarding commercial ventures, social enterprise (Stephan *et al.*, 2015) and environmental businesses.

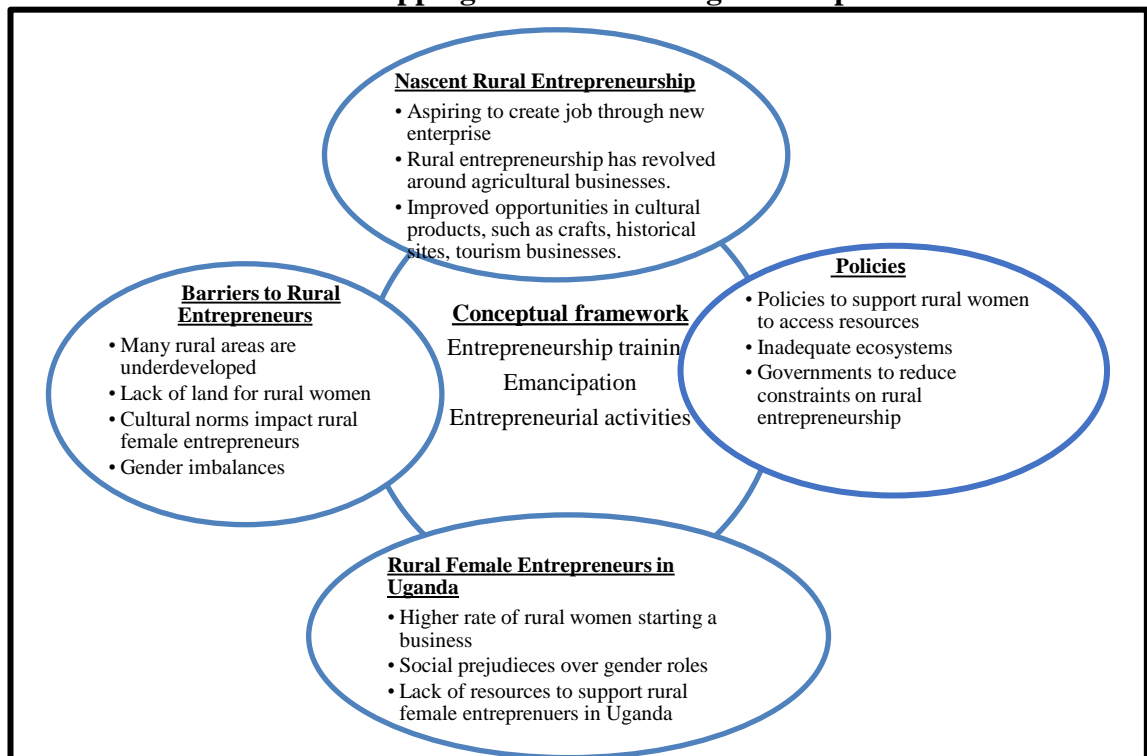
Perceptions and social prejudices concerning gender roles, deficiencies in finance, basic child-care, gender-based inequalities accessing developmental resources and a lack of training affect nascent rural female entrepreneurs (Driga *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the 13 highlighted key criteria that are central to the emancipatory process which were identified through the detailed literature review of this study are treated as the main dependent variables, as shown in Figure 4.10. These elements are used as a basis for the investigation of entrepreneurship training and the emancipation of rural nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda. In conclusion, the proposed model was developed to contribute to knowledge and to expand the existing literature review and explain the inter-

relationship between entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and new venture creation through the entrepreneurial process.

4.8. CONCLUSION

This chapter conducted a review of relevant literature on both concepts of rural entrepreneurship and nascent entrepreneurship. The studies show that there is an increasing number of women who are start enterprises in rural communities due to higher unemployment rates and family commitment. This study defined a nascent entrepreneur as a person who is trying to start a new business and is expected to be a founding owner or co-owner of a new business. This study has found that rural entrepreneurship is critical as it plays a crucial role in addressing the social-economic challenges of rural communities (Fiseha *et al.*, 2019), in reducing poverty, unemployment, inequality and low levels of economic growth. Figure 4.11 has concluded with all main findings of the Chapter.

4.11: Mapping the Main Findings of Chapter Four



Source: Developed by author from literature review.

As shown in Figure. 4.11, the literature review for this chapter also found that national policies must monitor and ensure that all rural female entrepreneurs have an opportunity to participate and benefit from the entrepreneurial activities, or new ventures in their rural communities. Authors such as Guloba *et al.* (2017) suggested that entrepreneurship is embedded in several existing policies in Uganda. Some of the policies are: The National Gender Policy 2007, the National Youth Policy, 2016, the National Employment Policy 2011 and Education Training Strategy Plan 2015-2020. However, these policies are not clear to what extent any implementation can achieve for the transformation of the economy to impact rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. While these local entrepreneurial policies are still evolving, they are clearly gaining in importance and impact on the overall portfolio of economic policy instruments.

Discussing gender and rural entrepreneurship, this study found that rural areas hold little appeal for those seeking to embark on entrepreneurial activity, particularly women. There is a lack of attractiveness that is related to structural weaknesses; for example, inadequate infrastructures, lack of training facilities, a shortage of specialised personnel and the lack of markets. The deficit in entrepreneurial attainment on the part of rural women is very likely to be further exacerbated by the practical, as well as the ideological and cultural, barriers that women face (as discussed in the study), irrespective of whether the environment is urban or rural when starting a business.

There are also many social prejudices over gender role distribution in the family and in the occupational arena, along with deficiencies in basic childcare facilities, gendered stereotypical social images of the entrepreneur and gender-based inequalities (Driga *et al.*, 2008). In Uganda, rural women play a vital role in the agriculture sector and contribute a higher average as they make-up more than half of Uganda's agricultural workforce and a higher proportion of women than men at 76% to 62% (UBOS, 2017).

They engage in entrepreneurship at a grassroots level to generate income, overcome poverty, and promote societal and economic advancements (Bruton *et al.*, 2013; Tobias *et al.*, 2013). In Uganda, many rural women-led enterprises are small and informal, providing goods and services to mainly local communities.

Despite the growing number of rural women entrepreneurs, there is little knowledge regarding their business practices, availability of entrepreneurship training, growth strategies and career opportunities (Adeola *et al.*, 2018). In addition, there is a lack of research regarding the contribution that women make in rural communities and their share of household income (Rijkers and Costa, 2012). This lack of knowledge surrounding rural women entrepreneurs in Africa may be the reason for the limited success of rural development policies in Africa. This is also exacerbated by the fact that rural female entrepreneurs do not feature in many poverty alleviation or entrepreneurship promotion strategies on the continent, particularly in Uganda (Fox and Sohnesen, 2016).

CHAPTER FIVE: METHODOLOGY

5.1. INTRODUCTION

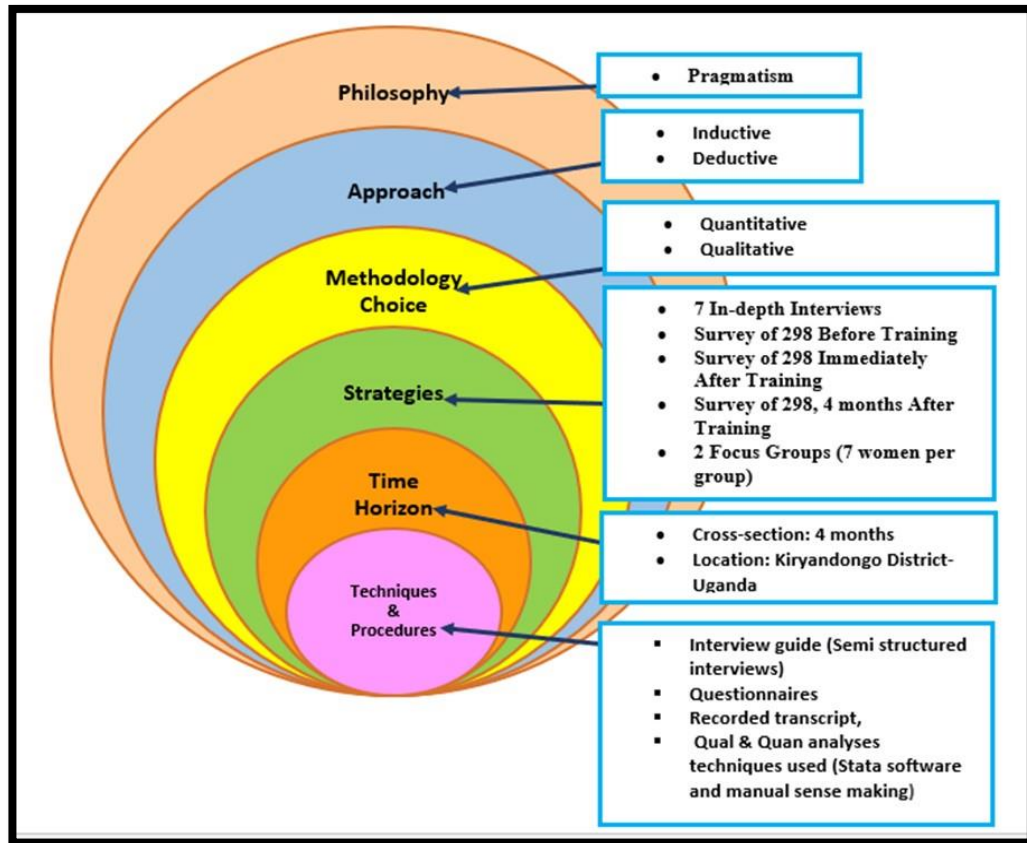
The primary aim of the study was to explore how entrepreneurship training contributed to the perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This was achieved by analysing entrepreneurship training skills (i.e. knowledge and competence) and evaluating the 13 key criteria of emancipation in support of rural female entrepreneurial activities. This chapter presents the methodological considerations used in this study, as well as answering the key research question: *'How does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?'* Specifically, the study was guided by three sub-questions:

- (SQ-1) How does entrepreneurship training affect knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
- (SQ-2) How is perceived emancipation influenced by knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
- (SQ-3) How does perceived emancipation impact on entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

According to Saunders *et al.* (2009), research methodology involves theoretical frameworks and the adaption of various techniques which can be used in research, tests, experiments, surveys and critical studies.

This chapter primarily explains and justifies the theoretical assumptions which underpin research in the broader sense of the methodology as exemplified by the layers of an onion. Saunders *et al.* (2019) theorised that research steps resemble the layers of an onion as Figure 5.1 illustrates. Saunders onion shows the theoretical characteristics of a methodology, that is helpful in making choices regarding the research philosophy, approach, methods, strategy, time horizon and techniques (Saunders *et al.*, 2019). It also shows the choices made in this particular study.

Figure 5.1: Characteristics of Methodology



Source: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2019).

Although the philosophical background usually remains implicit in most research, it affects the practice of the study. Paradigms are discussed to enable the justification of the theoretical assumptions and fundamental beliefs underpinning social research, as this is common in many types of research.

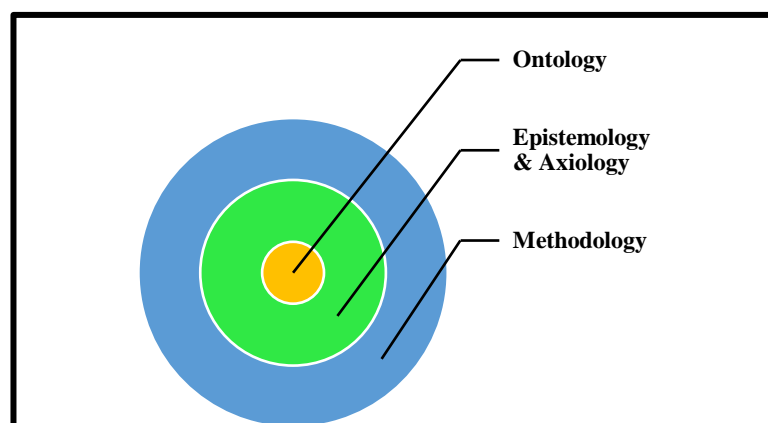
The chapter proceeds to dissect step-by-step the methodological characteristics Saunders *et al.* (2019) how they influence data collection, in order to achieve the maximum output in this study. Quantitative and qualitative methods are discussed, which are the most efficient and effective approach to achieving the research goal. The choice of a framework is elucidated upon and how it was applied to collect the data over the course of the three phases of survey, together with the focus groups. The methodological choices are discussed and the value that a combination of different approaches has for the research. This in turn will provide better research for subsequent management decisions

reflecting both the social and scientific aspects of contemporary society. The main research paradigms are highlighted and approaches which are relevant to the area of study. The strategies, geographical location, population and the sample size which were used are discussed. Ultimately, the instruments used to collect the data and the methods used to maintain the reliability and validity of the instruments used are discussed. This include the semi-structured interviews and software tool (Stata), limitations and challenges, ethical considerations, the role of the researcher and the conclusion.

5.2. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The research philosophy contains important assumptions regarding the way in which the world is viewed in the process of conducting research. These assumptions are fundamental in selecting the overall research strategy and the methods used in the study, as argued by Saunders *et al.* (2016). In this a mixed methodology was utilised, in which quantitative and qualitative methods are both used to collect and analyse the data. The research methodology was dependent on the type of research philosophy (epistemology) and the nature of reality (ontology). As described by Creswell (2011; 2014), epistemological and ontological worldviews influence the area of study. These four types of research philosophy are linked as shown in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Linking the Four Paradigms Together



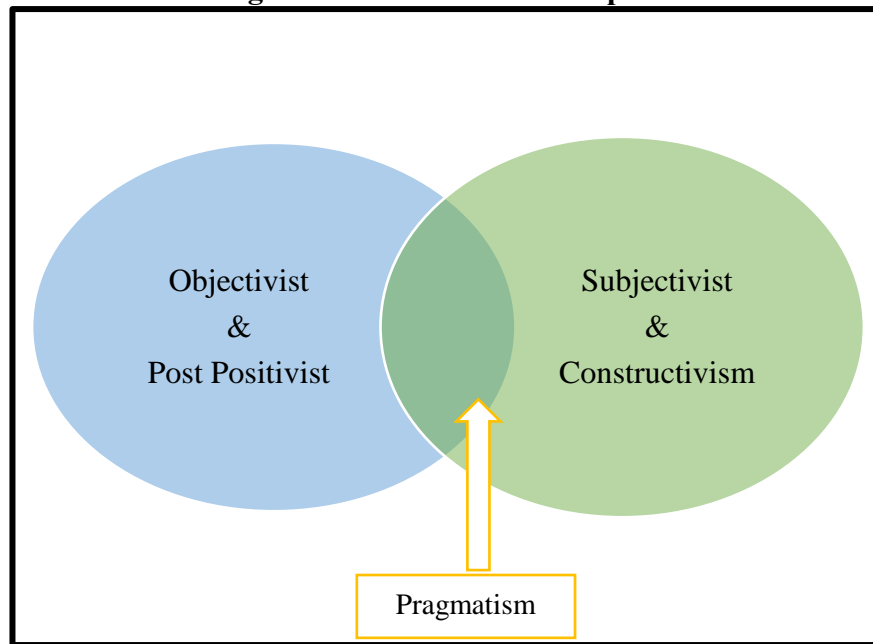
Source: Lee and Lings (2008).

This shared perspective of the four paradigms is vital as they provided a research framework for the interpretation of the analysis as explained by Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2012): (I) Ontology; (II) Epistemology; (III) Axiology (degree to which each member's value system contributes to the various facets of the empirical study); and (IV) Methodology. Ontology, epistemology and axiology are the components which led to the design of the methodology and the generation of the research inferences.

Ontological investigations surround queries on the nature of reality. Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality and the way the world operates. Objectivism and subjectivism are two aspects of ontology, which are popular among business researchers. Objectivism emphasises that social entities exist in reality as external facts, which are independent of other social actors. From this perspective reality is a tangible entity regardless of people's actions (McManus *et al.*, 2017). This can be applied to social sciences, as it assumes that social phenomena exist externally to individual social actors. However, in contrast, the subjectivist considers that social phenomena are made from the perceptions and actions of social actors (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Subjectivism maintains that reality is socially created, and that knowledge is absolutely the product of the mind (Biesta, 2010).

The term 'epistemology,' also described as theory of knowledge, refers to how a person perceives knowledge is and interprets it (Becker and Niehaves, 2007). There are two main research paradigms within the philosophical science in epistemology, namely positivism and interpretivism. A positivist approach studies objective reality, whereby facts are concrete. Therefore, in this approach, knowledge can be acquired by applying the methods of the natural sciences. With the interpretivism paradigm, reality is subjective and created by participants and observers of an event (Van Griensven *et al.*, 2014).

Figure 5.3. Research Philosophies



Source: Author

Therefore, the outcome of interpretivist research cannot be generalised, as the outcome is only related to specific circumstances and social actors at the time of the study. Regarding axiology, this is a philosophical study of worth and judgments regarding values (Lee and Lings, 2008). While methodology is a study of how research should be conducted in order to make an original and relevant contribution to the knowledge, it is fundamentally dependent on the first three concepts. For example, the positivist and interpretivist researcher must select a stance concerning their ontology and epistemology by implementing one research philosophy.

To address this issue, an alternative philosophical approach can be taken, which is referred to as the pragmatist. This approach builds bridges between conflicting paradigms (Johnson *et al.*, 2007). Pragmatism provides an option to follow more than one philosophical approach in a research study, as explained in Figure 5.3. It supports the use of mixed research methods when addressing a complex research problem. This can be applied to this study, regarding the contribution of entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. However,

Creswell (2014), from a theoretical point of view, identified four paradigms: Constructivism, post-positivism, transformative and pragmatism as explained in Table 5.1.

According to De Beane *et al.* (2012) the concept of a paradigm can be summarised from four key perspectives: (I) A paradigm can be seen as a worldview. A way of acknowledging the world that is inclusive of morals, values, attitudes and beliefs; (II) A paradigm can be seen as an epistemological stance which acknowledges a set of shared belief systems. These influence the manner in which research questions are asked and investigated; (III) A paradigm can be seen as a community of practice, who reflect a shared view regarding how a particular research discipline should conduct investigations. There is agreement on the methodological procedures which should be employed; and (IV) A paradigm as a set of examples which address how best to find solutions to research problems. The answer to why pragmatism was used for this study was confirmed by Tashakkori and Teddlie, (2010) who said that in designing and conducting mixed methods, researchers need to know alternative stances for philosophical assumptions.

Table 5.1 provides an overview of the dominant inquiry paradigms, describing their ontological and epistemological perspectives, along with their methodological approaches. This allowed for the selection of the most appropriate worldview for a mixed method study such as this. These paradigms are explained below in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Elements of Worldviews and Implications for Practice

Worldview	Constructivism	Post-positivism	Transformative	Pragmatism
ONTOLOGY What is the nature of reality?	Multiple realities e.g. researchers provide quotes to illustrate different perspectives.	Singular reality, e.g. researchers reject or fail the hypotheses.	Multifaceted and based on different social and cultural positions.	Singular or multiple realities e.g. researchers test hypotheses and provide multiple perspectives.
EPISTEMOLOGY: What is knowledge? What is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched?	Closeness and subjectivity e.g. researchers visit with participants at their sites to collect data.	Distance and impartiality e.g. researchers objectively collect data on instruments.	Collaboration e.g. researchers actively involve participants as collaborators, build trust and honour participants standpoint.	Practicality e.g. Researcher collect data by what works to address research question.
AXIOLOGY: What is the role of values?	Biased e.g. researchers actively talk about and use their personal biases and interpretations.	Unbiased e.g. researchers use checks to eliminate bias.	Based on human rights and social justice for all.	Multiple stances e.g. researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives.
METHODOLOGY: What is the process of research?	Inductive approach: Researchers start with participants views and build 'up' to patterns, theories and interpretations.	Deductive approach: Researchers test a prior theory.	Participatory e.g. researchers involve participants in all stages of the research and engage cyclical reviews.	Mixed methods: Combining both quantitative and qualitative and mix them.

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2013).

Research paradigms, namely positivism and interpretivism, underpin the philosophy of research. They are key elements in studying objective (whereby facts are concrete) and subjective (created by participants and observers of the study) realities (Myers, 2019).

There are four paradigms or scenarios which have been widely used in research in general (Table 5.2), namely positivism, interpretivism, transformative and pragmatism (Rahi *et al.*, 2019). Pragmatism was considered as the most appropriate paradigm for this study. Table 5.2 shows the types of research paradigms and the main activities.

Table 5.2. Types of Research Paradigms

Postpositivist	Constructivism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Determination• Reductionism• Empirical observation and measurement• Theory oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Understanding• Multiple participant meaning• Social and historical construction• Theory generation
Pragmatism	Transformative
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Consequences of action• Problem- centred• Pluralistic• Real-world practice oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Political• Empowerment issue - oriented• Collaborative• Change- emancipatory oriented

Source: adapted from Creswell (2011); Rahi et al. (2019).

These four paradigms provide a good starting point for any researcher. Post-positivist is often associated with quantitative research. This pursuit is often based on cause and effect systems, whereby the knowledge acquired is fact based or scientific in nature. While constructivism on the other hand, is associated with qualitative approaches. It works from a different set of assumptions. The research is constructed through investigation and coherently gathering the knowledge together as per the research question. The transformative paradigm works on the bases that change was required for social justice and human rights. This works well in communities which are at the margins of society, such as women, ethnic groups or people who are economically disadvantaged (Merterns, 2010). The research is often action based, and directed at policy. Finally, pragmatism is most often associated with mixed methods research as an overarching philosophy (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2010). The positivism paradigm suggests that clear knowledge can be obtained through both observation and experiment. The four paradigms will be explored in greater detail in the following sections.

5. 2.1 Post-positivist

People live out their lives in their own context of a worldview. It influences how they think and behave, as well as how they organise their lives, including how they

approach research. Researchers must be aware of their own worldview before conducting research in order to avoid bias. The post-positivist perspective, in relation to mixed methods research places an emphasis on using a hybrid design (i.e. a combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches). This design is aimed at investigating both objective and subjective, or external and internal, phenomena (Panhwar *et al.*, 2017). A post-positivist perspective is a paradigm which emphasises the objective investigation of phenomena, with the help of quantitative and qualitative data. The post-positivist approach prioritises quantitative data and emphasises the need to strengthen findings with the help of qualitative data (Panhwar *et al.*, 2017). A post-positivist paradigm promotes the coupling of qualitative and quantitative methods. This way knowledge can be accumulated through various types of investigations. This adds value to all findings, as they are viewed as essential components for the development of knowledge (Headley *et al.*, 2020).

5.2.2. Constructivism

The term ‘constructivism’ has several meanings, all of which relate in some way to the idea of meaning-making, making sense, both collectively and socially, in relation to the world in which people live. Constructivism enables people to make sense of their experiences, by creating their own meaning. Constructivism is a perspective which originated in developmental cognitive psychology Tosuncuoglu (2019). Constructivism proposes that each individual constructs their own world of experience through cognitive processes. It differs from the scientific orthodoxy of logical positivism in its contention that the world cannot be known purely, but rather by the constructions which are imposed upon the mind by sensory input. Despite all this, constructivism is generally considered to share positivism use of a dualist epistemology and ontology.

5.2.3. Transformative

Transformative worldviews are focused on the need for social justice and the pursuit of human rights. The supporters of this paradigm emphasise specific communities who are at the margins of society. Examples of these are women, ethnic groups, people with disabilities and those economically disadvantaged (Mertens, 2010). In the 1980s and 1990s individuals felt that the positivist paradigm did not adequately address social and political issues (Creswell, 2014). Transformative research works within the social justice system with the intention to change it for better and prevent the further marginalisation of individuals.

5.2.4. Pragmatism

In social science research, a pragmatic paradigm is proposed as a philosophical basis for mixed methods research, according to Mertens (2010) and Creswell (2014). Pragmatism is oriented towards solving practical problems in the real world rather than built on assumptions regarding the nature of knowledge (Creswell, 2014; Shannon-Baker, 2016). From a pragmatic point of view, this process of inquiry is an '*explicit attempt to produce new knowledge by taking actions and experiencing the results of that action,*' according to Morgan (2020).

Consequently, for the purpose of this study, pragmatism was selected as it is the most appropriate, as it provided justification for the use of mixed methods (Mitchell and Education, 2018). Johnson *et al.* (2007) contend that pragmatism is an advanced philosophy that provides the epistemology and logic for the combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Creswell (2014) suggested that pragmatism is the philosophy which permits the mixing of paradigms, assumptions, research approaches, along with the mixing of data collection and analysis methods. This study focused on obtaining the necessary data to answer the research questions and rejected the planned method design. In addition, based on the work of Dewey (Manicas, 2008) the pragmatic philosophy was

guided by the assumption that an inquiry should be a form of experience which enables the research to resolve uncertainty. The study was therefore guided by the pragmatic philosophy, as it's mixed methods approach, various assumptions and methodological stances (quantitative and qualitative) as reported by Bleiker *et al.* (2019). Quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible with pragmatism and only the purpose of the study influences the decisions of the researcher. Thus, quantitative and qualitative approaches were integrated in a single study in order to answer the research questions following the adoption of a pragmatic philosophy.

Based on pragmatism, an interaction with participants at various phases during data collection (i.e. the three phases of surveys and focus groups), was made possible. Moreover, pragmatism, as a philosophical underpinning, facilitates mixed methods. Therefore, certain aspects of social research were combined with quantitative and qualitative methods for this study. Pragmatism does face some criticism for its basic underlying assumptions. However, pragmatism is one of the most common frameworks used by mixed methods researchers and is also central to the instruction of mixed methods (see Creswell and Plano-Clark, 2011). Hence, researchers had previously placed importance on how methods could not be combined but the importance of practitioners of mixed methods work was necessary about how the methods could be combined in pursuit of an inquiry (Biesta, 2010). Therefore, this study used the triangulation approach, and this integration supported the research in achieving the rigour it required. The researcher justified the methodological choice given the necessity to combine both quantitative and qualitative paradigms point of view as two integrated, not conflicting philosophies.

Pragmatism has the ability not only to provide philosophical justification for the mixed method research, it also opens other possible options to review other research philosophies. The choice of methods was based on a consensus generated by the need for

entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation for nascent rural women in Uganda. In practical terms, pragmatism is reflected in the appropriateness of the methods to research questions without prior limitations being established. Some authors such as (Mertens 2010 and Creswell, 2014; 2017) have considered pragmatism explicitly as the only foundation for mixed methods research. Overall, pragmatism is the appropriate choice for this study in view of the nascent rural female entrepreneur, their experiences, their understanding of entrepreneurship and the impact that entrepreneurship has on their perceived emancipation. Furthermore, when a large population sample for statistical data requires justification, pragmatism is the most suitable philosophical paradigm.

5.2.4 Conclusion

In this study pragmatism was referred to as a philosophical partner suitable for mixed-methods research as confirmed by Biesta (2010) and Creswell (2014). Epistemological and ontological stances which are drawn from the pragmatism research paradigm as suggested by Cohen *et al.* (2011) were considered. This paradigm allowed for singular/multiple realities and knowledge was constructed in terms of the context. With the pragmatist approach, the participants were contacted at different stages during the study. For example, the three stages of surveys and the focus groups. Thus, pragmatism has an emphasis on offering answers to practical problems in a practical world, rather than focusing on philosophical debate.

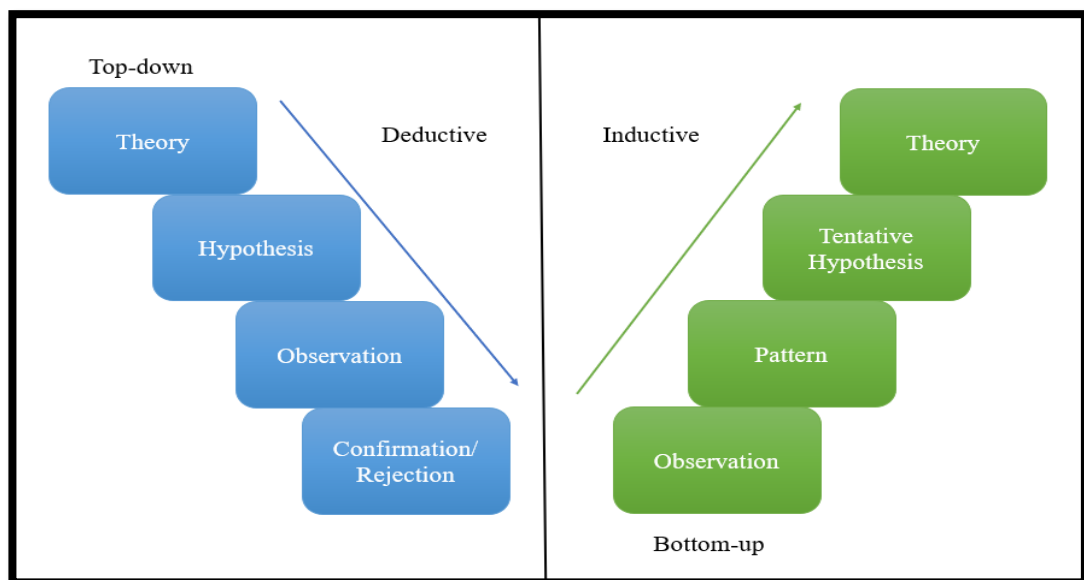
Pragmatism, as a philosophical underpinning, facilitates a mixed methods study. Some aspects of the research are social with quantitative methods and some with qualitative methods. Contrary to positivism and constructivism, pragmatism stresses that commonalities exist between quantitative and qualitative research. They are both primarily aimed at exploring social reality, so they should not be treated as rigid or dichotomies. The choice of the research method depends upon the research philosophy

and research approach of a study. Therefore, the philosophy and approach of this study was chosen due to the numerous variables such as entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and entrepreneurial activities. The literature review of this study enabled this decision. Therefore, literature informed the design which was used in this study. For this reason, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in order to acquire the complex data.

5.3. APPROACH

Two methodological approaches, namely deductive and inductive (Bernardt *et al.*, 2012), were applied in this study. Deductive reasoning is generally paired with quantitative research. Deductive studies begin with a hypothesis, which is then stated in operational terms, representing exactly how the concepts or variables are measured (Figure 5.4; Table 5.3).

Figure 5.4: Deductive Approach and Inductive Approaches



Source: Adapted from Burney (2008).

By contrast, the inductive approach (from the specific to the general), is normally associated with qualitative research. The process for the inductive approach begins with specific observations, then the identification of patterns, followed by the data collection,

and the development of a research method to evaluate it (Anderson, 2017). In other words, the process is data to theory, or from the specific to the general. Qualitative methods can be used in this approach to examine causal relationships between variables and to explain the phenomenon under study. Research using an inductive approach is likely to be concerned with the context in which such events takes place (Figure 5.4; Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Deductive and Inductive Approaches

Deduction	Induction
Scientific principles	Gaining an understanding of the meanings that humans attach to events
Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context
The need to explain causal relationships between variables	A close understanding of the research context
The collection of quantitative data	The collection of qualitative data
The application of controls to ensure the validity of data	A more flexible structure which permits changes to the research focus on the research progresses
The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition.	The realisation that the researcher is part of the research process
A highly structured approach	Less concerned with the need to generalise
The researcher's independence from what is being researched	
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions	

Source: Saunders et al. (2009).

Building on the two approaches the research used both deductive and inductive as the researcher started with a literature review, which was followed by data collection to explore the phenomenon and went on to generate the theory as in table 5.3. This is where the collection of quantitative data was considered and followed with the collection of qualitative data. The inductive approach, however, works in reverse, as detailed in Figure 5.4. In conclusion, this study used the deductive approach during certain stages which provides the means for facts to be measured quantitatively through surveys. While the inductive approach was used for the focus groups. The characteristic of deduction is

generalisation, therefore, this approach emphasised structures, quantification and questionable hypotheses.

5.4. METHODOLOGY CHOICE

This study used a mixed methods research design as suggested by both Sarantakos (2013) and Bowen *et al.* (2017). Mixed methods research is defined by Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) as, '*research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inference using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study.*' The design used a mixture of quantitative and qualitative sources of evidence. These included semi-structured and in-depth interviews, surveys and focus groups. Quantitative research design is more suited to questions such as 'what' and 'how', whereas qualitative research is concerned with the 'why,' 'when' and 'where' as suggested by Yin (2009).

The contribution of entrepreneurship training for the emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs was further explored through the research design. According to Bryman (2006), the research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data. The choice of a research design allows indicates the decisions of a researcher regarding the priority given to the dimensions of the research process. Research design is defined as:

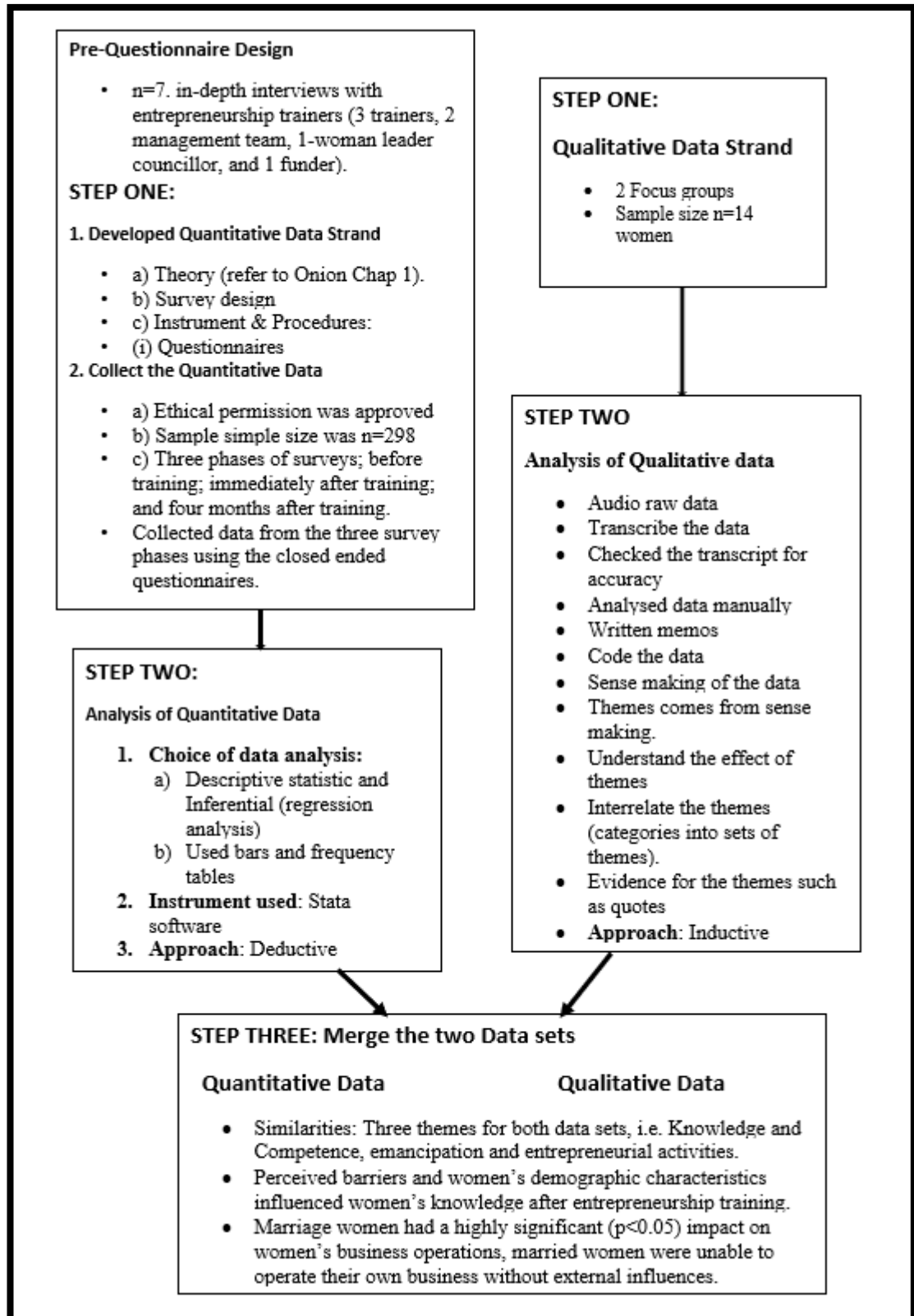
"A plan that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations. It is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation." Nachmias & Nachmias, (1976)

In choosing a research design, the study portrayed the importance of the research method and techniques to be used by the researcher. In confirmation with Nachmias argument the research design allowed the researcher to use a suitable method that was best for the study. Furthermore, this was done to understand the social context of the study, the linkages and interconnections while planning the research design.

Creswell and Clark (2007) suggested that, “*the combination of quantitative and qualitative data provided a more complete picture by noting trends and generalization together with in-depth knowledge of participants’ perspectives.*” This study used triangulation to validate the data acquired from both the quantitative (survey) and qualitative (focus groups). Zikmund *et al.* (2012) observed that when the survey method is utilised, direct participation, either in the form of completion of a questionnaire or through interaction with the interviewer, is necessary. For the purpose of this study, three phases of survey were conducted: (I) Before the training; (II) Immediately following the training; and (III) four months following training. A follow-up with two focus groups was necessary to capture the unanswered questions as reported in Husain (2019).

The concept of the mixed methods approach to research is often discussed in the context of combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Lichtman, 2010; Sarantakos, 2013). Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) suggested that mixed methods research can be broadly defined as research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single inquiry. Figure 5.5 shows how this study was implemented using mixing methods design of quantitative and qualitative.

Figure 5.5: Show the Implementation of Mixed Method Design in this Study



Source: Author adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Creswell argued that there are four key features (see Figure 5.5 above) when discussing mixed methods: (I) Collecting and analysing qualitative and quantitative data (open and closed-ended) in response to research questions; (II) Using rigorous qualitative and quantitative methods; (III) Combining or integrating quantitative and qualitative data using a specific type of mixed methods design; and (IV) framing the mixed methods design within a broader framework (for example, experiment, theory or philosophy). However, there is inconsistency among researchers about what constitutes mixed methods (Bryman, 2007; Sandelowski, 2001; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Some view mixed methods research as the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data.

For this study both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used by representing the same phenomenon, but from different perspectives or lenses. Essentially, the rationale for choosing mixed methods research for this study was that it allowed for a stronger overall data than single data types. As explained by Bryman (2006) and Wisdom *et al.* (2012), the rationale involved the following: (I) Triangulation – quantitative and qualitative methods are combined to triangulate findings so they are mutually corroborated; (II) Instrument development – where qualitative methods are employed to develop a questionnaire and scale items; (III) Diversity of views – combining the perspectives of both the researchers and participants, through quantitative and qualitative research, respectively. This is achieved by uncovering the relationships between variables through quantitative research, while also revealing meanings among research participants through qualitative research; (IV) Explanation – used to explain findings generated by another researcher; (V) Credibility – which employs both approaches to enhance the integrity of the findings of the research; (VI) Offset – referring to the suggestion that the research methods associated with both quantitative and qualitative research have their own strengths and weaknesses. Therefore, the combination of them allows the researcher to offset the weaknesses and draw on the strengths of both; and (VII) Different research

questions referring to the argument that quantitative and qualitative research can each answer different research questions as in this study.

In some cases, quantitative findings may have insignificant variables which cannot be clearly explained. These variables can be investigated by a qualitative method and therefore the use of focus group allows participants to provide narrative of their experiences. The benefit that both methods provide is in understanding the linkages between entrepreneurship training and emancipation, as well as explaining the phenomenon through surveys and focus groups. The assumptions and philosophical underpinnings vary greatly between quantitative and qualitative research positions.

These diverse assumptions shape the way that researchers approach social inquiry. Furthermore, quantitative and qualitative approaches were used to complement each other and provide the necessary rigour for the development of research findings in the 13 key criteria of perceived emancipation and entrepreneurship training regarding the nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The quantitative data was drawn from surveys covering 298 women. By considering quantitative and qualitative methods, it is prudent that triangulation is explained and the rationale for its use in this study.

5.4.1 Triangulation

In this study triangulation was vital as there were multilevel data sources, which is suggested by Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) Flick (2018) considered triangulation of data as important for the analysis of data. This is especially true when comparing results of different approaches as well as methods used in this research. Triangulation refers to the utilisation of multiple approaches to generate better understanding of a given theory or phenomenon as suggested by Burton and Obel (2018). Triangulation was preferred for this study as the flaws of one method are often the strength of another. Therefore, the unique deficiencies of each method can be overcome by the combination

of methods such as questionnaires and focus groups (Flick, 2018). Researchers agree that mixed methods utilising triangulation does not merely look at the data sets, but look into the data in a more comprehensive and rigorous manner (Mertens and Hesse-Biber, 2012). In this study, triangulation was applied due to the following reasons: (I) The nature of research being quantitative and qualitative; (II) The need to analyse corresponding data differently; (III) Compare, contrast and synthesise the results; and (IV) To produce a more complete understanding of the study.

5.4.2 Quantitative Research

The quantitative paradigm is based on positivism. Quantitative research attempts to operate under the assumption of objectivity. This method or the paradigm of objectivity, is a process which is directed towards the development of testable hypotheses and theories, which are aimed to be generalisable across settings. This is exemplified by methods employed in the natural sciences, with a focus on hypothesis testing. Survey questionnaires, personality tests and standardised research instruments are all tools which are employed with quantitative research upon systematic protocols and techniques (Crotty, 1998). The techniques often used with quantitative research include surveys, case studies, quasi-experimental designs, pre-test-post-test designs and other designs (Campbell and Stanley, 2015).

One of the main advantages of quantitative research is the relative ease and speed with which research is conducted (Amaratunga *et al.*, 2002). Quantitative methodologies can provide wider coverage for a range of situations. For example, the survey was able to cover many individual women scattered across villages in the Kiryandongo district. This is advantageous, as the statistics are aggregated from large samples, which may be of considerable relevance to policy decisions, as confirmed by Amaratunga *et al.* (2002). However, this methodology tends to be rigid, artificial and ineffective in terms of gauging

the significance that people attach to actions, and it is generally not useful for generating theories (Crotty, 1998; Chamberlain, 2015). The researcher acknowledges that there are challenges in the methodology used in this study.

From this perspective, knowledge is inescapably embedded in values and cultures, including the research process itself, as it was in this study. Due to the epistemological differences between quantitative and qualitative methods, there was some consideration on how the research design was created. It was not appropriate to simply combine both approaches without attending to epistemological assumptions regarding knowledge and its legitimate sources, as suggested by Tonkin-Crine *et al.* (2015). However, due to the dominance of quantitative methods in research, quantitative researchers are keen to employ mixed methods, and they may add qualitative techniques to the study such as a post-positivist standpoint. For instance, surveys were used for this study to collect quantitative data. This was then followed up with focus group discussions following the third phase of surveys.

5.4.3 Qualitative Research

The qualitative method is defined by Anderson (2019) as *‘a form of enquiry that explores phenomena in their natural settings and uses multi-methods to interpret, understand, explain and bring meaning to them.’* Marshall and Rossman (2014) suggested that qualitative research is pragmatic, interpretive and grounded in the life experiences of people. Therefore, the data collected and analysed from qualitative research reflects the words of the respondents, and in the words used by the researcher to describe the activities, as suggested by Blaxter *et al.* (2010). This study adopted the definition provided by del Socorro (2020) for the experience of women and their observations. This exposes the qualitative method as a multifaceted approach which investigates culture, society and behaviour through an analysis of people’s words and actions.

The experiences and story narratives of women were vital to this study. Hearing their own voices and words, observing while they share their experiences, considering their feelings on what they go through as they start their own businesses. During the data collection, the researcher was responsible for asking the questions, collecting data, generating interpretations and recording. The qualitative element focused on understanding the insider's perspective regarding the nascent rural female entrepreneurs and their experiences. Therefore, the researcher required direct personal and participatory contact with respondents.

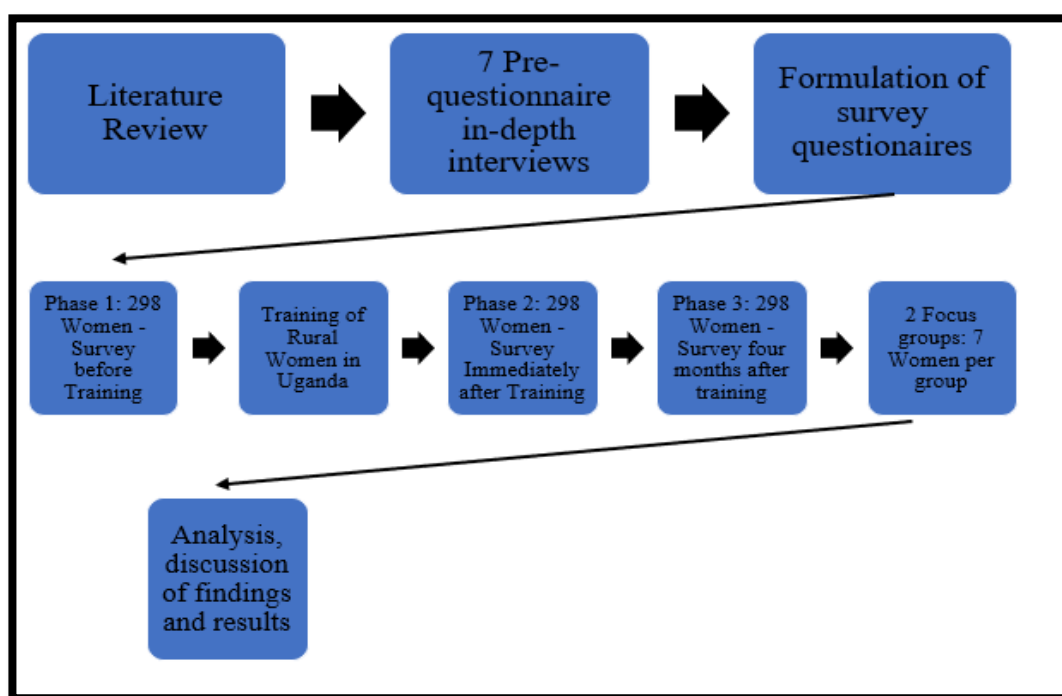
In conclusion, quantitative and qualitative methods used multiple sources to collect the data (O'Dwyer and Gilmore, 2019). The reason may be that both methods complement each other and, as such, constitute different, though by no means mutually exclusive, strategies for research (Tran, 2019). Based on this discussion, it can be concluded that there are no golden rules of methodology choice. The particular method adopted depends on the nature of the study in question, along with the discretion of the researcher. Therefore, considering the dearth of information on the contribution of entrepreneurship training to the perceived emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, it seems reasonable that the research methods adopted in this study should include both qualitative and quantitative methods. This supported the research in generating insights and drawing conclusions regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and the impact of rural female entrepreneurial activities in Uganda. Generally, quantitative and qualitative combines the stories of people as it has been discussed in this study.

5.5. RESEARCH STRATEGIES

According to Yin (1994), a research strategy should be chosen as a function of the research context. Each research strategy has its own specific plan regarding the collection and analysis of empirical data, and therefore each strategy has its advantages and

disadvantages. Although each strategy has its own characteristics, there are overlapping areas, which bring complexity to the process of strategy selection. This is shown in research Figure 5.5, the steps taken to collect primary data from the nascent rural females in the Kiryandongo District is explained.

Figure 5.6: Steps when Collecting Data



Source: Author.

Due to the lack of prior information regarding the contribution of entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation of rural women in Uganda, there was a need to better understand how entrepreneurship training is delivered in the rural areas of Uganda, in particular, the Kiryandongo District. This allowed for the design to be an appropriate strategy for research. For example, information regarding entrepreneurship training programmes, information regarding rural nascent females and their informal business, and any knowledge regarding business skills were captured to enable the strategy design. The collection of prior information using in-depth interviews with seven interviewees (six women, one man) was vital. Specifically, the main purpose of the in-depth interview was to guide the design of the questionnaires.

This was followed with the two research strands: (A) A quantitative approach (survey questionnaire that was completed in three phases by 298 nascent rural female respondents. This took place in three phases: (I) Before entrepreneurship training was delivered, (II) Immediately after the entrepreneurship training was delivered and (III) 4 months after the entrepreneurship training had finished. (B) The qualitative approach (i.e. two focus groups; seven women per group). The use of both an approach quantitative and qualitative, provided the means of determining where the data converged. It also allowed the triangulation of both methods to generate a better understanding of the phenomenon of entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation as suggested by Burton and Obel (2011). However, as there was inadequate secondary information on this phenomenon, it was impossible to use historical data or archival methods to access the necessary data. Therefore, surveys and focus groups were deemed appropriate to collect data for this study.

5.5.1 Sampling strategy

A critical assumption underpinning quantitative research is that the data source is a representative of the population because the sample members have a known probability of being selected for the sample, and the result of the sample size meets the power criteria to detect statistically significant relationships and differences (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2017). The validity of quantitative data for this study was guaranteed by drawing a significant number (n=298) of participants from the population of (n=1100) of rural women. This significant number of women were selected randomly to increase the validity of the study (Emerson, 2015). This sample represented (27 percent) of the population under study. In addition, an intensity sampling (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2017) was used to include the experiences of the rural female entrepreneurs whose views on the topic was important. This included women who had planned to start their own

businesses after the entrepreneurship training because their opinions, views and experiences about start-up was considered as intensively important to the phenomena. The snowballing technique (Bryman, 2008) was used to identify the 14 nascent female entrepreneurs who had started their business for inclusion in the focus groups.

The snowball sampling which is defined as a non-probability form of sampling, persons initially chosen for the sample used as informants to locate other persons having necessary characteristics making them eligible for the sample (Bailey, 2019). Under this snowball sampling, women were selected using criteria entailed in Table 5.4 using chain referral to obtain the number of rural women needed for the focus groups.

Table 5.4. Selection Criteria of Rural Women

1.	A woman must belong to the Kiryandongo District
2.	A woman should be a member of a Village saving and loan association (VSLA) or is in an informal business
3.	A woman should have no prior entrepreneurship training, in particular marketing.
4.	A woman must be living in a rural community

Source: Author.

Chain-referral sampling is a snowball non-probability sampling method which is cost effective. The referral chain was used as respondents referred other nascent rural women from the same location to be part of the focus group in this study (Penrod *et al.*, 2003; Bailey, 2019).

5.5.2 Sample size

Clegg (1990) suggested that when deciding on a sample size there is some information which needs to be considered: (I) The kind of statistical analysis planned; (II) the expected variability within the samples based on experience; and (III) The traditions of the particular research area regarding appropriate sample size. Therefore, the sample

size for the study was drawn from 298 nascent rural women from the Kiryandongo district. The focus group sample (14 women) were selected from the 298 survey respondents. The respondents were carefully selected considering the four criteria entailed in Table 5.4.

5.5.3 Study population

The study population consisted of nascent rural women who were aspiring to start businesses, and some were already in informal businesses without entrepreneurship training. Banerjee and Chaudhury (2010) defined a population as an entire group of people from whom information is collected. The population must be fully defined so that those to be included and excluded are clearly spelt out (inclusion and exclusion criteria). Participants may share similar attributes of interest (Creswell, 2017). These attributes then make participants eligible as population members of the study. In selecting a population for this study, it also suited their rural setting networks. However, the population specification was not guided by the same principles in qualitative and quantitative research (Creswell, 2017). For the purpose of this study, 298 nascent rural women participated in the three phases of the survey and entrepreneurship training. Out of the 298 women, 14 were selected to further participate in focus groups based on the criteria in Table 5.4.

5.5.4 Geographical location

Kiryandongo is located in the mid-western region of Uganda with its headquarters 218 km north of Kampala. The district has a land area of 3,624.1 Km² of which 1,747 Km² is arable land with a population of 266,197. Of this population 133,701 (50.3%) are male and 132,496 (49.7%) are female (UBOS, 2014). Further detailed information regarding the geographic location was presented in Chapter 4, section 4.3.

5.5.5 Pre-questionnaire design information

The practice of a pre-questionnaire is highly regarded as an effective technique in improving the validity of the data collection and supporting data analysis (Foddy, 1998; Bowden *et al.*, 2002 and Behr *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, information was captured from a pre-questionnaire in order to design the main questionnaire. This in the form of semi-structured in-depth interviews with seven interviewees (six women and one man). These interviews took place over the phone in December 2018. The main aim was to capture enough correct information to include in the questionnaire design. The pre-questionnaire interview was undertaken for the following reasons:

- 1) To allow the researcher to identify areas of concern in the scope of entrepreneurship training in Uganda;
- 2) To find out what information was available regarding entrepreneurship training for supporting rural women through entrepreneurship programmes;
- 3) The interviewees were purposely chosen to inform the design of the three phases of the survey questionnaires that took place: (I) before training; (II) immediately after training; and (III) four months after training, followed by two focus groups (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998);
- 4) Seven in-depth interviews were in preparation for the large-scale research which was going to take place. This allowed the researcher to understand the location, language barriers and the need for research enumerators to be recruited from the local area who understood the language. This was in support of the women to complete the survey questionnaires due to illiteracy amongst many of them;
- 5) Interviewees explained clearly at this stage that the researcher needed to have enough funding to be able to conduct the surveys effectively;
- 6) The researcher utilised the pre-questionnaire design information from the interviewees for quality and validity purposes for effective surveys and avoiding errors.

The in-depth interviews involved the posing of open-ended questions and follow-up probes which were designed to obtain an in-depth understanding of the experience of the interviewees.

Table 5.5 summarises the demographic information of the interviewees along with their number of years work experience. The seven interviewees came from different regions of Uganda. This provided a variety in experience levels and knowledge in terms of standardised entrepreneurship supports around the country. All interviewees were highly experienced trainers in entrepreneurship education. Five of these leaders had both a bachelor's degree and a master's degree in their education career.

Table 5.5. Profile of Pre-questionnaire In-depth Interviewees

Interviewee	Gender	Position	Region/Location	Years	Education
Joan	Female	Trainer	Kiryandongo	7 years	Degree
Doreen	Female	Board member	Mpigi rural women	10 years	Degree
Jennifer	Female	Trainer	Masaka Entrepreneurship centre	6 years	Degree
Margaret	Female	Women's Councillor	Kiryandongo	9 years	Certificate
John	Male	Funder	Kiryandongo	6 years	Degree
Aidah	Female	CEO	Rakai	12 years	Diploma
Lilian	Female	Trainer	Makerere Business School	15 years	Masters

**The names are pseudonyms, to ensure anonymity.*

The data in Table 5.5 indicates that the positions of the interviewees varied. Three were entrepreneurship trainers from different entrepreneurship centres. Two were board management members at the entrepreneurship centres. One was a female councillor (a leader from Kiryandongo), and one was a male funder of the entrepreneurship programme. One of the best ways to '*enter into the other person's perspective*' (Patton 2002) and develop a description of a given social world, when analysed for cultural patterns and themes (Warren, 2002), is through techniques such as in-depth interviews. These conversations were more than a means of information retrieval. They were considered conversations through which the researcher gained an understanding of the world of the experiences of the interviewees (Mahama and Khalifa, 2017).

5.5.6 Survey design

Studies have shown that before commencing survey research, the design or format that is appropriate for the proposed study must be determined (Boachie, 2017). Surveys are classified according to when the data collection takes place, such as longitudinal survey (panel studies, trend studies and cohort research). For studies that change across time. Or cross-sectional surveys, which focus on a single point in time. This study is a cross-sectional survey where data was collected at a single point in time, with the intention of getting fair representation of the nascent rural female entrepreneurs from the Kiryandongo district.

The survey method was chosen for the quantitative portion of this study. It has been suggested by Zikmund (1997) and Boachie (2017) that when the survey method is utilised, some form of direct participation by the respondents is involved, either in the form of completion of a questionnaire or interacting with the enumerators. This was necessary due to the language and illiteracy barriers reported during the pre-questionnaire design process. Survey research is one of the most utilised areas of measurement in social research and the following are some of the basic steps involved in survey research shown below in table 5 6.

Table 5.6. Six Basic Steps of Survey Research

Step	Details
Planning	Survey research begins with a research question that the researcher believes can be answered appropriately by the survey method. The research question in survey research is concerns the beliefs, preferences, attitudes or behaviours of the respondents in the study.
Defining the population	One of the first important steps is to define the population under the study. The population may be large or limited. Defining the population is essential for identifying the appropriate subjects to select and for knowing to whom the results can be generalized.
Sampling	It is important to select a sample that will provide results similar to those that would have been obtained if the entire population had been surveyed. In other words, the sample must be representative of the population.
Constructing the instrument	A major task in survey is to construct the survey instruments that will be used to gather the data from the sample. The two basic types of data gathering instruments are the interviews and questionnaires.
Conducting the survey	When the data gathering instrument is prepared, it is tested to determine if it will provide the desired data.
Processing the data	This step includes coding the data, statistical analysis, interpreting the results and reporting the findings.

Source: Boachie, 2017.

The survey method enabled the researcher to obtain a numeric description of the population's opinions and attitudes, where some women were unable to express themselves properly. Considering the nature of the questions, as well as the large number of respondents, the survey approach was the primary method for data collection. This involved three phases of surveys: (I) Before training; (II) Immediately after training; and (III) Four months after training.

However, the researcher used a face-to-face survey for the following reasons: (I) Many respondents who were surveyed could not write, therefore enumerators supported in completing the questionnaire; (II) In-depth information and details that the researcher secured; (III) Different languages used in the locality; and (IV) Researcher/enumerator had greater control over the type of questions asked and had an opportunity to observe the effects of the surveys on the respondent. The survey allowed the researcher to gather information from a large number of nascent rural female entrepreneurs quickly and inexpensively. This required careful planning for some time before the survey was undertaken for the purpose of reliability and validity.

5.5.7 Ethical Considerations

The field survey involved establishing the standards of research with the Director of Research for the Technological University Dublin. Approval was sought from the Ethics department to ensure that the research proceedings were consistent with the research principles of the university. Ethical forms were submitted by both the researcher and supervisor to the director of the ethics department (see Appendix 8). When conducting business research, specific ethical provisions should be taken into consideration, as suggested by Saunders *et al.* (2009). There had to be a guarantee that no portion of the research would negatively affect the respondents (see consent form Appendix 1). Therefore, institutional approval and anonymity were required for the ethical dimensions of the research. The researcher communicated with the Country Director of Self-Help Africa, regarding the planned study permission was sought to conduct the proposed surveys and focus groups with the rural women participants. Through emails and phone calls, the study was explained to the Country Director and appointments were set-up ahead of data collection. Prior to administering questionnaires, the researcher sought the informed consent of all prospective participants and maintained confidentiality for the participants.

5.5.8 Focus Groups

The aim of the focus groups was to obtain comprehensive and quality data that was difficult to capture during the survey phase of the research. According to Eros (2020), a focus group involves discussion with a small group of people on specific topics. Focus groups may be structured in a manner similar to individual in-depth semi-structured interviews. This is in the sense that they consisted of open-ended questions which were designed to capture in-depth experiences of the respondents. Focus groups are data collection techniques which rely on the interaction of group members to formulate answers to the research questions. The women in the focus groups discussed their lived experiences, in a genuine and interactive manner. There was a dynamic participation

between the female entrepreneurs and a flow of discussion. This gave a feeling of support to every participant in the focus group, which is a technique as suggested by Winke (2017). There was a feeling of trust and confidence during discussions.

Two focus groups with seven rural female entrepreneurs in each group were conducted. Following the focus group discussions, the research assistant who supported the researcher as an observer (was present at discussions), checked the accuracy and quality of the data collected from the female entrepreneurs to gain clarity on some of the findings which were discussed in the two focus groups. According to Morgan and Krueger (1998), it is essential that participants focus collectively upon a topic selected by the researcher for discussion in the focus groups. The data accuracy was checked by the observer while clarifying what the women meant as they were explaining their experiences, and their stories to let the researcher start transcribing coding the interviews. Groups for this study were selected according to their savings and loan records during the month of January 2019. There were seven village loan and savings groups in the Kiryandongo region, and the NGO trainers chose two women from each group, to make 14 members, with seven in each focus group. There was good participation and discussion in the focus groups by all contributors.

During the focus group discussions, manual notes were taken using a notebook for the purpose of avoiding errors in data analysis stage. Conversations between the researcher and the contributors were audio-recorded, with the permission having been obtained in advance. The researcher used a digital recorder (Olympus digital Audio recorder Model WS-853, black). This allowed the researcher to transfer the data to the PC for safe storage, which was transcribed afterwards. The researcher also used a phone recording for back-up in case the data was lost from the recorder. The interviews were conducted by the researcher herself. However, the three phases of data collection, which

included the surveys, was conducted by the researcher, the enumerators and the research observer.

To conclude, the pre-questionnaire design information (in-depth interviews) and focus groups were effective at collecting information. The advantage of the focus group was that participants responded not only to the researcher but also to other contributors and their responses and focus groups discussions emerged to be very effective. The implementation of the survey method involved the use of face-to-face questionnaires with the help of enumerators, as there are many languages used in Kiryandongo district.

5.6. TIME HORIZON

Past research within the entrepreneurship discipline largely falls into two areas, namely cross-sectional and longitudinal research. As explained earlier in 5.5.6 this study does not use longitudinal or panel data due to time limitations and costs. Longitudinal research demands additional time, in some cases up to three years and it requires additional funding (Rindfleisch *et al.*, 2008). These expenses are often prohibitive for academic researchers with limited budgets and time. Therefore, the time horizon selected was cross-sectional as the data could be collected at one point in time (Nazri *et al.*, 2016). Cross-sectional studies are concerned with change and their corresponding factors, but more precisely, they focus on direct instruction regarding the factors involved and they examine the impact on learning outcomes.

Therefore, a cross-sectional study was used for the following reasons: (I) The study is descriptive and the aim is to describe a population or its subgroup with respect to an outcome (Levin, 2006) and (II) To find the outcome of interest for the population of this study. The study collected data at a single point in time using surveys at three phases (i.e. before training, immediately after training and four months after training). Moreover, a cross-sectional study has the advantages of being relatively cheap, taking up little time

and is easy to follow-up as it is conducted at a single point of time. However, every method has its own disadvantage and the challenge of a cross-sectional method may have differences between samples and this may cause bias in the results. This challenge was mitigated as the researcher had the same respondents for the three phases of survey.

5.7. DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES AND PROCEDURES

Data collection techniques allowed the researcher to systematically collect information regarding the objects of the study (i.e. people, objects, phenomena), and about the settings where they occurred (Chaleunvong, 2009). There are different types of data collection techniques such as observation, interviewing (face-to-face), questionnaires and focus group discussions. In this study, data collection instruments or tools were chosen to fulfil the objectives of the study under investigation. Two research tools were selected as suitable for the study: Face-to-face structured questionnaires used for the three phases of surveys (see Appendix 3,4 and 5) and an interview guide for the focus group discussions, (see Appendix 6). The reasoning behind these two data collections techniques were: (I) Some respondents were able to ask enumerator where they did not understand the question; and (II) The researcher/enumerators were able to guide the respondent where necessary and make the question easier and simpler. All this improved the quality of the data collected.

5.7.1 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is defined as a document that consists of a number of questions prepared in a definite order on a form or a set of forms. Questionnaires were used as a strategy for respondents to present information, to express their attitudes, beliefs and their feelings regarding the research topic (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). However, difficulties with questionnaire design sometimes occur when respondents misinterpret

questions (Hilton, 2017). Hence, interviewer or enumerators would introduce probe questions to check that the questions are understood and being interpreted as intended (Hilton, 2017). A structured questionnaire was formulated, and data was collected from 298 respondents at three different phases: (I) Before entrepreneurship training was delivered; (II) Immediately after entrepreneurship training was delivered; and (III) four months following entrepreneurship training. The two sets of questionnaires before training and immediately after training consisted of 21 items divided into four categories: (I) Introduction; (II) Business Training and Skills (Knowledge and Competence); (III) Emancipation; and (IV) Demographics. The questionnaire 4 months after training consisted of 32 items divided into five categories: (I) Introduction; (II) Business Training and Skills (Knowledge and Competence; (III) Emancipation; (IV) Business start-up; and (V) Demographics.

A variety of response format questions were constructed, with the majority as pre-coded questions. There was one open-ended question at the end for participants to give any other information. These included variable scales, rating scales, ranking and Likert scales questions. The advantage of a structured questionnaire is that they are easy to administer, consistent and the subsequent data management is tenable. Furthermore, a structured questionnaire was used for the following reasons:

- There was a high response rate as they were completed in the presence of the enumerators;
- The questions were straight forward and easy for the respondent to answer quickly;
- It was easy to regulate the response time;
- It eliminated bias as the interviewer and enumerators were available to support the respondents if required.
- Enumerators were conversant in all the languages used in the local area, and this

was a great benefit if a woman needed help. Closed questions also made it easier as there was a high percentage of illiterate respondents.

The researcher used enumerators to administer survey questionnaires to the respondents. In order to achieve the aims of the study, the survey questionnaires were based on variables related to women's perceived emancipation, entrepreneurship training, demographics, entrepreneurial activities and perceived barriers of the respondents.

5.7.2 Interview Guide

An interview is a method of data collection which gathers information through oral or verbal questioning (Bedzra, 2020). Wilkson and Birmingham (2003) described interviews as a conversation and identified three forms of conversations: (I) In everyday life; (II) in literature; and (III) In the professions. Consequently, in this study an interview guide was used during focus group discussions. It included the following topics with different open-ended questions: (I) The contribution of entrepreneurship training; (II) The impact of emancipation on the nascent rural female entrepreneurs; and (III) Entrepreneurial activities. Interviews involved obtaining audio data, captured by recording each individual woman during the discussion. The focus group interviews were recorded with contributors' permission. Yin (2009) considers focus group interviews as one of the most important sources of information. For example, Babbie and Mouton (2011) observed that the main advantage of focus groups is the opportunity to observe a large number of interactions on a topic in a limited period of time. However, focus groups also reveal a disadvantage by requiring a great attention from the interviewer's role and they provide less depth and detail about the opinion and experiences of any given participant (Hofisi *et al.*, 2014). As all other forms of data collection techniques, focus groups have such strength and weaknesses in data collection.

5.7.3 Type of Data Collected

The type of data collected depended on the specific research questions of the study

for example: (I) The data about rural female entrepreneurial business skills (knowledge and competence) were obtained in the form of their own ratings. This was achieved using a pre-survey development criterion as impacted by entrepreneurship training; (II) Data on the impact of perceived emancipation, it was necessary to capture the data specific to women on the 13 key criteria of perceived emancipation; (III) The data regarding the perceived impact of emancipation on entrepreneurial activities among nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda were acquired in the form of ranking.

Respondents were asked questions using a 5-point Likert scale, before the entrepreneurship training was delivered, immediately after entrepreneurship training was delivered and four months after entrepreneurship training had finished. The 13 key questions were presented in the set of questionnaires (Appendix 3,4 and 5). The demographical questions were designed to gather details relating to the respondent's personal background such as: Age, education level, marital status, job type and number of children.

Prior to the field work for data collection, there were some series of activities to be implemented by the researcher:

- i) ***Deciding on data collection dates:*** Self Help Africa was contacted for a selection of data collection dates. The researcher was accepted by the organisation (SHA) as per the letter attached (Appendix 9). Accordingly, it was agreed that the data would be collected at three different dates beginning 1st February 2019 and ending 29th July 2019. This was done to allow for proper coverage of all respondents, considering the women's responsibilities at home, which are often done before leaving homes, as well as allowance for data quality assurance.
- ii) ***Printing, checking and organising questionnaires:*** Issues checked here included printed questionnaires that were not clearly visible, question numbers

were in order and numbered correctly. All questionnaires were organised according to the flow of questions.

- iii) ***Recruiting, training and evaluating enumerators:*** The enumerators were selected from the Self-Help Africa area of coverage. The training was done by the researcher and it involved going through the whole questionnaire with enumerators. The enumerators were assessed for their understanding of the subject matter of the questionnaire. Overall, the whole questionnaire was evaluated to fit the data collection.
- iv) ***Selecting data collection centres:*** The centres were selected according to the venue where women usually hold meetings such as schools, sub-county grounds and village saving and loan premises, along with other local council premises. The total number of centres selected were twenty (20), distributed across Kiryandongo.
- v) ***Introduction and briefing of data collection program:*** The research team was introduced to the respondents by the Self-Help Africa Program Coordinator, and a briefing was given regarding the data collection process, and how it would be conducted. Issues of completion of the questionnaires and the dos and don'ts of responding to questions in order to ensure the validity of the data were explained.
- vi) ***Administering questionnaires:*** Enumerators were dispatched to respective centres. On average, the questionnaire lasted for 20 minutes per respondent. In instances where some respondents were unable to fill the questionnaires, the enumerators had to come in and guide them. In this case, the questions were explained to some respondents and they provided answers in their local languages.

- vii) **Conducting quality assurance:** Enumerators checked the completion of the questionnaires by the respondents to see that they were done correctly, and all questions were answered. In instances where incorrect data was given, the completion of the form would be suspended, and the respondent would be guided through how to do it better. The whole process was done to ensure the validity and correctness of the data collected.
- viii) **Confidentiality:** The respondents were told that their responses would be confidential and used for academic purposes only. This assurance encouraged the respondents to provide unbiased and honest answers to the questions.
- ix) **A consent form:** A consent form (see appendix 1) was included with the questionnaire providing a brief introduction of the research, and reassurance that the information given was strictly for this research. The consent form showed that the researcher was pursuing a PhD degree from the Technological University Dublin. This helped avoid any suspicion regarding the legitimacy of the research and maybe provide increase in the response rate.

In summary, this study collected data by using surveys as they are the most common measurement in applied social science. The use of focus groups as were also appropriate for the study. However, a major challenge in survey research is securing a sufficiently high response rate to give credibility and reliability to the data, which has been achieved here.

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS

Both quantitative and qualitative research employs several analytic procedures although each one has a specific types of data analysis techniques. After collecting data, the returned questionnaires were coded. This was followed by developing a data entry program manually. The data was exported to stata programme, reverse coded items were adjusted to ensure consistency. Descriptive statistics were used to check for outliers and

missing values. Both forms of data analysis are explained further in detail.

5.8.1 Data entry and techniques

The process of data entry involved entering data into the computer manually by transforming hard data (recorded in questionnaires) into soft data (recorded into a computer software). Manual entry of data into spreadsheet/Excel was the technique used in this study. Both quantitative and qualitative data was entered into the computer manually.

Quantitative data entry

The study followed a series of six steps to analyse the quantitative data for each individual at each time period as suggested by Creswell (2014): (I) Report information regarding the number of the sample who did or did not return the survey; (II) Discuss the method by which response bias will be determined; (III) Discuss a plan to provide a descriptive analysis of data for all independent and dependent variables in the study. This should indicate the mean and standard deviations.; (IV) Proceed beyond descriptive approaches, identify the statistical procedures; (V) Identify the statistical computer program for testing the major inferential questions or hypotheses relate variables or compare groups in terms of variables so that inferences can be drawn from the sample to a population, and (VI) Present the results in tables or figure and interpret the results from statistical test.

The data was initially recorded in Microsoft Excel, which was then transferred into Stata, a statistical software package commonly employed in quantitative research, where more detailed data analysis is often conducted (Tanner and Tipton, 2014). The data was cleaned and coded in Stata which yielded a cross-section panel of data which was used to investigate the relationship between entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation, perceived barriers and demographic characteristics. In order to provide an accurate representation of the sample only individuals who answered all relevant

questions under knowledge and competence, perceived emancipation, perceived barriers, business start-up, psychological factory, and demographics were used in the data analysis. Therefore, individuals with missing data or incomplete data in a specific time period were excluded from the analysis in the process of data mining. Individuals were included in subsequent periods if they provided all relevant information necessary for appropriate data analysis. After these data restrictions a sample of 298 observations were drawn and analysed in detail.

Qualitative data entry

The researcher produced raw data in the form of transcriptions. Once the transcribing was completed, coding allowed the sorting of statements by content of stories, concept and themes (Postholm, 2019). The process involved the following:

- (i) Audiotape, the interviews were transcribed.
- (ii) Read and reread through the transcript to get a sense of the data.
- (iii) Code the transcripts (getting sense of the characters, setting, problem and action). The information was then organised into a table so that the coded elements of action were grouped together. The process was done manually
- (iv) The researcher reworked the sequence until it made sense.

Sense making is defined as ‘how people make sense out of their experiences in the world’. Positioning sense making as a process that requires the identification and description of and explanations as to how they link and relate to each other. According to Weick (1995) the underlying mechanics of sense making is that it is a thinking process that uses retrospective accounts to explain surprises, new information and a recurring cycle comprised of a sequence of events occurring over time. Weick (1995) defined sense making in line with the main psychological idea as:

“Sense making is about placement of items into framework, comprehending, redressing surprises, constructing meaning, interacting in pursuit of mutual understanding and patterning. Sense making is concerned with how the cues

are internalized in the first instance and how individuals decide to focus on specific cues.”

Numerous studies which have used sense making, employed in-depth interviews, narratives, discourse and techniques to analyse data have been used in these areas for decades (Genuis and Bronstein, 2017). Where sense making is used as analytical construct, data have been collected via narratives and discourse and many are analysed via a “collective mind-shared meaning” perspective (Weick, 1993; Latta, 2020).

The narrative becomes a text which can be analysed and the emphasis is on identifying shared meanings and common patterns of thought across individuals. As there were 7 in-depth interviews and the focus groups of this study in order to explore the understanding of entrepreneurship training and the emancipation of the nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Chabot (2019) argued that sense making is fundamental to everyone’s life; it is necessary to generate order from a position of previous unknowing and ambiguity. These uncertain situations move people to make inferences, compiling, collating, linking and ordering scattered data fragments.

In conformation with Miles and Huberman (1994) the researcher transcribed interviews verbatim, coded the categories and using sense making came out with themes that were tested by the data saturation when the same themes were evidenced. These findings were rearranged into Vignettes and causal effects matrices to enhance the relationship between themes and developed causal effects networks to visualize (Creswell, 2013). The qualitative data for each individual was audio-recorded. The audio raw data was converted into verbatim transcripts by manually typing the audio data into written word texts and cross-checked to make sure that what was written corresponded to what was recorded. The data was subjected to sense making process in which written transcripts/texts were read and checked to elucidate the meaning of individual words and groups of words. The data was manually coded, sorted, copied into categories and sense

made by carefully reading each sort category (Saldaña, 2015). All the coded data was cleaned.

5.8.2 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was based on the need to answer the specific research questions as in Chapter 1. The statistical analysis is used to gather statistical interpretations of the relationship between entrepreneurship training and emancipation. It is used to discover patterns or trends in data to help in understanding the experiences of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda (Creswell, 2011).

Quantitatively Data Analysis

Important variables used in quantitative data analysis included: (A) Dependent variables namely: (I) Perceived emancipation; (II) Knowledge; and (III) Competence; (B) Independent variables; (I) Education; highest level of education achieved (primary, secondary, vocational, university; (II) Age (18 to 24 years, 25 to 34 years, 35 to 44 years, 45 to 54 years, 55 to 64 years, and over 65 years); (III) Marital status (single, married, separated, divorced, and widowed); (IV) Job type (agriculture, shop owner, road vendor);) and (V) Number of children (no children, 1 to 2 children, 3 to 5 children, 6 to 10 children, and more than 10 children). It is important to note that in this study, some dependent variables became independent variables. For example, knowledge and competence influenced perceived emancipation; perceived barriers that depended on entrepreneur training impacted on perceived emancipation; and perceived emancipation influenced start-up businesses.

In order to examine the impact of training on perceived emancipation, the data set combines data from before training, immediately after training and four months after training periods for each individual, which yielded a panel of data of 894 (or 298x3) observations. A Hausman (1978) test indicates that a random effects regression is the

most appropriate method of investigating the relationship between perceived emancipation and socio-demographic variables in this study. Similarly, Audretsch *et al.* (2019) have employed a random effects regression model to examine the impact of entrepreneurship performance. The model was used in this study to analyse the contribution of entrepreneurship training on perceived emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The random effects model is also the most applicable because the model generates random slopes in variables and reduces standard errors, and it assumes a normal distribution in variables (Bell *et al.*, 2019). The following random effects regression equation was utilised to examine the impact of training and demographic characteristics on perceived emancipation of individual i in time period t (Eq.1):

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 T_{it} + \beta_n X_{it} \quad (1)$$

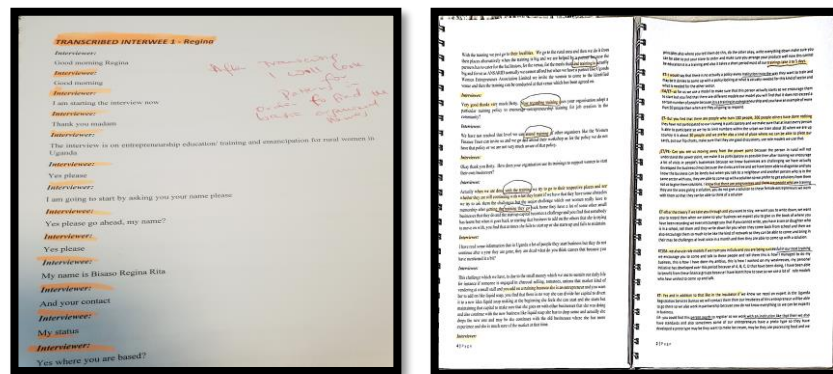
Where, Y is the perceived emancipation index, T is training, X represents individual demographic characteristics, β s are their coefficient estimates, while t refers to time before and after training. The Heckman sample selection test indicated that there was no sample selection bias in the data sample.

Qualitative data analysis

The analysis followed the key stages as laid out by Creswell (2014) to enhance Miles and Huberman (1994) techniques in ensuring that relationships of the established themes as they were developed, became familiar with the data and the generation of: (I) Initial codes; (II) Identification of themes; (III) Review of the themes; (IV) Defining the themes and (V) Producing the analysis. This process included transcribing the data verbatim, open coding, creating categories and abstraction (Hamilton, 2020). The transcription was conducted after the focus group interviews and were written verbatim (exactly word-for-word) (Davidson, 2009). Transcripts were systematically reviewed,

grouped into themes and analysed for content (Regmi *et al.*, 2010). Figure 5.6 shows the manual coding.

Figure 5.7: Process of Manual Coding



Source: Author.

The written material was read through several times, using as many headings as necessary and were written down in the margins to describe all aspects of the content. After this open coding, the lists of categories were grouped under higher order headings (Saldana, 2015). As the sense making process was used for this study, the headings were collected from the margins into coding sheets (Cope, 2016). Categories were freely generated at this stage. According to Naqvi *et al.* (2019) the purpose of creating categories is to provide a means of describing the phenomenon, to increase understanding and to generate knowledge.

In summary qualitative data analysis involved reading through all the data to develop a general understanding of the database. The researcher divided the texts into small units (phrases, sentences and some were in paragraphs) and assigned a code label to each unit and then grouped the codes into themes as suggested by Guetterman *et al.* (2015). A final step in qualitative data analysis involved making an interpretation in the qualitative research of the findings or results.

5.9 OTHER ASPECTS OF RESEARCH SUPPORT

The aim of this section is to explain research support aspects which were used to enhance the core characteristics of the methodology. They include entrepreneurship training, validity and reliability, enumerator, the role of the researcher and limitations.

5.9.1 Entrepreneurship training

The principal goal of the programme was to improve business performance, but also an individual's perceived level of emancipation. The week-long training programme was carried out in February 2019. It was designed and delivered by Self-Help Africa, an international not-for-profit organisation that was funded by the World Food Programme in Uganda. The organisation invited a non-random sample of rural women from the Kiryandongo district, Mid-West region who were already in small-scale informal businesses, and who had no prior business training, to participate in the entrepreneurship training programme (refer to Table 5.4, Selection Criteria). The women who responded to the invitation form the cohort of this study. As suggested by Schneider (2017), the training programme was aimed at supporting rural women to increase their business knowledge and competence, and build motivation during the early stages of their businesses.

Participants in the training programme learned about important aspects of business, such as business plans, book-keeping, sales and profits, customer care and marketing techniques. The programme was implemented in a way which could improve awareness, perception, flexibility, emotional stability, authority, equality, knowledge, autonomy, education, independence, decision-making and freedom for these women. The content of the entrepreneurship training programme is presented in Appendix 7.

5.9.2 Validity and Reliability

One of the pertinent aspects of this study was to ensure that results were dependable and acceptable. According to Whitemore *et al.* (2001) it is the responsibility

of the researcher to determine the validity criteria for a particular study, to employ optimal methodological techniques and critically present the research process in detail. Moreover, it is advised to consider four major primary criteria such as credibility, authenticity, criticality and integrity to curtail validity threats (Whittemore *et al.*, 2001). In this study, validity and reliability were addressed. For example, the survey instruments (questionnaire and interview guide) were designed and developed with sufficient rigor to collect data in standardised manner. This ensured that the results would be representative of the wider demographic nascent rural women.

Moreover, feedback from experts (seven stakeholder interviewees) was used in the design of the instruments. Before designing the questionnaires, the researcher sought opinion to ascertain if the items on the questionnaires that measure women's perceived emancipation were valid. This was done by the researcher who designed in-depth interviews with experts in entrepreneurship training in Uganda. Their input regarding the content validity of the items on the instruments were sought. The experts (seven stakeholders) in entrepreneurship training provided information through the in-depth interviews in aligning the questionnaires with the research questions and the designing of the Likert scale items in the questionnaires. The researcher used the feedback received from the experts (seven stakeholders) to review the questions and the format of the instruments. The results and comments from these expert interviews were used to review the items on the questionnaires and were incorporated in the instrument in order to increase their validity.

Alden (2007) observed that the instruments must be tested for face validity, content validity and concurrent validity. Content validity is concerned with the extent to which instruments measure what they were designed to measure and the extent to which they cover the variables. In this study, the content validity of the instrument was addressed. The items on the entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation were

constructed in line with the research questions of the study regarding nascent rural female entrepreneurs. Some authors such as Eckles (2018) argued that every study has biases and threats to validity and all methods have limitations. In other developments, validity and reliability were ensured through careful selection of enumerators with long-time experience in conducting surveys, in particular profiling communities for strategic interventions.

Furthermore, the quality of the data was guaranteed by experienced observer by conducting comprehensive checks on the questionnaires for any deviations in the process of administering them. Any errors or deviations were detected at this stage when the filling of the first questionnaire was finished. The checks were also done to ensure if the standard guidelines set during enumerators' training secessions were followed exactly. On-spot checks helped to avoid laxity amongst enumerators and respondents. In this case, the enumerators were corrected and advised at this stage; corrections made in the questionnaires with the respondents; if errors and deviations were significant the questionnaire would be discarded, and the filling process repeated. Additionally, adequate time (20 minutes) for administering the questionnaire was allowed for respondents in order to provide enough time for correct information. Also, Self Help Africa provided experienced women respondents. These were purposively selected from communities and used in the survey. Thus, due to experiences with past surveys, the process was concluded with minimal errors. For traceability of the results, respondents were assigned random codes corresponding to respondents' identification and contact details. This ensured that the same respondents were used in the three phases of the survey.

5.9.3 Enumerators

Enumerators consisted of personnel who helped respondents in answering questions and the completion of the questionnaire. According to OECD (2006), enumerators refer to survey personnel charged with carrying out that part of enumeration

pertaining to counting and listing of people. In this study, seven (7) enumerators were recruited based on their expertise in development research, community languages, quality of work produced previously with Self Help Africa, respondent sample size, accomplishing the survey according to plan (timeframe) and their knowledge of the community to enable trust by respondents. The roles of these enumerators included: (I) Assisting the respondents to fill questionnaires in instances where respondents were illiterate, as well as translating the questionnaire into local languages; (II) Probing to extract more information as most women tend to be shy and hold useful information to themselves. Enumerators received training about the study topic before being sent to the field as this greatly influenced the quality of the data collected (Goddard *et al.*, 2006).

5.9.4 Researcher's Role

A researcher may feel that one set of data turns out to be more intrinsically interesting or striking than another. As well, this tends to result in more interesting findings regardless of whether they are quantitative or qualitative. In this study, the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative data. This was due to insufficient information and literature in the area of entrepreneurship training and the perceived emancipation for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The researcher explored and developed quantitative instruments to be used in the study (Creswell, 2017). The main goal was to explore the contribution of entrepreneurship training for the emancipation of nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Without the ambition to find something new, research would come to a standstill as suggested by Swedberg (2018).

The researcher's role not only involved understanding the women's environment and being a translator of their words and actions, as described by Corbin and Strauss (2014), but it also played a critical role in determining the value of the research. Corbin and Strauss (2014) and Creswell (2011) assert that the researcher's background, values,

biases, judgments, professional background and familiarity with the topic of the research all shape the interpretation of the study. As the researcher has full knowledge of this study, she represented the results of the research integration at the different points of this study. During this study, the researcher was responsible for representing the connections she made in the quantitative method and the two focus groups (qualitative method) as a follow-up to understanding the stories and the experiences of the narratives of those nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda.

This research comes from a personal background and experience as the researcher explains her story: Coming from a family of 11 children (eight girls and three boys), and growing up in a business environment where the researcher's father was a businessman and the mother worked as a full-time mum, the researcher grew up with the mind-set of an entrepreneur. She wondered why all her siblings and herself made it to a level of leadership across different careers. In contrast, many local families never educated their girls due to poverty and a patriarchal society, which limited the opportunities of many girls. The researcher recalls now, 80% of children in her early school years were boys, and there were very few girls in third-level education.

The region (Central Uganda) where the researcher comes from has very fertile land, and all food planted in the garden grows. This is very good for mothers and women, as many of them are involved in small businesses, selling their agricultural produce. Around the 1980s, the economy of Uganda experienced a great deal of instability and war. Gradually, the economy changed when a new government came to power. Many businesses flourished, but the region where the researcher comes from was left behind due to the 1979 war which left the whole region of Masaka and its surroundings badly damaged.

However, the researcher, from her early years (14 years old), had her own small business. She used to run a small business during holidays when she returned home from

a boarding school. The business involved home-baked cakes, and she had an older friend with whom she worked in partnership. They both shared the work, she baked at home, and the older friend would take the cakes to sell. She thanked her mother and father for being open-minded and for the education they offered to her siblings at a very early age. Education took her to great heights, as that was the reason that she came to Ireland for further studies. After the bachelor's degree in business studies, she went to complete a master's degree as a Management Consultant at Michael Smurfit Business School, University College Dublin (UCD). The master's degree thesis title was: "A study of female entrepreneurs in Ireland, "their experiences and their challenges." Since her youth, she wanted to be her own boss; in 2006, she started her recruitment consultancy. She was nominated as a Young Woman Diaspora entrepreneur to represent Ireland in Norway. Around 2011, she founded a girl's school in Uganda and an entrepreneurship centre for women in business. The girls School is expanding with over 250 students in secondary education and Vocational skills and over 1000 women are trained in starting their own business through Lwannda Community Development Initiatives (LCDI). While in Ireland, she worked with Micro-Finance Ireland and her role was to train, mentor and support women at early start-up. She then moved on to the academic route at UCD and lectured at the College of Business in Dublin. In the meantime, the Government of Uganda was seeking a representative in Ireland and the researcher was appointed as Honorary Consul of Uganda to Ireland.

The researchers search for education continued and she applied for a PhD and she was fortunate to access a full-time Fiosraigh Scholarship. As mentioned earlier, her dissertation research for her master's was on female entrepreneurs in Ireland, which increased her passion and curiosity to do further research about female entrepreneurs, especially rural female entrepreneurs in Africa. She had a great interest in women as she had first-hand experience of seeing so many rural women struggle as they start their

businesses in Uganda with no entrepreneurship knowledge or skills. Coming from Uganda with very good knowledge of the country, this was a perfect opportunity to use her personal understanding and experience to research this area. According to the International Labour Organisation (ILO), Uganda's female entrepreneurs are still disadvantaged when it comes to the necessary capacities, skills and resources, as well as legal impediments, cultural norms, restricted mobility and domestic responsibilities suggested by Mugabi (2014). The researcher's rich personal and academic experiences motivated and encouraged her to go on this long journey to search for further knowledge around her research question which is 'how does entrepreneurship training contribute to the perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

5.9.6 Limitations

Limitations and challenges are part of every research methodology. According to Greener (2018), limitations affect internal and external validity of the research. Importantly, limitations help the researcher to communicate the rigor of research to readers as well identifying clear directions along the research process. Thus, in this research methodology, several limitations were encountered:

- i) Rural women from remote villages came with their own cultural challenges, which were sometimes difficult for the researcher to address. For example, keeping time was one of the challenges that the researcher faced while collecting data. Some women turned up very late, and some did not turn up at all. In some cases, a lack of communication compounded the difficulties the researcher faced at the time. There was some miscommunication with their community leaders, and they came on days when the researcher and enumerators were not present, that needed another day's work to return to the village for data collection. However, more than 70% came on time throughout.

This was time consuming and caused delays or long hours spent at the venue – in some cases, surveys were done under trees. Consequently, there were adjustments into the survey timetable to cater for the anomalies.

- ii) Another challenge that came from not keeping time was working long hours without food for the researcher and the respondents. In the culture where this data was collected, the researcher or enumerators could not have eaten a sandwich without the whole group eating. The NGO coordinator had warned the researcher that if there were no funds to buy a snack for the women, you all have to work without eating. Hence, due to respondents arriving late, the surveys took many hours (even up to 10-12 hours).
- iii) Lack of transport available for participants was another challenge, so women were walking long journeys to come to the survey meeting location and there was no proper infrastructure such as roads. Women were living in very remote areas, so it was very hard for the researcher to reach all villages and therefore it was better for the women to walk and meet at a designated location. The researcher had to walk long journeys to different villages or otherwise hire a 4x4 vehicle to reach the remotest areas, this was another expenditure to the researcher as she had very limited financial support.
- iv) At the start of the surveys, there was silence experienced by the researcher. Women were afraid to answer personal questions about themselves or their families. However, with positive remarks and talking to the women in their languages by the NGO coordinator and support of enumerators, there was no objectivity through all surveys and focus group interviews. This meant that the NGO coordinator of programmes had to travel with the researcher to every village in which the surveys took place to talk and explain to the respondents in their local language why the researcher was collecting data. This made the

work easier and quicker. The NGO coordinator welcomed the researcher at the beginning and some challenges were avoided even though there was a high rate of illiteracy among the women in these remote communities.

Within the limitations and scope of this study, the researcher felt confident that the entrepreneurship training programme efficiently and effectively enhanced the emancipation, knowledge and competence of rural nascent female entrepreneurs, in order for them to potentially start new and/or improve existing businesses. The researcher also recognised and learned some valuable potential opportunities that were available for rural female entrepreneurs in the Kiryandongo region if the entrepreneurship ecosystem is supported by the government.

5.10. CONCLUSION

Incorporation of theory and practice provided synergy to the methodological process of data collection. The best way to get comprehensive results for this study was to use a pragmatism research philosophy. Employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches provided a better understanding of research problems and the complex phenomena that either approach alone couldn't have provided. Triangulating one set of results with another offers a better understanding and provides the necessary rigour for the development of research findings thereby enhancing the validity of inferences. The richness and rigour of quantitative and qualitative approaches was a lesson learned regarding the methods for this study. The rich in-depth interview information from pre-questionnaire design and development was vital for making data collection instruments very effective in rural surveys. The face-to-face questionnaires were beneficial, and the use of enumerators allowed the respondents to express themselves better and give them the flexibility to probe into circumstances in which clarity of the question or further information was needed. Focus group discussion encouraged women to share their lived experiences, in a genuine and interactive manner and there was a dynamic participation

and a flow of discussion between the women and support of each other. In conclusion this chapter discussed broadly the research issues, all the methodological aspects and the theoretical considerations related to the research design and the rationale why used a mixed method research in this study. The following chapters (6 and 7) present the findings, results, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

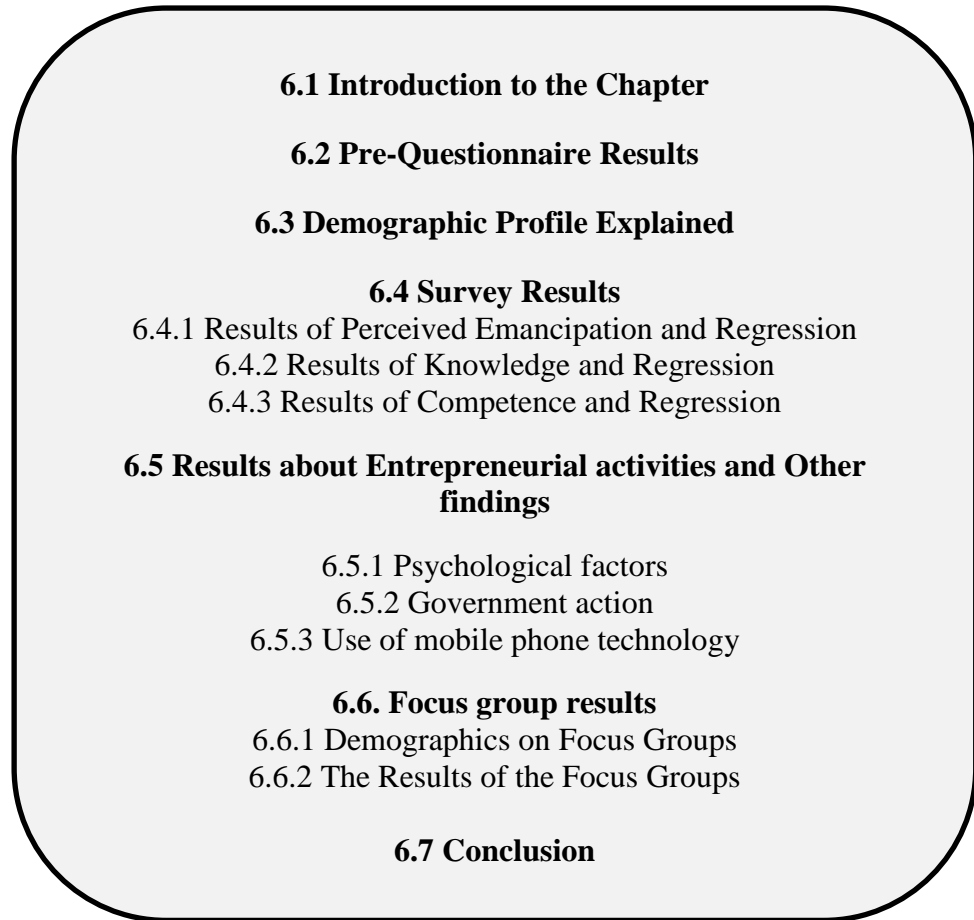
6.1. INTRODUCTION

This study explores the contribution of entrepreneurship training to the emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The overall research question of the study is, “*how does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?*” In addition, the study is guided by three Sub-Questions:

- (SQ-1) How does entrepreneurship training affect knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
- (SQ-2) How is perceived emancipation influenced by knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
- (SQ-3) How does perceived emancipation impacts on entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

The overall question and the three sub-questions will be discussed at the conclusion of this chapter. The study presents three major themes related to this research topic including the following: (I) perceived emancipation; (II) knowledge and competence; and (III) entrepreneurial activities. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in this study (Creswell, 2003), which consisted of two phases. These were combined for the purpose of triangulating and validating the results. The quantitative approach consisted of three phases of surveys: (I) Before entrepreneurship training was delivered; (II) Immediately after entrepreneurship training was delivered; and (III) Four months after entrepreneurship training had finished. The qualitative approach consisted of two focus groups with 14 rural female entrepreneurs, and this will be discussed later in the chapter. Therefore, Figure 6.1 shows the main areas of the chapter outline and how they are interrelated.

Figure 6.1: Chapter 6 Outline



Source: Author.

Figure 6.1 explains clearly the structure of Chapter Six and the interrelated areas. The research began with a short pre-questionnaire, the results of which will be presented here. This pre-questionnaire involved seven in-depth interviews that were used to inform the researcher with the design of the three phases of survey questionnaires. The main results of the study, however, came from the surveys and the focus groups. The results are expected to indicate which factors are most important in the development of the framework in Chapter 7. This suggests the outcomes which are required to improve entrepreneurship training and the activity of female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The results of both phases (quantitative and qualitative) are compared, integrated and interpreted. This provided the means to overcome any weaknesses of either method or fully utilise the strengths of each approach. This provided the rigour and validity necessary for quality results. For clarity purposes, the following terms are used throughout the chapter:

- The 6 women and 1 man who were consulted for the pre-questionnaires (in-depth interviews) are referred as *Interviewees*.
- The women who answered the surveys are referred to as *Respondents*.
- The Women who took the entrepreneurship training programme are referred to as *Participants*.
- Women in focus groups are referred to as *Contributors*.

The conclusion of this chapter discusses the overall question and the three sub-questions mentioned at the beginning of chapter. The next section explains briefly the results of the pre-questionnaires (in-depth interviews) of the 7 stakeholders which informed and guided the survey design. This was the sole purpose of these in-depth interviews.

6.2. PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE (IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS) RESULTS

In-depth interviews were chosen to inform and guide the design of the survey questionnaires which were to be administered before, immediately after and four months following the training. The benefit of the seven interviews assisted the researcher with the following: (I) Addressing the knowledge gap between the proposed entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation for the nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda; (II) The interviewees are qualified entrepreneurship trainers. Their input allowed the researcher to uncover potential challenges in the area of entrepreneurship training and the emancipation of rural women in Uganda that were needed for the design of the questionnaire; (III) It became apparent that there was a missing gap between trainers, trainees and the management of the entrepreneurship training programme and this gap needed to be linked in the study; (IV) The results and comments from these experts (interviewees) were used to review items on the questionnaires. These comments were subsequently incorporated into the instrument in order to increase their validity of the

study; and (V) The overall aim was to inform and guide the researcher in the design and development of the survey instrument in order to draw upon a larger, generalisable sample of the quantitative phase.

Arguably, the ability to launch and grow a sustainable enterprise demands that an entrepreneur develop certain skills or capabilities. Martin *et al.* (2013) suggested that entrepreneurship training is effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes which result in increased entrepreneurial activity. However, the theoretical understanding of how and why entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies is still limited (Gielnik *et al.*, 2015). The themes summarised in this section are the results of the transcribed interviews: (I) Psychological factors (confidence, self-esteem and risk taking); (II) Demographic factors (age, number of children, education, occupation and marital status); (III) Entrepreneurship training (training needs, models, resources, location, and networking); (IV) Emancipation (13 key criteria); and (V) Opportunity (new ventures).

Interviewees described the programme they deliver to rural Ugandan women. They referred to entrepreneurship training as the process of giving skills to these women, in order for them to be successful in their entrepreneurial activities and to improve their ability to take risks. One of the interviewees found that when women are trained and have the resources available to them, they are creative and productive in their businesses. This supports the women in adopting entrepreneurship activity, as the resulting knowledge and training gives them confidence. While training, the interviewees observed the women's existing attitude towards entrepreneurship and confirmed that women need several continuous training sessions to familiarise themselves with entrepreneurship skills. This confirms what was discussed in Chapter One, which found that education is vital in creating an understanding of entrepreneurship, developing entrepreneurial capabilities

and contributing to entrepreneurial identities and cultures at individual, collective and social levels.

6.2.1. Entrepreneurship Training

Interviewees referred to entrepreneurship training as the process of giving women the skills necessary to be successful in their enterprises, to improve their abilities and to give them the confidence to take risks. Participants reported that, following training, some women do start their own businesses, while others do not. It is understood that entrepreneurship training is not a single event, but rather a continuous process of training. Therefore, before women being trained, the following happens, according to Joan:

“Initially, when we go to communities, we start with an assessment to know more about the individual women, their capabilities and abilities of starting a business. After the assessment, we mobilise them into groups; we train them in leadership and governance; then, they elect their leaders. We then train the trainers among themselves and group enterprise training starts.”

There is a significant gap of knowledge between entrepreneurship training providers and the learners regarding entrepreneurship training. Therefore, the trainers have an assessment procedure to understand the needs of the women before they start any training programme.

However, many trainers lack the practical managerial experience necessary, as suggested by Henry *et al.* (2005). Doreen stated the following:

“Entrepreneurship training programmes are designed and tailored to the needs of the women so that the training makes an impact, but if a programme is just designed without involving the participants, in the end we do not expect any impact.”

In addition to the skills learned by women via training, there are other supports given following training such as development of a business idea, an improved business environment, financial literacy, mentoring and business start-ups. Trainers are perceived

to change the attitudes and mindsets of these women towards entrepreneurship. Rae *et al.* (2010) confirmed that education is vital for creating an understanding of entrepreneurship, developing entrepreneurial capabilities and contributing to entrepreneurial identities and cultures at individual, collective and social levels. Jennifer stated that:

“Also, the importance of working and training in groups and how it is going to help them, so the trainer first needs to understand these women, the level at which they are at because they are always at different levels in training. After understanding the women’s need, it is easier for them to be trained in entrepreneurship, as they see the need they have as individuals or groups.”

So far, there are some tailor-made modules run locally, as the training must be relevant to the targeted groups of women. These training programmes are usually delivered by professional female trainers. Some of these trainers of trainers (TOTs) are members of the Uganda Women Entrepreneur Association Limited (UWEAL). The UWEAL has chapters in every region of the country and women are trained by the TOT members in all regions. A lack of entrepreneurship training was reported by all respondents interviewed.

Furthermore, women are much more likely than men to lack the skills for business and women tend to opt for necessity-driven enterprises rather than exploiting market opportunities (GEM, 2012). Aidah explained the following:

“We train women in various skills, such as business idea[s], business plan writing, business start-up[s]. We train them, too, on the psychological factors, such as motivation, self-esteem, achievement, confidence, risk-taking and locus of control. We do support them when they are starting their businesses. We keep mentoring them. We focus our energy on the skills that would support women to be competitive in their businesses. One of the key factors they must have is the right skills to run their businesses. Bookkeeping is another area that we train them in, and other simple skills that women always ask to know, writing and reading.”

Interviewees discussed the need to train rural women in different skills so that they are capable of running their businesses confidently. Many rural women expressed their needs to the trainers. They admitted they would like to receive some form of entrepreneurship training in areas of bookkeeping, business planning and mentoring as they do not have existing support in those areas.

The lack of policies regarding entrepreneurship training for women is a huge challenge in Uganda. In the context of this study, government policies can include any course of action which is aimed at regulating and improving the conditions of rural women's businesses in terms of supporting them through policies, funding or long-term entrepreneurship programmes provided by the government. Doreen said that:

“I am not quite aware of any policy for female entrepreneurs. What I know [is that] there is some assistance that is given from the government through the Ministry of Gender, where some of our women groups benefit from the government programmes, which is called UWEP, Uganda Women Enterprises Programmes.”

Government policies need to stimulate their economies to reduce constraints on rural women entrepreneurs. It is not only Uganda that has challenges in this area, but also many other African nations, where their entrepreneurship policies present significant constraints. The effectiveness of entrepreneurship policy in practice may depend on the establishment of an appropriate trade-off, and low degrees of market power which is characteristic of highly fragmented industries, although they yield higher industry performance and higher degrees of market power (Audretsch, 2020). Government policies in this context include any course of action which is aimed at the regulation and improvement for the conditions of SMEs in terms of support, implementation and funding policies by the national government. Research has suggested that many rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda have become entrepreneurs due to their need to survive or to

enhance their livelihood. They tend to be dependent on the opportunity structures which are available in their local areas (Guloba *et al.*, 2017).

To conclude, the findings in this section enable the researcher as follows: (I) To gain information, knowledge and identify the main areas where gaps existed in this study. In particular the two main areas of entrepreneurship training which have been addressed in this chapter (i.e. knowledge and competence); (II) Results from these interviews enable the researcher to identify the types of questions asked in the questionnaire, in particular section A and B had a mixture of questions (for example, there was a dichotomous question and a ranking-order questions as per Appendix 2). Overall, the interviewees revealed through their discussions where the gaps were in order to identify the main goal of the survey questionnaires.

6.2.2. Emancipation

The majority of rural women in Uganda are small-scale and informal entrepreneurs. They are viewed as agents of change and value creators for themselves, their families and their communities. They have a significant impact on themselves and their families, as suggested by Singh and Belwal (2008). Uganda's female entrepreneurs are frequently motivated to start their own businesses in order to become independent, achieve job satisfaction and gain economic independence. They also to have the opportunity to become creative. This was confirmed by Lilian who shared her experience as follows:

“I would say entrepreneurship training would actually help to emancipate women because when these women go through different stages of training, by the time they have completed a few stages, they have changed attitude; the woman is aware what is around her, and this change might be the start of emancipation. One woman at training says, “You come to be aware of yourself. You interact with other women in your group. You are not alone, and the training in itself is a learning process, as you become independent and able to make your own decisions”. You are able to communicate and discuss with your husband as equal partners about the business. As men have their networks, he shares those networks with you, and that increases customers and income. The emancipated woman would be proactive and more connected, she says.”

This confirms that entrepreneurship gives a woman control over her life. Women are enabled to communicate with their husbands, if they are married, when they both work together to increase their customer networks. The mixture of communication and making her own decisions increases a woman's independence from her family and her husband. The woman is enabled to make her own decisions for herself, her family and her business. Working together (with her husband) increases freedom, independence and family income.

Women are often marginalised in rural communities, yet the improvement of their lives involves a significant impact on their families (Singh and Belwal, 2008). As many rural female entrepreneurs are SMEs, there are emancipatory factors that play an important role in influencing entrepreneurial behaviour and decision-making/ These include but are not limited to factors such as age, gender, education, training and family background. Jennifer shared her experience of working with rural women:

“Women have many opportunities when they are trained with skills. They are able to earn money. They educate their children, and it is like [a] dream come true. Very many women go through a lot of domestic violence because they have to depend on their husband and since they are now earning their own money through their businesses, their husband's perception changes; they are respected, and they are independent. What we do towards emancipation is by training women to be economically independent.”

However, the low levels of education and lack of training opportunities for females in rural areas (the illiteracy rate of females is still higher than that of males), have also acted as barriers to many female entrepreneurs. This prevents them from contributing to the economic growth in Uganda. Many educators view their task as more than modifying or conditioning the behaviour of the women trained. The trainer wants rural women to become independent and autonomous, in order for them to be able to think for themselves, to make their own judgements and to draw their own conclusions for their businesses.

The findings in relation to women who have received entrepreneurship training show that women who are aware of themselves and see themselves in a positive light, may be willing create new ventures in their communities.

Independence entails giving rural women permission to use their own judgement, as opposed to blindly following the assertions of others (for example, their husbands or partners), who may not allow them to start their own enterprises. In order for emancipation to be realised when making entrepreneurial decisions, women (whether individuals or groups) need to recognise that oppression exists and that it is negative (Freire, 1996). Female entrepreneurs are motivated to start their own businesses in order to be independent. This is a vital factor of emancipation (being their own bosses) economic independence, in giving themselves an opportunity to be more creative and in gaining the freedom to start their own enterprises (Tibbits, 1995). Another problem area is the perception that women have about themselves and their human capital. For example, many rural women may have negative perceptions about themselves before they participate in entrepreneurship training.

The main findings highlight that entrepreneurship training is a significant contributor to perceived emancipation amongst women who participated in the study. However, Margaret explained a contrary opinion:

“Men are dictating what [their wives are] supposed to do, and this mostly comes in when a man realises that a woman has started earning some income. Men tend to be jealous about what the women are earning, and they tend to subject them to all sorts of rules.”

Trainers explained that they need to involve some men in the training programme so that men can be part of the training to have the same level of communication and support each other. Singh (2017) suggested that education and training play a vital role in raising the living standards and improving the quality of life for these women. Therefore, training is an emancipation tool through which an individual may improve his/her social standards,

perception and wellbeing. Furthermore, the role of education and training means that they are inherent to seeking autonomy, decision-making and individual freedom. This is an assertion which is also supported by the literature consulted in this study.

However, the vulnerability of rural women, due to these socio-cultural dimensions, is still widespread in Uganda. The study found that some parts of the culture are good, but that others act as a barrier to female entrepreneurship in rural communities. This was expressed by one of the interviewees, Doreen:

“The social-cultural perception of people in communities negatively affects women entrepreneurs. For instance, in Uganda, it is the women who take care of the children full-time and do all the chores at home and housework. The housework we are talking about involves collecting firewood from the forest, prepar[ing] food, cleaning the house, cleaning utensils, looking after the animals, digging in the garden and feed[ing] the children. By the end of the day, the woman is exhausted. I would encourage women to start their own businesses as long as they can effectively manage them.”

The socio-cultural barriers often hinder a women’s ability to access business capital, such as the kind available from commercial banks, where women are asked for collateral such as land titles. In many cases, due to cultural reasons, women do not own land. In addition, as discussed earlier, difficulties in accessing entrepreneurship training and start-up loans reflect cultural barriers and discrimination in the treatment experienced by rural female entrepreneurs. An important implication of this study is the lack of family support received, as in many rural communities, entrepreneurship is viewed as a man’s job, and as a kind of activity that can distract females from their family and domestic responsibilities if they engage in it themselves.

Future government programmes should emphasise the status of female entrepreneurs as equal partners in society. Many laws are discriminatory to females and the interpretation of the law often discriminates based on gender (Htun *et al.*, 2019).

Moreover, females, particularly those with lower literacy levels who live in rural areas, tend to lack awareness of their rights. They also lack the freedom to make decisions and seek economic alternatives. Interviewees added that when women are emancipated, they are perceived as being proactive and independent in what they do.

In conclusion, emancipation is a key section of the study and the interviewees provided critical information to guide how the questions regarding perceived emancipation should be designed. For example, many rural women had never been to school and therefore have had no education. The interviewees suggested that the questionnaire should be specific for that group and enumerators should be involved to support them in case of writing or reading if there is a difficulty. Questions based on a rating system were the best option for the women. This allowed them to rate themselves on the key criteria of emancipation from strongly agree to strongly disagree. This worked well for this group. Emancipation is a difficult area to explain, so in order for the women to be comfortable sharing sensitive information women, it was necessary that questions were clear so that there are no complex statements which might throw off the women. There was a need for clarity so the right questions for the respondents would be included. And finally, the interviewees helped in gathering important and sensitive answers regarding the emancipation section.

6.2.3. Entrepreneurial Activities

As discussed in the section regarding entrepreneurship training, the lack of skills, knowledge and employment opportunities for women, along with lack of access to productive resources are critical factors (Kyrgidou and Petridou, 2013). Furthermore, women are much more likely than men to lack the necessary skills required for business ventures. Women also tend towards necessity-driven enterprises rather than exploiting market opportunities (GEM, 2012). Therefore, training women in entrepreneurship is

vital as it gives them opportunities to learn about business plans when they decide to start a business. According to Joan:

“Women start businesses when they have not fully carried out any business plan; they start businesses because they have a need; they have no money, or others have been successful in that business. These women are not starting businesses out of their passion or opportunity driven, but because of a need. So, we do our best to encourage women to start businesses that they are passionately interested in and capable of running those business. Women are trained to look for business opportunities rather than [being] necessity-driven if they are to stay in the competitive market.”

As Joan explained, they train women to search for opportunities in the area of their interest rather than necessity. Lassalle and McElwee (2016) suggested that many rural female entrepreneurs in emerging economies (such as Uganda) have become entrepreneurs due to their need to survive or to enhance their livelihood, rather than through opportunity recognition. Lilian explained further that:

“Crop growing, such as beans, maize, cassava and other cash crops, these are generally the traditional crops rural women grow as their businesses. However, if women can change to other marketable crops, such as nursery bed growing, pumpkins processing, mushroom growing, chia seed growing, cocoa growing and avocado growing, all those crops are becoming more marketable and easier to engage in by women.”

Despite its current significance as Lilian explained above, this traditional sector of crop production is projected to decline as female entrepreneurs are moving to urban areas where agricultural business is not available. This was confirmed by Joan who stated the following:

“Some women have started a business; some have no idea on how to start a business, and we walk the journey together and hold their hands so that they are able to start their businesses. For example, we train women [on] how to identify an idea; we teach them through our entrepreneurship training to enable them [to] identify a good business idea. We train women to have self-awareness; this is what I call personal attributes.”

Trainers encourage the women to be confident in starting their own businesses and to make their own decisions when starting their entrepreneurial activities. An important factor in entrepreneurial activity is to target individuals who are willing to start a business with the appropriate business training (Raposo and Paço, 2011). For instance, when entrepreneurship training and a positive image of venture creation is presented to these types of learners, they may be more likely to start a venture. They generate ideas in which they are interested, and in which they have the passion and ability to start a business.

6.2.4 Conclusion

The findings of the pre-questionnaire in-depth interviews revealed a lack of entrepreneurship training. This was a factor that was mentioned by nearly all interviewees and that there is an extensive lack of training in business skills for many parts of the country, in particular for rural female entrepreneurs. Therefore, this portion of the data collection identified the location where interviews should be collected and the targeted group for the questionnaires (Yaddanapudi and Yaddanapudi, 2019). In conducting these in-depth interviews, the researcher learnt the following:

- I) The pre-questionnaire in-depth interviews were an important step forward. They addressed the knowledge gap regarding entrepreneurship training in Uganda and the perceived emancipation for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. It was vital to find out what information was available already regarding entrepreneurship training for rural women (particularly from the trainer's point of view). Many rural women in the Kiryandongo district had no formal education, no entrepreneurship programmes were available in the region and there was a lack of training centres in general.
- II) The interviewees were purposely chosen to inform all three phases of survey questionnaires which took place before training, immediately after training and

four months after training, followed by two focus groups (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

III) When in-depth interviews were analysed, the researcher uncovered the potential relationship of entrepreneurship training and the emancipation of rural women in Uganda. This was a great advantage in formulating the surveys.

IV) Furthermore, interviews prepared the researcher for the large scale of the research undertaking. This allowed her to understand the location, languages used and the need for research enumerators from the local area who understood the language to support women in filling the survey questionnaires. The in-depth interviews enabled the researcher to determine sample size, learn about the high levels of illiteracy and to plan for follow-up focus groups to identify further gaps. This was all planned due to the distance to and costs involved in travelling to Uganda.

Results confirmed that there is an increasing number of women who are starting entrepreneurial activities in rural communities due to a high rate of unemployment, poverty and family commitments. The interviewees highlighted some factors that contribute to entrepreneurial activities which are carried out by women. This corresponds to the assertions made in Chapter 2 that individuals discover a variety of opportunities, depending on their ability, personal attributes and environmental factors. Results from interviewees were vital in the questionnaire design. Especially in regard to the training needs for the women, to get the questionnaires correct, and provide a better overall outcome of the study.

6.3. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS OF THE 3 SURVEYS

The data for this phase came from a survey of 298 rural women in the Kiryandongo District of Uganda, who participated in a specific entrepreneurship training programme as discussed in Chapter 5. This section represents a description of the demographic characteristics of the nascent rural female entrepreneurs. These included the

following: The age of the respondents, the number of children they have, their highest level of education, their marital status and their occupation. The results of descriptive statistics, when utilising cross tabulations in evaluating the demographic characteristics of the respondents, are shown in Table 6.1. The demographic characteristics of the entrepreneurs have an impact on the entrepreneurial intention and motivation of the nascent rural female entrepreneurs as to why they started a business as shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Respondent’s Demographics

Variable	Category	Frequency (n = 301)	Percent
Age category	Under 18	1	.3
	From 18 to 24	37	12.3
	From 25 to 34	92	30.3
	From 35 to 44	76	25.3
	From 45 to 54	63	21.0
	From 55 to 64	27	9.0
	Above 64	5	1.7
Number of children	None	7	2.3
	From 1 to 2	39	13.0
	From 3 to 5	129	43.0
	From 6 to 10	118	39.3
	more than 10	8	2.3
Highest level of education attained	primary	163	54.3
	Secondary	22	7.3
	Vocational	5	1.7
	University	1	.3
	None	109	35.7
	Other	1	.3
Marital status	Single	17	5.7
	Married	209	69.7
	Separated	16	5.3
	Divorced	12	4.0
	Widow	47	15.3
Occupation	Salary employee	9	3.1
	Agriculture	167	57.6
	Shop owner	63	21.9
	Road vendor	34	11.8
	Other	16	5.6

Source: Author.

- **Age of participants**

The study found that the age of the respondents ranged from 18 to 65 as it is represented in Table 6.1 above. The data show that all the 298 respondents were women from the same region of the Kiryandongo District. 30.3% of the women were between 24 to 34 years of age, while another 25.3% of women were between 35 to 44 years of age and finally 21.0% were between 45 to 54 years of age. Just 9% were between the ages of 55 to 64 and only 1.7% were above 64. The study results show that respondents between the age of 25 to 54 have more successful entrepreneurial endeavours and hence more efficacious than younger counterparts.

This may be due to a number of reasons: (I) Women in this age group may have developed enough independence and competence to manage their new businesses through their work experience; (II) Due to their experience, they may have recognised business opportunities related to their experiences. They also may have gained independence, freedom and some knowledge to be confidently self-employed; and (III) They may have some existing resources such as capital, network and access to financial resources to start their own business. Together these two age categories made up close to 50% percent of all rural women who were surveyed in the study.

- **Number of children**

The data revealed that 43.0% of women had between 3 to 5 children, while 39.3% had between 6 to 10 children. Around 2.3% had more than 10 children and the number of women with no children was 2.3%.

- **Level of education**

The study sought to find out the educational and professional qualifications of the rural women who participated in the research. It was vital to ascertain if they had the

capacity to start and run their own businesses. The study found that 54.3% of respondents have primary education, 7.3% had secondary education, 1.7% had vocational education and only 0.3% had a University level qualification. A large proportion of women, around 35.7% had never been to school at all. The majority of women had only primary education. While a large number had never gone to school. Yet it is interesting to note that although many women had no education, they had a high rate of start-up business, which is due to the necessity driven entrepreneurship that many rural women engage in. Research shows that more than one-third of girls still marry as children and around 3 in every 10 have their first child before turning 18 (Global Gender Gap, 2017). Brock and Cammish (1997) and UNESCO (2015) found that due to cultural factors, women are often discouraged or not incentivised to go to school. This also translates to obtaining higher levels of education.

All of these factors push rural women into necessity entrepreneurship. Early quality education is an essential part of one's childhood and this is particularly true for girls as it decreases the chance that they will find themselves in poverty when they are older. However, poverty is one of the main barriers to education for women (MoES, 2012). While pregnancy and early marriage are strongly linked to the poverty that contributes to a higher dropout rate for girls from school. These findings do not differ from the findings of other researchers such as Namatovu (2012) who confirmed that many female entrepreneurs in Africa nations have a low level of education.

- **Marital status**

Over 298 women participated in the study as per Table 6.2. The findings show that 69.7% of women were married (All forms of marriage are which included from living with a partner, to an official state or religious ceremony). 15.3% were widowed, 5.7% of women were single, 5.3% were separated, 4.0% of women were divorced while 0.3% of

candidates put other. Results showed that the highest number of women in the survey were married. This may be part of the cultural barriers as women tend to be more respected by their community when they are married. In Uganda, marriage remains an important institution in which the entrepreneurial activities of African women are still embedded. As suggested by some studies a woman's worth in Uganda is measured in terms of what she can offer to her family's survival which is in terms of procuring and processing food (Kikoma, 2012). While childbearing is considered an added advantage in marriage. Furthermore, marriage is another reason for the resource constraint of unemployment to some of the rural female entrepreneurs. While some girls or women are forced to get married by their own families, especially when they become pregnant and move in with the father of the child.

- **Occupation**

The results show that the highest number of women were working in the agribusiness sector at 57.6%, while 21.9% were shop owners selling many kinds of merchandise. The reason for the high numbers in agriculture is due to the fact that it is the main activity for nearly two thirds of the population in Uganda. Other respondents were road vendors with 11.8%, salaried employees at 3.1% and women that are only working in the home was at 5.6%. However, when respondents were surveyed after the four months, the responses were more varied. Catering had 24%, followed by agribusiness at 19% percent, while selling clothes and crafts at markets were both at 18%. The reason for this change may be that the third survey happened when it was dry season and rural women change their jobs depending on the season of the year. During the rainy season, many rural women will be engaged in agri-business. Then when they cannot grow in the dry season, they change to selling other products, such as crafts, clothes or catering, as the results of the study confirm.

In the Ugandan context, the rural female entrepreneur is a relatively new phenomenon arising from the war crisis during the 1970s and 80s (Camfield and Monteith, 2019). Presently, rural female entrepreneurs contribute significantly to the economy, especially through the agricultural, textiles and handcrafts sectors. For example, tourists are becoming increasingly interested in buying Ugandan traditional homemade products or souvenirs. Therefore, the production of handcrafts has increased significantly. The results of the study also revealed that the businesses are generally small, with around one or two employees. They tend to have lower gross annual sales, and they tend not to have access to credit except their own Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLAs). This study found that there are some common barriers facing rural women who want to start or run their businesses, which will be discussed later in the next section.

- **Conclusion**

In terms of the overall demographic characteristics of the study, the age category that had the largest proportion of women were between from 25 to 34 years of age at around with 30%. For example, women between the ages of 25 and 34 were 2.5% times more emancipated than adult women under 25. Lack of education for many rural women in Uganda is a huge challenge in starting a business as the results revealed. Power (2014) found that due to cultural factors, women are often discouraged or not incentivised to obtain higher levels of education. Quality early education is an essential part of one's childhood and this is particularly true for girls as it prevents poverty in their later years. Delayed marriages and greater opportunities for entrance into the labour market are also factors. Isaga (2019) highlighted that literate women are better able to care for themselves, their families and participate in economic and social change in society.

6.4. INTRODUCTION OF THE THREE SURVEYS

In continuation of the survey discussions, this section of further deliberates the three main areas of the study (i.e. emancipation, entrepreneurship training, knowledge and competence and the entrepreneurial activity). This section presents data regarding emancipation from three phases which are as follows: (I) Before training; (II) Immediately after training; and (III) four months following training. Descriptive statistics was used in the analysis, especially the arithmetic mean, percentage and standard deviation. The analysis was performed in establishing both the differences and relationships, in the mean figures and percentages, within the main areas of the regression results. And included the individual emancipation factors with respect to the different demographic characteristics such as age, education, number of children, occupation and marital status.

6.4.1. Findings and Results Regarding Perceived Emancipation

The research sought to explore the views of respondents on the 13 key criteria of perceived emancipation, on a Likert ranking scale where 0 = strongly disagree, 1 = disagree, 2 = undecided, 3 = agree and 4 = strongly agree. The 13 key criteria were discussed in Chapter Three of the literature review as critical to measure perceived emancipation for female entrepreneurs in Uganda. These criteria were elaborated from the typology generated from the literature of the emancipatory process as follows: (I) I am capable of making personal decisions without the approval of others, (II) I believe I have the ability to start my own business, (III) I am independent and choose my own life, (IV) I can run my own business without other people telling me what to do, (V) I can use my personal knowledge of business to grow the enterprise, (VI) A flexible environment is key to start my own business, (VII) I have the freedom to start my own business to support my family, (VIII) I am capable of declaring changes for my business, (IX) I have complete autonomy in everything I do, (X) I am very good at controlling my emotions,

(XI) I am capable of taking ownership of my business, (XII) I am confident that starting my own business will help me to achieve equality; and (XIII) Continuing to educate myself is a very important goal for me. For robustness, the approach of Belitski *et al.* (2019) was followed and a random effects regression model was applied to estimate the statistical impact of perceived emancipation.

Table 6.2 shows the distribution of the views from the rural women respondents regarding the 13 key criteria, under various aspects of emancipation variables. This information was attained, before entrepreneurship training was delivered, immediately after entrepreneurship training was delivered and four months after entrepreneurship training had finished. In the discussion, women and respondents are interchanged but means the same. Due to the importance of the key criteria of emancipation to the study, the overall results show that there was an increase of 14% of perceived emancipation among rural nascent female entrepreneurs.

Table 6.2 Key Criteria of Emancipation

Emancipation criteria	Before training	After training	4 months after	Change after training (%)	Change 4 months after (%)	Overall change (%)
1. Capable of making decision without approval of others	2.06	2.04	2.75	1.0	34.8	33.8
2. Have the ability to start own business	2.60	2.75	3.06	5.8	11.3	17.1
3. Independent and choose my own life	1.89	1.87	2.11	1.0	12.8	11.8
4. Can run own business without other people tell me what to do	2.32	1.87	2.41	24.1	28.9	4.8
5. Can use personal knowledge to grow business	2.46	2.75	2.68	11.9	2.6	9.3
6. Flexible environment is key to start own business	2.30	3.04	3.08	32.2	1.3	33.5
7. Have freedom to start own business to support family	2.64	2.51	2.89	5.2	15.1	9.9
8. Capable of declaring changes for my business	2.65	2.97	2.76	12.1	7.6	4.5
9. Have complete autonomy in everything I do	1.86	2.90	2.79	55.9	3.9	52.0
10. Very good at controlling my emotions	3.03	2.91	2.87	4.1	1.4	2.7
11. Capable of taking ownership of my business	2.65	2.69	2.74	1.5	1.9	3.4
12. Confident that starting own business will help to achieve equality	2.79	3.18	3.13	14.0	1.6	12.4
13. Important to continue educating self	2.92	3.51	3.53	20.2	0.6	20.8
Average	2.47	2.69	2.83	8.8	5.2	14

Note: Mean emancipation scores for the whole sample for each element are calculated from a 5-point Likert scale (0-1-2-3-4). Higher scores are indicative of better emancipation level.

The results show that there was an increase in perceived emancipation immediately following training (an increase by 9%) compared to four months later (5%). Regression results revealed that the training had a positive and statistically significant effect on emancipation. This means that participating in the entrepreneurship training programme

improves the emancipation level by approximately 14 points. This is confirmed by Rae *et al.* (2010), who stated that entrepreneurship training is vital for creating an understanding of entrepreneurship, developing entrepreneurial capabilities and contributing to entrepreneurial identities and cultures, at an individual level. Furthermore, general results from the study of the literature that education is often perceived as a significant contributor to emancipation and empowerment.

Studies detailed in the literature review argued that education makes people aware of alternative career choices, such as starting up a business (Reynolds *et al.*, 1999). However, results show that education (primary, secondary and university), is not statistically related to emancipation. This is confirmed in the literature by Kuratko and Morris (2018) who suggested that, apart from vocational training, education has no statistical effect on emancipation. A possible reason is that vocational training is mainly concerned with practical skills; if women have access to vocational training, this will equip them with the necessary skills in becoming successful entrepreneur (Madu *et al.*, 2019). A further explanation may be that fewer women report education levels greater than primary education.

The study can therefore conclude that higher levels of education do not have an impact on emancipation. In terms of marital status, marriage has a statistically significant negative effect on emancipation of women. When women are married, their level of emancipation decreases by -0.364 when compared to single women as shown in Table 6.3. In terms of job type, working in agriculture, as a road vendor and other jobs, have a positive and statistically significant effect on emancipation, when compared to women who do not work or are housewives. The results indicate that working in agriculture yields 0.119 more emancipation than having no work; working as a road vendor improves emancipation by 0.149 when compared to no work or being a housewife; working in other

jobs improves emancipation by 0.191 when compared to having no job. The results are significant, at a level of 5% for agriculture and road vendors, and at a level of 10% of significance for other jobs.

Irrespective of the overall influence of entrepreneurship training, the variations in individual indicators (such as decision-making), the contributions to overall emancipation was evident. The capacity of respondents to make decisions slightly decreased immediately following entrepreneurship training. However, it increased by 35% four months following training, as shown in Table 6.2. Perhaps what the women learnt during training revealed to them the need for decision-making. For example, the results show that a high number of women were married, and many married women found it difficult to have their voice heard by their husbands/partners, or in the overall community. For instance, rural women entrepreneurs often feel frustrated as they have to share their time and energy between the business and their household duties. For some rural women, their business often takes second place to the household duties (Choudhary *et al.*, 2020). However, respondents gained confidence four months following training, as the results confirmed by an increase in decision-making.

The insignificant ($p>0.05$) contribution of age categories, lower education levels, single families, children and jobs, to the capability of making decisions might be associated with the highly significant ($p<0.05$) influence of perceived barriers. Although perceived barriers had a negative impact on most demographic characteristics, they did not hinder the contribution of entrepreneurship training to the overall emancipation of women. This might explain the rapid increase in decision-making observed after training until four months after. Further results showed that, among the demographic characteristics, only entrepreneurship training significantly improved a woman's ability to start her own business, as per Table 6.3. This is also visible four months after training (Table 6.2). Nonetheless, there was a highly significant ($p<0.05$) effect between marriage

and the ability of respondents to start their own business. Thus, the results show that focusing on training and developing the capacity of married women, can emancipate them sufficiently to start and sustain their businesses.

Table 6.3: Regression Results of Individual Perceived Emancipation Factors as Dependent Variable.

Variable	Factors													
	Overall	DM	A	I	P	K	FE	F	D	A	E	O	E	E
Training	0.303***	0.331***	0.281***	0.122	-0.103	0.255***	0.822***	0.073	0.241***	1.046***	-0.160***	0.064	0.389***	0.585***
Perceived Barriers	0.086***	0.220***	-0.059	0.291***	0.231***	-0.138***	0.384***	0.127**	-0.184***	0.279***	-0.166***	-0.049	0.272***	-0.095**
Age:														
18 - 24	0.164	-0.436	-0.330	0.034	0.727	0.071	0.580	0.006	-0.046	0.975*	0.042	0.069	0.238	0.199
25 - 34	0.416	0.149	0.130	0.410	0.865	0.113	0.781	0.670	0.199	0.931*	0.023	0.534	0.526	0.070
35 - 44	0.521**	0.421	0.237	0.675	1.015	0.087	0.742	0.698	0.185	1.256**	0.207	0.664	0.527	0.037
45 - 54	0.578**	0.458	0.352	0.782	1.019*	0.078*	0.842*	0.691*	0.411*	1.283**	0.163	0.684	0.509	0.234
55 - 64	0.424	0.311	0.162	0.328	0.926*	0.009*	0.546	0.547	0.099	1.091**	0.301	0.622	0.303	0.229
> 65	0.341	0.113	0.001	0.548	0.924	-0.101	0.637	0.989	-0.027	0.832	0.040	0.485	0.032	-0.045
Education:														
Primary	0.031	0.156	-0.033	-0.008	-0.020	0.002	0.073	0.048	-0.013	0.108	0.000	0.054	-0.014	0.044
Secondary	-0.031	0.178	-0.062	-0.0.90	0.118	-0.163	-0.135	0.097	0.002	-0.138	-0.097	-0.142	0.044	-0.032
Vocational	0.234	0.164	0.285	0.186	0.293	0.442	0.130	0.023	0.646*	0.901***	0.002	0.312	-0.846***	0.469*
University	0.140	0.824*	0.134	0.516	0.648	0.438	0.556	-0.091	-0.301	-0.077	-0.734**	-0.077	-0.212	0.217
Marital Status:														

Married	-0.364***	-0.576***	-0.462***	0.892***	-0.522***	-0.303*	-0.282	-0.554***	-0.410**	-0.720***	-0.183***	-0.230	0.187	0.235*
Separated /Divorced	-0.051	0.164	-0.101	0.140	-0.368	-0.213	-0.335*	-0.030	-0.279	-0.247	-0.029	0.108	0.222	0.305*
Widow	-0.026	0.107	-0.107	0.200	-0.180	-0.252	-0.115	-0.092	-0.258	-0.058	-0.112	-0.071	0.391**	0.223
Children:														
1to2	-0.013	-0.058	-0.187	-0.025	-0.209	-0.153	0.162	0.057	-0.266	0.265	0.088	-0.348	0.608***	-0.073
3to5	-0.062	-0.216	-0.249	-0.130	-0.179	-0.055	0.059	-0.219	-0.262	0.284	0.180	-0.464**	0.451**	0.031
6to10	-0.112	-0.310	-0.367	-0.138	-0.303	-0.006	0.125	-0.131	-0.349	0.143	0.044	-0.597***	0.402**	0.078
> 10	-0.192	-0.566	-0.264	-0.319	-0.053	-0.528	0.118	0.048	-0.180	0.165	-0.163	-0.540	0.402	-0.618**
Job Type:														
Employee	0.145	0.177	-0.125	0.341	0.223	0.445*	0.178	0.191	-0.207	0.327	0.051	-0.264	0.591**	-0.079
Agriculture	0.119**	0.129	-0.006	0.087	0.232**	0.156**	-0.053	0.210**	0.388***	0.108	0.074	0.197**	-0.107	0.145*
Small Business	0.025	-0.002	-0.011	-0.017	-0.209**	0.043	-0.004	0.045	0.224***	-0.103	0.037	0.079	-0.074	0.311***
Road Vendor	0.49**	0.156	0.086	0.338**	0.215	0.098	-0.184	0.427***	0.407***	0.213	0.015	0.187	-0.237*	0.207*
Other	0.191*	0.390*	0.158	0.436**	0.282	0.315*	0.210	0.208	0.259	-0.032	-0.129	0.147	-0.183	0.399***

Notes: 1. DM= Decision Making, A= Awareness, I= Independent, P= Perception, K= Knowledge, FE= Flexible Environment, F= Freedom, D= Declaring, A= Autonomy, E= Emotions, O= Ownership, E= Equality and E= Education.

2. Coefficient estimates are derived from a random effect regression of the emancipation equation. The R-squared is 0.1708 and the number of observations in the model is n = 887. Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Base categories for each variable are: age, less than 18; Education, no education; marital status, single; Children, no children; Job type, housewife or no job. *** is the statistical significance at 1% level; ** is the statistical significance at 5% level; * is the statistical significance

As suggested by Ahmed *et al.* (2019), training can provide individuals with knowledge and skills that can be used to develop new opportunities. The upward trend is also reflected in the increased abilities of the respondent which is 11% higher in starting and sustain businesses after entrepreneurship training. This is when compared with before training, in addition to a 5% increase in terms of abilities being improved by training, as shown in Table 6.2.

Interestingly, the results show that the independence of respondent declined slightly, immediately following entrepreneurship training but increased quickly by 11% after four months, as shown in Table 6.2. The combined effects of perceived barriers, marriage, road vending and other factors significantly ($p < 0.05$) influenced women's independence in business. There was more interference in their independence contributed by perceived barriers and marriage, as shown in Table 6.3. The decline in women's independence immediately after training was reflected in the insignificant ($p > 0.005$) contribution of the combined effects of entrepreneurship training, age at all levels, education at all levels, single motherhood and unemployment. The reasons for this may be economic and social-cultural factors along with low literacy levels among women, and in particular rural female entrepreneurs. They tend to lack support in their communities, as observed during the data collection.

The results of the study have shown that women starting their own business declined immediately after training by 24%, and four months after training the need for business start-up increased by 29%, as shown in Table 6.2. It is noted that the combined influence of perceived barriers and marriage contributed hugely to observed trends as compared to the impact of agriculture, small businesses and older age (Table 6.3). Like many other factors, marriage had a highly significant ($p < 0.05$) impact on women's business operations, implying that married women were unable to operate their own business without external influences.

Freire (1996) suggested that independence should entail allowing rural women to use their own judgement as opposed to blindly following the assertions of others. In order for emancipation to be realised when making entrepreneurial decisions, women (individuals) need to recognise that oppression exists and that it has a negative effect on their own activities. The results also show that women who own small businesses sought external help to run them. Conversely, the results showed that children, education, training, lower age and older age (45-54 and 55-64), in addition to single motherhood and employment, did not hinder women in terms of operating their own businesses without external support.

The study has shown that the respondent's knowledge in expanding their businesses improved significantly by 12% immediately following entrepreneurship training and slightly decreased to 7% four months after training, as shown in Table 6.3. This means that women who attended training were at a greater advantage in terms of enhancing their businesses. These trends are evidenced and supported by the highly significant number of ($p < 0.05$) on the effects of entrepreneurship training on a respondent's knowledge, as shown in Table 6.3. Strikingly, the results show that entrepreneurship training had a strong impact in improving women's knowledge in regard to doing business as compared to the effect of other demographic characteristics such as agricultural businesses, older age and being employed.

Interestingly, perceived barriers did not limit a women's knowledge regardless of entrepreneurship training and agricultural businesses, as per Table 6.3. Unlike other factors, where marriage was a hindrance, marriage did not limit women's knowledge in terms of conducting business. Moreover, primary and secondary educational status, number of children, being younger and being a single mother were not likely to have any effect on the respondent's knowledge to conduct business as well (see Table 6.3).

The results of the study suggest additional investment in women's knowledge may be required, as exemplified in the determination of these women to increase their knowledge for business. For example, authors such as McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) argued that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training seems to be limited, as entrepreneurial success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action. It is the result of constant training and the development of new ideas and opportunities. It is, however, unfortunate that married women experienced a negative and statistically significant impact on their emancipation levels. These might relate to challenges in regard to culture, the background of the women, their family or gender-related problems (Pallavi, 2013; Maden, 2015; Naguib and Jamali, 2015).

Available evidence suggests that cultural norms and beliefs cause the majority of the constraints on women who are married, and on their entrepreneurial activities (Brush *et al.*, 2014). Overall, the results show that marriage leads to a reduction of 5.6 in the emancipation index compared to single women. Meanwhile other marital status variables have no significant effect on the emancipation index. This may be due to cultural or psychological factors. Many of these women are often marginalised due to societal barriers. Working in agriculture has a significant impact on emancipation. Small businesses such as shops and road vendors all have a positive impact on emancipation when compared with when women report their role as a housewife. Having children does not have a statistically significant effect on emancipation.

The importance of having a flexible environment to start a business increased by 32% immediately following the entrepreneurship training. It did not change greatly four months following the entrepreneurship training, which increased by only 1%, as shown in Table 6.2. As expected, there was significantly positive correlation ($p < 0.05$) for the importance of entrepreneurship training and perceived barriers. While there was moderate support from the age group 45-54 concerning the provision of a flexible environment to

start a business, as shown in Table 6.3. A flexible environment can also be described as one that is responsive to change, leading to personal benefits for individuals and society. Studies have shown that a flexible environment increases choice, and thereby enhances self-esteem and understanding (Narayanan and Barnabas, 2020; Agarwal and Lenka, 2015). The study found that the importance of having a flexible environment was demonstrably more important to these women in starting a business, than being a married with children, or educated

Although some rural female entrepreneurs may be interested in starting or expanding their entrepreneurial activities when having children, as this may provide a flexible work-life environment, many women are challenged by time restrictions, especially when children are still young or if they have a large number of children between 6 to 10 as the results of the study show. However, other studies show that female entrepreneurs decide to become self-employed in many cases to enjoy higher work-life flexibility or to reduce work-family conflict (Noseleit, 2014). The results further show that when women were examined before they started their business in relation to how their families supported them, immediately after training, shown increase in support.

Due to gender-based inequalities or biases along with prevailing social and cultural norms, results show that before training many women didn't have the freedom to start their own business. Also, among the demographic factors, younger and older age, education, having children and being in employment or running a small business had no relationship with the freedom to start a business. Conversely, the study demonstrated that perceived barriers, agricultural businesses and roadside sales, impacted negatively on the freedom these women felt in starting a business, as detailed in Table 6.3. As was also expected, married women tended to have more freedom to start their own business and support their families, than divorced or separated women, as shown by the negative significance ($p < 0.05$) differences.

Furthermore, the results showed that respondents were emancipated to declare changes in their businesses immediately after entrepreneurship training, with a minimal change after four months of training, as seen in Table 6.3. This is evidenced by the significantly positive effect ($p < 0.05$) of entrepreneurship training on emancipation, as indicated in Table 6.3. The highest significant effect categories were in agricultural businesses, small businesses and roadside vendors. For example, the high levels of self-employment in these business activities are indicative of the few paid employment opportunities that are available in the country. Studies show that in Uganda, approximately 75% of agricultural producers are rural women (UNCTAD, 2014; FAO, 2018). They engage in entrepreneurship at a grass-roots level to generate income, overcome poverty and promote societal and economic advancements (Bruton *et al.*, 2013; Tobias *et al.*, 2013).

Similarly, old age and vocational training positively encouraged women to declare changes in their business, implying that mature women and hands-on training are important characteristics in women's decisions. For example, studies such as that of Gross (2013) suggested that women who are older became independent, capable of making their own decisions, capable of taking ownership of their business, felt free and very experienced. Furthermore, perceived barriers and marriage had negative influences on women declaring changes in their businesses.

Regarding the contribution which entrepreneurship training could have in regard to giving these women complete autonomy in everything they do. The study noted that there were drastic improvements in women's autonomy, showing a 56% increase immediately after training, although there was a slight reduction of 4% in their independence four months after training. This implies that respondents might have gained insights into the benefits of autonomy, but they may have encountered challenges practising it in real-life situations after training. This is confirmed by Vujkoet *et al.*

(2019), who underlined the fact that women's autonomy is typically defined as the ability of women to make choices and decisions with their husbands. For example, four months after training, married women started challenging their partners/husbands who were refusing to let them go to the markets to sell their products.

The study has shown that the independence of many respondents in everything they do while running their businesses was not affected, as shown in Table 6.2. This pattern was evident in their demographic characteristics, as the study clearly shows that most of the demographic characteristics have some level of significant impact on autonomy. Table 6.3 shows that entrepreneurship training had most positively significant contribution ($p < 0.05$) to women's autonomy, followed by vocational education, perceived barriers and older age. Even though the age of women contributed significantly to women's autonomy, this could not compare with younger women, implying that maturity and practical education have a positive impact on women's independence.

Sanchez (2010) suggested that education provides individuals with a sense of independence, autonomy and self-confidence, which is evident in this study. Conversely, this study found that perceived barriers reduced women's autonomy in everything they did, in particular for those women whose capacity was enhanced. The study also revealed that few married women would be more self-sufficient in everything they do compared to their unmarried counterparts. Therefore, understanding the demographic factors affecting women's autonomy can help with finding strategies to support the sense of self-sufficiency as women transition from middle age to old age. It is also apparent that having children and being employed had no effect whatsoever on their autonomy in relation to everything they do.

The capacity to control their emotions was also examined in this study, with the results revealing that there is a decrease of 13% immediately after entrepreneurship training in women controlling their emotions. There is a steady decline four months after

entrepreneurship training finished, as shown in Table 6.2. Thus, it is not surprising that most rural training organisations do not recognise that emotions play a role in everyone's lives. Understanding the demographic characteristics could be one way to help women understand their emotions, to control them and manage their triggers better. It is worth noting that the results established that entrepreneurship training, perceived barriers, university education and marriage had a significantly negative effect ($p < 0.05$) on women's control of their emotions. It is therefore also important to note that perceived barriers and family issues dictate women's emotional control. However, this could also mean that radical changes are needed in women's education and entrepreneurship training systems if they are to improve their ability to control their emotions.

Furthermore, the perceptions that the respondents have of themselves regarding how well they can control their emotions must have been challenged in real-life situations. For instance, rural women in Uganda have long relied upon entrepreneurial activities to evade the demands placed on them by patriarchal institutions. The early colonial periods brought the portrayal of domestic virtue as a female moral ideal, through which women were valued for their contributions within the family and expected to be submissive and deferential to their husbands (Monteith and Camfield, 2019). In recent times, many women have come to express their freedom through their own businesses and embraced the ability to make their own money.

Nonetheless, men are still dominating women in many African countries, especially married women. This is manifested in social norms, in beliefs and in relationships (Kikooma, 2012). In Uganda, patriarchal gender norms still favour men and masculinity, and they deny resources, opportunities and power to women (Lundgren *et al.*, 2019). Some respondents explained that they suffer domestic violence and abuse in their homes but try to control their emotions due to some cultural perception that a woman should be submissive and deferential to men. Women are valued for their contributions

within the family. Therefore, there is a cultural belief that they should control their emotions towards their children and husbands even when they are suffering.

In contrast to other African nations, where gender ideologies stress the role of females as both producers and reproducers, (Lundgren *et al.*, 2019), in Uganda, a female's worth is measured in terms of what she can offer to her family's survival, in terms of procuring and processing food. Some respondents in this study expressed a need to challenge their partners to change such behaviours after receiving more knowledge. It was also observed in the study that the ability to control their emotions was independent of all the age categories, levels of education, marital status, employment or whether or not they had children.

The results regarding the capability of women to take full ownership of their business revealed no major improvements across two phases: Immediately after training and four months after training. It was consistently found that entrepreneurship training, perceived barriers and women's demographic characteristics did not have any significant bearing ($p > 0.05$) on the capability of women taking ownership of their business, as illustrated in Table 6.2. Conversely, children and agriculture had a significantly negative effect ($p < 0.05$) on women taking ownership of their business, meaning that more children and engagement in agricultural business tend to limit women to take charge of their businesses. Reasons may include respondents expressing their constraints in regard to household chores, lack of childcare and domestic responsibilities. These are all barriers to women's entrepreneurial activities similar to those mentioned above.

In regard to the confidence women require to start their own business it is considered crucial in achieving equality. This study revealed that the women reported improved confidence levels immediately after training by 14%. Nonetheless, the levels of confidence decreased slightly four months after entrepreneurship training by 2%, as shown in Table 6.2. There was a significantly positive influence of ($p < 0.05$) in regard to

the training, number of children, employment and being single were shown to contribute to women's confidence in believing that starting their own business is the way to achieve equality. It should be noted, however, that having more children was shown to have a reductive effect on the women's confidence, as indicated in Table 6.3. There was a significant impact of ($p < 0.05$) in regard to vocational education increasing the confidence of women. This implies that as more women acquire vocational training, the likelihood of increase in their confidence becomes eminent.

Self-education is vital for the success and growth of nascent rural female entrepreneurs. This enables them to stay up to date with new skills and tactics to do business. Accordingly, the study demonstrated that the importance of women continuing to educate themselves was enhanced immediately after entrepreneurship training (by 20%), with a small increase after four months (by 0.6%), as shown in Table 6.2. The study found that entrepreneurship training, employment in small businesses and other factors contributed positively to the women's belief that self-education is important. Another factor that contributed positively was women being in vocational education. For example, Namatovu *et al.* (2011) revealed a lack of education and training as the highest limiting factor to entrepreneurship for rural women in Uganda. They highlighted that providing training was critically important.

Furthermore, research by OECD (2011) found that a lack of training is one of the key limiting factors to enterprise development in Uganda. Despite this, the availability of training is still low due to high investment costs, as women could not afford to pay fees to educate themselves. This discourages women's groups and private-sector organisations from investing in such training or education. Therefore, the need for knowledge and competence skills continues to be an overwhelming challenge for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, and thus has become the central focus of this study. In terms of

other demographic characteristics in the study, older women experienced greater effects on their levels of perceived emancipation.

In conclusion to this section, the study has shown that many rural female entrepreneurs revealed that they feel they lack the abilities, skills and expertise required for entrepreneurship and in running their own entrepreneurial activities. For example, respondents reported that they suffered from a lack of training and advisory services that would allow them to progress their managerial and technical skills to solve their immediate production challenges. Which would improve productivity and increase their profitability in their entrepreneurial activities.

Due to the importance of rural female entrepreneurs in unlocking economic growth and supporting their rural communities by creating jobs, policymakers and new programmes will have to be established to increase the start-up rates and performance of rural women-owned small businesses in Uganda. These might be agro-processing clusters specifically for rural women, cooperatives for women, women's banks or loan schemes that only support rural women. The literature review found that entrepreneurship is perceived to be a gendered phenomenon and that the behaviour of women, in terms of their motivation and self-esteem, varies based on gendered beliefs, social values and their relations (Jennings and Brush, 2013). The results of the study found that the majority of rural female entrepreneurs work as single owner-managers and have low aspirations for growing or expanding their businesses, as they have to look after their families as a priority. It is vital that policymakers and programme managers need to explore the need and motivation for a rural female entrepreneur to start her business in a context such as Uganda (McAdam and Marlow, 2012).

6.4.2. Findings and Results Regarding Knowledge

The knowledge required of rural nascent female entrepreneurs in starting a business was assessed in the survey on 7-point criteria before the entrepreneurship

training, immediately after and four months following training. It is important to clarify that knowledge was a key section of the questionnaire in the study as shown in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Knowledge Factors (Mean and Percentage)

	Before	After	4 Months After	Change after training (%)	Change 4 months after (%)	Change overall (%)
Finance	1.75	2.12	2.47	21.32	16.30	41.09
Business Administration	1.42	1.87	1.93	32.16	3.08	36.23
Management	1.40	1.88	1.95	34.31	4.00	39.68
Market information	1.84	2.23	2.27	21.26	1.44	23.01
Accessing loans	1.35	2.35	2.20	74.30	6.66	62.69
Sales & profits	1.90	2.27	2.76	19.36	21.55	45.09
Networking	1.59	1.76	1.69	10.77	3.62	6.76
Knowledge Average	1.61	2.07	2.18	30.50	8.7	36.36

Note: Mean business knowledge scores for each factor are calculated from a 5-point Likert scale (0-1-2-3-4). Higher scores are indicative of better business knowledge level.

The rating for the knowledge of nascent women entrepreneurs in starting a business was subjected to a descriptive analysis as per the results in Table 6.4. However, in general, the study has shown that when rural women are trained, they can capitalise on the acquired knowledge and skills to initiate a business idea, to enrich their mindset and translate the results of a business idea into entrepreneurial activities. Therefore, the entrepreneurship training delivered to the nascent rural entrepreneurs may enable them to identify new opportunities, support them by providing them knowledge in regard to mainly accessing loans, as Table 6.5 indicates regarding the effect of knowledge.

Furthermore, other external key factors, such as perceived barriers and demographic characteristics, that could influence women's knowledge during entrepreneurship training, were also assessed. This was in an effort to determine their contribution to

overall change in women's regression results of the knowledge equation as shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5: Regression Results of the Knowledge Equation.

Variable		Factors						
		KF	KBA	KM	KMI	KAL	KSP	KN
Training Perceived Barriers	0.447***	0.492***	0.468***	0.492***	0.304***	0.861***	0.511***	0.002
	-0.369***							-0.150***
Age:								
18 - 24	-0.347	-0.668	-0.631	-0.367	-0.151	-0.005	-0.587	-0.087
25 - 34	-0.254	-0.480	-0.432	-0.293	-0.034	-0.180	-0.454	0.020
35 - 44	-0.234	-0.470	-0.442	-0.281	-0.050	-0.179	-0.285	-0.014
45 - 54	-0.159	-0.453	-0.408	-0.240	0.028	0.019	-0.225	0.133
55 - 64	-0.163	-0.436	-0.344	-0.402	-0.087	0.250	-0.153	-0.053
> 65	-0.267	-0.170	-0.622	-0.553	0.140	-0.100	-0.274	-0.232
Education:								
Primary	0.083	0.152**	-0.096	0.033	0.130	0.066	0.149*	0.130
Secondary	0.123	0.138	0.0464	0.240*	0.276**	-0.195	0.262*	0.099
Vocational	0.451**	0.346	0.384	0.383	-0.034	0.573	0.978***	0.332
University	0.189	0.306	-0.244	-0.212	0.400	0.411	0.188	0.457
Marital Status:								
Married	-0.037	-0.057	0.053	-0.094	-0.135	0.442**	-0.023	-0.464**
Separated/Divorced	0.062	0.197	0.197	0.057	-0.049	0.373*	0.137	-0.476**
Widow	-0.062	0.045	-0.036	0.000	-0.181	0.298	-0.151	-0.439**
Children:								
1to2	-0.097	-0.120	0.119	-0.006	0.021	0.735***	-0.042	0.054
3to5	-0.013	-0.107	0.038	0.060	0.222	-0.506**	-0.064	0.194
6to10	-0.017	-0.033	-0.017	0.137	0.223	-0.508**	-0.091	0.102
> 10	-0.851***	-0.764**	-0.805**	-0.320	-0.524	1.342***	1.647***	-0.712*
Job Type:								
Employee	0.052	0.515**	-0.065	0.035	0.233	0.269	-0.384	-0.252
Agriculture	0.191***	0.152*	0.287***	0.298***	0.249***	0.172	0.287***	-0.103
Small Business	0.293***	0.175**	0.362***	0.448***	0.378***	0.402***	0.255***	0.056
Road Vendor	0.179*	0.069	0.214*	0.431***	0.393***	0.280*	-0.013	-0.130
Other	0.084	-0.041	0.298*	0.467***	0.123	0.035	-0.187	-0.105

Notes

1. KF= Knowledge in Finance, KBA= Knowledge in Business Administration, KM= Knowledge in Management, KMI= Knowledge in Market Information, KAL= Knowledge in Accessing Loans, KSP= Knowledge in Sales & Profits, KN= Knowledge in Networking.

2. Coefficient estimates are derived from a random effect regression of the knowledge equation. The R-squared is 0.2651 and the number of observations in the model is n = 887. Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Base categories for each variable are: age, less than 18; Education, no education; marital status, single; Children, no children; Job type, housewife or no job. *** is the statistical significance at 1% level; ** is the statistical significance at 5% level; * is the statistical significance at 10% level.

The results demonstrate that there was a consistent knowledge gain over the three phases of the study, as shown in Table 6.4. It is evident that, in terms of overall knowledge

factors, women gained more knowledge about how to start a business immediately after training (by 21%) than four months after (17%). Reasons for a decrease might include the understanding of the programme delivered or the personalities of the rural women themselves, as Sania and Jamilb (2020) suggested that entrepreneurship training is the nurturing of an entrepreneurial mindset, attitude and skills that allow the individual to take charge and identify the opportunities. In this case, women took charge of their own decision to start the business immediately, but four months later, that motivation was fading.

Although women's knowledge decreased by approximately a quarter of the original increase, it did not affect the overall total increase. This implies that training had a huge contribution in the improvement of their knowledge base while starting their own businesses. This observation was confirmed by the significantly positive contribution of ($p < 0.05$) of entrepreneurship training to women's overall knowledge improvement, shown in Table 6.5. In addition, there was a significantly negative effect of perceived barriers on women's knowledge. Which could imply that entrepreneurship training overshadowed those barriers, which is a possible indication that consistent improvement of knowledge also helps to improve the emancipation of these women in business. This study showed that an increase in the number of children has a negative influence on knowledge acquisition by women, probably explained by the burden and time required to care for children. Entrepreneurial activity often takes second place to household duties and caring for children. This is a weakness for many rural entrepreneurs in Uganda. Additionally, vocational training and vendor business had a moderately positive effect on the improvement of women's knowledge, which might imply that a background knowledge of vocational education and vendor businesses enhances their abilities to learn how to start a business. For instance, Camfield and Monteith (2019) suggested that

Ugandan women continue to be disadvantaged in their entrepreneurial activities by restricted access to secondary school and vocational education.

Women are required to combine their entrepreneurial activities with various forms of unpaid domestic work and contribute to basic household needs such as food, health and education for their children. Researchers such as Snyder (2000) have shown that female entrepreneurs in Uganda tend to prioritise their children and family in their expenditure, while male entrepreneurs tend to retain a large proportion of their income for personal use. What is noticeable from this study is that the knowledge these women had in regard to starting a business was independent of age, university education, marital status and employment. This might suggest a willingness of women to acquire knowledge across all age categories. It also seems to indicate that women gain knowledge better in vocational training than university training. The implication of this is that the practical aspects of vocational education contribute to overall knowledge acquisition.

The results of the study found that rural women lack such vocational training in many parts of Uganda. Other research has shown that vocational training, interaction, hands-on experience and working with communities, encourages and enhances rural women's entrepreneurial knowledge and skills. In addition, if mentorship is provided to nascent rural female entrepreneurs, they would create multiple business plans, practising the identification of opportunities and exposure to role models as they start their entrepreneurial activities.

This study also showed that there was a highly distinctive contribution of women's demographic characteristics to knowledge factors, as detailed in Table 6.5, but also, individual factors contributed towards women's knowledge enhancement in relation to conducting business, as per Table 6.4. Interestingly, women gained more knowledge in accessing loans than other factors discussed earlier. Clearly, it is shown that there was an increase in women's knowledge in how to access loans immediately after

entrepreneurship training was complete compared to four months after. Despite the reduction of this knowledge four months after training, it did not offset the overall knowledge of accessing loans. Thus, it is argued that funding has an impact on the nascent rural female entrepreneur's success and loans constitute a major source of women's finance, as suggested by Robb and Robinson (2014).

Access to loans at a very early stage of a start-up business may enable nascent rural female entrepreneurs to invest in value creation opportunities and expand the business at a fast rate. It is visible in the results of the study that this was the area where entrepreneurship training provided the highest positive contribution of ($p < 0.05$) to women's knowledge compared to the role of other factors, as shown in Table 6.5. The observed phenomenon in improved women knowledge access to loans is evident in the demographic characteristics and other factors that they play as in Table 6.5. The highly significant negative contribution of perceived barriers to women's knowledge of how to gain access to loans and start a business meant that as women gained more knowledge, the perceived negative barriers no longer dominated women's thoughts.

This is a good result, as lessons learnt from the study can be used to improve other factors contributing towards increasing women's knowledge in relation to access to loans. However, as the results showed, informal saving groups are the main credit facility used by rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda to reduce poverty and encourage entrepreneurs, through their Village Savings and Loan Associations (VSLA). Through the VSLA, many rural women are trained, and they access these small loans to start-up their entrepreneurial activities and enhance family well-being, as revealed by Orame *et al.*, (2020). As access to finance is a huge challenge for nascent rural female entrepreneurs, there are other informal savings groups, such as the Rotating Saving and Credit Associations (ROSCAs), Savings and Cooperative Society Organisation (SACCO), and this is the biggest rural savings scheme for many rural women. It also impacted positively on the rural female

entrepreneurs, providing basic credit to own an entrepreneurial activity and improving the well-being of many women (Onyele & Onyele, 2020).

Additionally, it is observed that the number of children a woman had negatively affected knowledge acquisition in relation to accessing loans, indicating that, regardless of the number of children, women spent more time caring for children and devoted less time to acquiring knowledge to run their entrepreneurial activities. Both married and divorced/separated women showed significant highly negative effects of knowledge to access loans, with married women being more affected than the divorced women. Irrespective of the marital status, it seems to indicate that family issues provide less time for women to access loans. It could also mean that, due to the influence of family affairs, such as the use of loan funds provided by a husband or children, women do not perceive the usefulness of acquiring knowledge to access loans to start businesses.

The study showed that the knowledge gained in sales and profits due to entrepreneurship training was second highest to accessing loans. Unlike in accessing loans, less knowledge in sales and profits was gained immediately after entrepreneurship training compared to four months later, as shown in Table 6.4. In fact, this trend is supported by the significantly positive contribution of entrepreneurship training, as detailed in Table 6.5. The significant negative role of perceived barriers to acquiring knowledge on sales and profits could also be explained by the knowledge of sales and profits overshadowing the barriers. The data implies that respondent's network was slightly more positive immediately following training than four months after training. This might be due to many rural women having less knowledge of networking skills even though women in rural areas connect well with their neighbours in communities, but not in terms of business networking.

Some researchers, such as Zin and Ibrahim (2020) as quoted in Chapter Four, suggested that a business network is recognised as a feature which can support rural

female entrepreneurs to utilise their limited resources and compete more effectively with their competitors. In this study, women expressed their views that there are still many “old boys’ networks” in rural communities, such as football clubs and drinking groups in villages, and all of these exclude women. A further challenge for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda was observed, as rural women have fewer benefits from being part of partnerships or entrepreneurial collaborations. This was mainly due to their weak networking contacts and less time they have available to develop those networks, as rural women spend a great deal of time growing food and looking after their families.

Studies suggested that training is not a single event; continued training is needed to change respondents’ knowledge in managing their businesses (Siddiqui and Alaraifi, 2019). However, the results showed a highly significant positive influence of agriculture and small business, which could be due to the fact that more women engaged in agriculture and small businesses were eager to learn more in order to improve their businesses. However, the literature showed that gender disparities in agriculture are a major challenge for many rural female entrepreneurs, as they do not own their land (Kristjanson *et al.*, 2017). Such inequality, especially concerning the ownership of agricultural land, continues to limit women’s contributions to businesses in agriculture and household food baskets (Palacios-Lopez, 2015). Many rural women in the study relied on agri-businesses and road vending, as the results confirmed.

Conversely, this study has found that women with 10 children or more experienced a significantly negative effect on knowledge gained on sales and profits, while marital status and education had no significant bearing ($p>0.05$) on knowledge gained in sales and profits. This might have been related to a challenge with regard to a lack of childcare support, meaning that women could not leave home for the purposes of running a business. Furthermore, respondents expressed a need for continuous training in such areas to master more sales techniques. However, according to the results,

respondents indicated that they had improved knowledge on management while starting or running their businesses to 34 percent immediately after training, as shown in Table 6.4.

The results are supported by the significantly positive effect of ($p < 0.05$) entrepreneurship training on the knowledge gained in management, as shown in Table 6.5. As expected, with the acquisition of knowledge, perceived barriers had a significant negative impact on knowledge in management, and the results suggested that further training may be needed to counter barriers in starting and running the business. The significantly positive effect of agriculture, small businesses, roadside vending and other factors confirm what the literature review found in Chapter Four that women play a vital role in Uganda's rural agricultural sector which shows a higher proportion of women than men work in farming at 76% versus 62% (FAO, 2018).

Rural female entrepreneurs engage in entrepreneurship at a grass-roots level to generate income, overcome poverty and promote societal and economic advancements (Bruton *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, the literature review confirmed that rural women-led enterprises are small and informal, providing goods and services to mainly local communities in agriculture. In addition, secondary education contributed a small positive influence on knowledge to manage businesses. This perhaps points to the fact that many women in the survey had attained primary education and a small number had attained secondary education. This could also imply that future training can explore further women who have attained at least vocational and second-level education, as a lack of education was a major challenge for many respondents surveyed. In contrast, age, marital status and having children did not have any significant bearing on the women's knowledge of management.

The study found that women's knowledge of finance to start a business steadily increased, with a similar increase immediately after entrepreneurship training and four

months after training. Unlike other factors where knowledge gained by women was associated with intermittent trends, knowledge of finance showed higher trends at both stages. It was consistently found that entrepreneurship training showed a significantly positive impact of ($p < 0.05$) on patterns of women's knowledge of finance. This suggests that, together with accessing loans, sales and profits, management, business administration and, to a moderate extent, market information, these factors highly affect their businesses, and thus affect the urge to gain more training to achieve further knowledge.

However, inconsistent results showed that perceived barriers maintained a highly significant negative impact on women's knowledge in relation to finances. For example, in Uganda, a family fulfils a critical role because of the lack of collateral; the family is the backup that provides resources such as accessing finance. Therefore, Berger and Soubaya (2019) has argued that external factors tend to hamper women's entrepreneurial activities at a later stage of expanding the business due to the lack of crucial infrastructures such as finance, skills required to expand a business and budget management (entrepreneurs tend to mix family budgets and business budgets), so they end up using the start-up funds to finance the family's needs. However, many businesses access credits from banks or micro-finance, but many women find it very hard to access finance in Uganda as it is important to note that credit accessibility is a challenge for many female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This is due to high lending rates by all commercial banks and micro-finance institutions which range between 23-25% interest rate.

Further results showed that women with more than 10 children were likely to be limited in terms of improving their knowledge of finance, as shown by the moderately significant negative impact of having more than 10 children on women's knowledge of finances. In the context of African (Ugandan), rural entrepreneur is most often the mother of several children, providing not only for her own children, but being in charge of the

whole extended family. Surprisingly, having a primary education had a moderately significant negative effect on women's knowledge of finances. Again, this also suggests how important knowledge of finance is irrespective of educational level. Age and marital status did not contribute meaningfully to women's knowledge of finances.

When the contribution of entrepreneurship to women's knowledge of business administration was assessed, the study found that women gained more knowledge immediately following training, which continued until four months later, as Table 6.4 shows. The evidence of this pattern/trend of an increase of knowledge in business administration is seen in the significantly positive effect of ($p < 0.05$) of entrepreneurship training on business administration in Table 6.6. Similarly, employment in agriculture and small businesses showed a positive impact on knowledge of business administration than being employed as a vendor and other factors, which showed a nominally positive impact on women's knowledge of business administration. By contrast, the results showed that women with more than 10 children were likely to experience a greater negative influence on their knowledge of business administration.

As far as women's knowledge of market information is concerned, the survey results showed that most respondents had increased their knowledge of market information immediately after entrepreneurship training, as illustrated in Table 6.4. This increase was proportionally higher for the period immediately after training than four months after. Nevertheless, there was a steady increase of knowledge for the two phases. The increase in women's knowledge of market information immediately after training might be an indication of the emphasis women place on knowledge to improve their businesses, as well as the marketing support that was given to women by the NGO that trained them. In terms of market information, respondents had joined a cooperative in the local area. This was a source of information for many women who joined the group cooperative, as the leader was a woman.

These patterns and trends were supported by statistical results, which confirmed that entrepreneurship training had a significantly positive effect ($p < 0.05$) on the improvement of women's knowledge of market information, as per Table 6.5. Furthermore, the results showed that agriculture, small businesses and road vendors demonstrated highly significant positive support as regards the improvement of women's knowledge of market information, while secondary education revealed a medium significant positive contribution to knowledge. As regards the assessment of women in relation to the perceived barriers to acquiring knowledge of market information, however, the results show a more highly significant negative effect. Simply put, perceived barriers had a highly inverse effect with women's knowledge of market information, suggesting that increased knowledge of market information reduced the impact of perceived barriers on women with regard to conducting business. Women's age, marital status and number of children had no significant influence on their knowledge of market information.

The knowledge of women on networking amongst themselves was studied, and the results were compared across the three phases of the survey. Most respondents were more convinced of acquiring more knowledge about networking after entrepreneurship training. Despite women's improved knowledge of networking immediately after training, there was a slight reduction thereafter until 4 months (Table 6.4). However, there was an aggregate improvement of women's knowledge of networking throughout the four months. It is evident that a respondent's knowledge of networking was the least among all the factors that define women's knowledge to start a business. This is evident from the non-significant impact of entrepreneurship training on women's knowledge of networking (Table 6.5). It is noteworthy that perceived barriers showed the highest significant negative impact on networking compared to other demographic characteristics. This suggests that women think that they can't acquire the knowledge due to perceived barriers in networking. Similarly, the significantly negative effect of marital

status suggests that marriage has a dominant influence which limits women in terms of being able to network. Generally, the results suggest that women did not consider networking to be important in business.

In conclusion, the results have shown a constant level of knowledge immediately and four months after training, and they indicate the respondent's ability to manage her business. The results also found that rural nascent female entrepreneurs are less likely to have formal education in business, and the study further confirmed no significant effect on education and women did lack managerial knowledge that they need to run their businesses as suggested by Poggesi *et al.* (2019). The study further found that even when women are trained, they need more confidence. The researcher observed and listened to respondents while in the field and it was clear that entrepreneurship training and knowledge is critical as rural women are major contributors in economic growth of the economy.

The policymakers and banks may consider areas of training/education, finance/accessing loans, marketing, rural women's ownership of land and access to the Internet to support rural female entrepreneurs with developing their businesses. As Balan and Metcalfe (2012) have argued, entrepreneurship training is not only about the transfer of knowledge, but also about the ability to discover new opportunities and master venture creation processes to create value at individual, community and societal levels. As Gielnik *et al.* (2016) also found, training leads to skills accumulation and better knowledge in entrepreneurship performance.

6.4.3. Findings and Results about Competence

While entrepreneurial competencies are important as was discussed in Chapter One, the imperative to develop an understanding of such competencies in rural female entrepreneurs are still low. Rural female entrepreneurial competencies were aggregated

into a 9-point scale with corresponding average scores calculated before, immediately after and four months after training, as per Table 6.6, below.

Table 6.6: Competence factors (Mean and Percentage)

	Before	After	4 Months After	Change after training (%)	Change 4 months after (%)	Change Overall (%)
Business plan	1.34	2.09	2.43	56.0	16.3	81.3
Decision making	1.75	2.33	2.43	33.1	4.3	38.9
Management	1.35	2.01	1.82	48.9	10.4	34.8
Entrepreneurial	1.39	1.61	1.68	15.8	4.3	20.9
Customer Care	2.32	2.70	3.01	16.4	11.5	29.7
Communication	2.52	2.63	2.94	4.4	11.8	16.7
Creativity and Innovation	1.58	1.78	1.88	12.7	5.6	19.0
Financial literacy	1.61	1.84	2.33	14.3	26.7	44.7
Advertising	1.54	1.74	1.86	13.0	6.9	20.8
Competence Average	1.71	2.08	2.26	21.6	8.7	32.2

Note: Mean business competence scores for each factor are calculated from a 5-point Likert scale (0-1-2-3-4). Higher scores are indicative of better business competence level.

In addition, vital aspects of perceived barriers and women’s demographic characteristics were synergised into a competence factor analysis, as per Table 6.7. The competence factors are discussed according to the importance of their contribution to improving nascent rural female entrepreneurial skills. In this sub-section, the researcher used a Likert-type rating scale under the headings: No competence, some competence, moderate competence, good competence and excellent competence.

In general, the results show that entrepreneurship training improved women’s entrepreneurial skills, which increased greatly before and immediately after training. This is compared to low increases that occurred immediately after training and four months

later, as shown in Table 6.6. The results suggested that respondents agreed that skills are essential in their businesses. The results show that respondents were aware of the need to gain more competence in some skills than others. For instance, in Table 6.6, business plans had the best results with over 72.3% while communication was rated as the lowest at 16.2%. This may be due to the fact that, prior to entrepreneurship training, women were working individually and perhaps they had some training in different areas of entrepreneurship, especially business plans, as these are critical before the business start-up phase.

Other studies in the literature suggest that a business plan gives women an opportunity to write down their objectives, which include their business goals and their future plans for all elements of their businesses (Mintzberg, 2007). In general, the lack of business planning gives a lack of objectives and future plans, and both Rwigema (2004) and Boateng (2019) stated that planning can make the difference between the success and failure of a business. Further overall results regarding the respondents' competencies were analysed statistically and are presented in Table 6.7. However, the results show that respondents may not have considered communication an important aspect of supporting their businesses. These results show that entrepreneurial competence had a significantly positive impact ($p < 0.05$) on improving the competence skills of the respondents.

It can also be observed that entrepreneurship training had a positive impact on respondents' demographic factors, such as skills in agriculture, small businesses and road vendor businesses, and secondary education shows a highly significant positive contribution to respondents' skills. The observed phenomena could be explained by the fact that some women had started businesses and had the desire to gain more skills. This could also mean that more women had attained secondary-level education. It is noted that perceived barriers had a highly significant negative impact on the skills of the

respondents. This suggests that improvement in respondents' skills outweighed scepticism.

Table 6.7: Regression results of individual Competence Skills

Variable	Factors									
	Overall	BS	DMS	MS	ES	CCS	CS	CIS	FLS	AS
Training	0.401** *	0.870** *	0.562* **	0.592* **	0.225* **	0.398* **	0.160**	0.192* *	0.427* **	0.182**
Perceived Barriers	- 0.352** *	- 0.207** *	- 0.242* **	- 0.154* **	- 0.302* **	- 0.667* **	- 0.609** *	- 0.475* **	-0.019	- 0.522** *
Age:										
18 - 24	-0.141	-0.588	-0.207	-0.137	-0.354	-0.159	0.004	0.130	-0.074	0.129
25 - 34	0.131	-0.310	0.017	-0.027	-0.047	0.168	0.247	0.508	0.152	0.467
35 - 44	0.093	-0.285	0.079	-0.007	-0.101	-0.041	0.256	0.353	0.185	0.435
45 - 54	0.107	-0.247	0.037	0.048	-0.100	-0.016	0.229	0.470	0.161	0.340
55 - 64	0.099	-0.273	0.185	0.053	-0.196	-0.113	0.144	0.317	0.397	0.385
> 65	-0.127	-0.586	-0.195	-0.067	-0.339	-0.233	0.084	0.160	-0.340	0.203
Education:										
Primary	0.086	0.025	0.022	0.029	0.152*	0.154* *	0.125*	0.116	0.119	0.028
Secondary	0.294** *	0.215*	0.452* **	0.303* *	0.425* **	0.221*	0.138	0.443* **	0.469* **	0.011
Vocational	0.300	0.104	0.214	0.218	0.597*	0.277	0.453	0.595*	0.321	0.097*
University	0.100	0.495	0.127	-0.457	0.184	0.045	-0.065	0.140	0.459	0.018
Marital Status:										
Married	-0.225*	-0.071	-0.146	-0.161	-0.454	-0.019	-0.163	- 0.699* **	0.016	-0.338*
Separated/Divorced	-0.025	0.137	0.074	-0.001	-0.164	0.182	0.006	- 0.513* *	0.121	-0.140
Widow	-0.104	0.032	-0.044	-0.088	-0.285	0.143	0.012	- 0.448* *	0.097	-0.356
Children:										
1to2	-0.037	-0.250	-0.059	0.202	0.217	-0.242	-0.057	-0.223	0.130	-0.003
3to5	-0.032	-0.324	-0.006	0.230	0.253	-0.201	-0.059	-0.229	0.175	-0.036
6to10	-0.015	-0.283	-0.036	0.173	0.291	-0.143	-0.013	-0.096	0.187	-0.114
> 10	-0.574**	- 1.196** *	- 0.736* **	- 0.275* *	-0.301	-0.447	-0.489	-0.655*	-0.252	-0.495
Job Type:										
Employee	0.116	0.398*	0.058	0.241	0.317	-0.265	-0.101	0.027	0.050	0.367
Agriculture	0.267** *	0.276** *	0.136*	0.582* **	0.556* **	0.080	0.055	0.598* **	-0.073	0.217**
Small Business	0.243** *	0.405** *	0.215* **	0.434* **	0.484* **	0.155* *	-0.057	0.496* **	-0.091	0.197**
Road Vendor	0.273** *	0.158	0.114	0.621* **	0.627* **	0.164	-0.114	0.807* **	0.092	-0.043
Other	0.039	0.165	0.105	0.299*	0.422* *	- 0.297*	-0.208	0.088	0.168	-0.424**

Notes: 1. BS= Business Skills, DMS=Decision making skills, MS= Management skills, ES= Entrepreneurial skills, CCS= Customer care skills, CS= Communication skills, CIS= Creativity innovation skills, FS= Financial literacy skills, AS= Advertising, product services.

2. Coefficient estimates are derived from a random effect regression of the competence equation. The R-squared is 0.2489 and the number of observations in the model is n = 887. Standard errors are presented in parentheses. Base categories for each variable are: age, less than 18; Education, no education; marital status, single; Children, no children; Job type, housewife or no job. *** is the

statistical significance at 1% level; ** is the statistical significance at 5% level; * is the statistical significance at 10% level.

Similarly, there was a negative impact on competence skills amongst rural female entrepreneurs who had more than 10 children and those who were married, suggesting that family issues had an effect on acquiring skills, as discussed in Section 6.4. Generally, age did not have a significant effect of ($p>0.05$) on respondents' skills. Training improved the business competence index by 0.401 compared to those without training.

Results show that when women are trained, they gain a better understanding of the factors involved in the efficient running of a business. For example, Gielnik *et al.* (2017) along with Welter and Smallbone (2010) found that, without the necessary competence, women will not be able to start a new business even in the most progressive business environment. Therefore, entrepreneurship training that provides entrepreneurial skills constitutes an important complementary factor that empowers women to make use of a conducive business environment that leads to an increase in entrepreneurship activity. Increases in the perceived barriers index have a statistically significant negative effect on competence. Age is statistically insignificant in this analysis. Therefore, it has no effect on the competence index. In terms of education, secondary education has a positive and statistically significant effect on competence. Women with secondary education have a 0.294-point higher competence index than women under 18. Married women experienced a -0.225 reduction in the competence index compared to single women.

This study found that some married women experienced a negative environment due to their husbands, and a number of these women explained that many women face multiple kinds of domestic violence. Married women complained about a lack of competence, which is a mixture of many factors. Women with more than 10 children experienced a significantly negative effect on their business competence. Women with

more than 10 children had a -0.574 reduction in the competence index. Women with bigger families often feel frustrated as they must divide their time between household duties and training, with the latter taking second place (Chaudhary and Kameswari, 2015). In terms of job type, women working in agriculture, small businesses and as road vendors experienced a more positive and statistically significant effect on business competence compared to those not working or those who were housewives. Agriculture is the main job for many rural female entrepreneurs and nearly 70% of rural women are employed in this sector (UBOS, 2014).

Overall, these results show that entrepreneurial competence had a significantly positive ($p < 0.05$) impact on improving respondent's competence skills. It can also be observed that entrepreneurship training had a positive impact on respondents' demographic factors such as skills in agriculture, small businesses and road vendor businesses, and secondary education, showing a significantly positive contribution to the respondent's competence skills. The observed phenomena could be explained by the fact that some women had started businesses and they had the desire to gain more skills. This could also mean that more women had attained secondary level education. It is noted that perceived barriers had a highly significant negative impact on respondent's competence skills, suggesting improvement in respondent skills outweighed scepticisms.

6.5. ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITIES AND OTHER FINDINGS

Entrepreneurial activities are important in creating and increasing employment opportunities and fuelling economic growth in the economy. Many rural female entrepreneurs are mothers as findings in demographics of the study have shown. Women care for their large families, undertaking their businesses in informal sectors where there are very few business-enabling infrastructures and less entrepreneurship training skills. On the contrary, rural female entrepreneurs are often subjected to gender related biases.

These biases are worse where social challenges are focused on women, particularly in the financial sector as it is strongly male-oriented. This argument is supported by McAdam and Marlow (2012) who commented that discrimination and biases remain a challenge for women in self-employment.

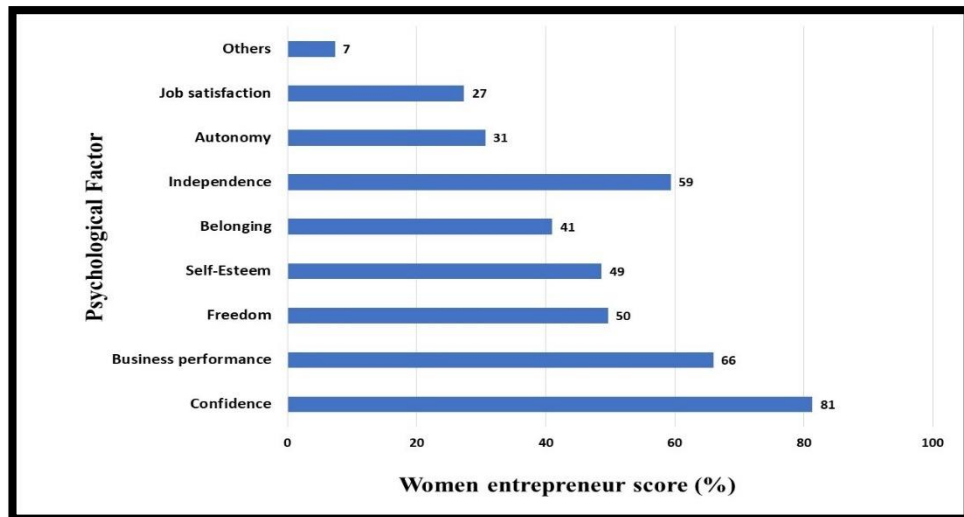
These women start their businesses and create jobs in response to market failure that might prevent them from access to employment in their locality (Berger and Soubaya, 2019). Therefore, rural female entrepreneurs are recognised as a new engine for economic growth and prosperity in a country as entrepreneurial activities becomes an essential source of employment as confirmed by Meyer and Hamilton (2020). However, it is critical to develop entrepreneurial skills since these rural female entrepreneurs become leaders and job creators through their entrepreneurial activities.

Results show that respondents in the study before the training, 87.3% agreed that they would start a business within the next 3 months, while 7.0% would not start the business, and 5.7% were undecided. However, four months after training 95% of women agreed that they would start a business and 5% were still thinking about it. These results are consistent with previous reports, which revealed that there is an increasing number of women who were starting enterprises in rural communities because of a higher rate of unemployment and family commitment (Brijlal and Jere, 2019). Women in rural communities are supported by the flexible working conditions of self-employment that make it easier for them to look after their children and family commitments. A few other factors that are revealed in this study to be important for the nascent rural female entrepreneurs included: (I) Psychological factors; (II) Government support; and (III) Mobile phone use or technology as it is a critical mode of communication for rural female entrepreneurs.

6.5.1. Psychological Factors

The study sought to identify how entrepreneurship training might make a positive impact on women's lives by increased confidence, sense of freedom, self-esteem and sense of belonging. Figure 6.2 shows the distribution of respondents on the psychological factors four months after entrepreneurship training had finished.

Figure 6.2: Effectiveness of Psychological Factors



Source: Author.

The results indicate that women had an increase of confidence of 81%. This might be due to the entrepreneurship training women received, as evidence from the previous studies in which female entrepreneurs who experienced entrepreneurial training had a higher commitment to stay in business, showing a greater level of self-efficacy, greater skill sets and higher levels of confidence (Naong, 2019; Moodley, 2017). The result revealed that 59% of women felt more independent, this may be that rural female entrepreneurs have a desire for economic empowerment and independence from their spouses, as was observed during the data collection. However, women felt less in autonomy; this may have been due to many married women having dependency on their husband. The reasons included some family issues, while others were not ready, and a lack of credit was another challenge rural female entrepreneur experienced.

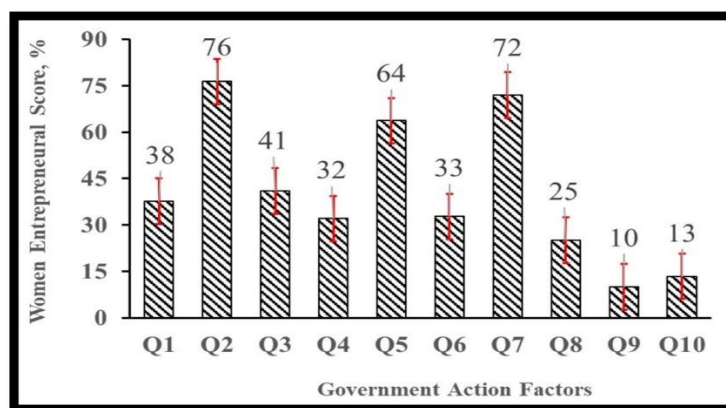
Personality (autonomy, passion and risk-taking) were one of the psychological

factors that stopped women from starting new businesses. Buckley and Casson (2019) suggested that the success of the entrepreneur is determined by an entrepreneur’s ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors that affect individual opportunities. It could also be suggested that the entrepreneurial survival rate through entrepreneurial processes is determined by one’s ability to judge and select opportunities relevant to one’s means.

6.5.2. Government Action to Support Rural Female Entrepreneurs

The women were asked to state what they thought the Government should do to increase their start-up businesses. Results are presented in Figure 6.3, showing that generally, there were significant variations of ($p < 0.05$) among Government actions. It is evident that the Government is taken to have an important role to play in creating economic opportunities in rural communities through creating and enabling policy environments to support job creation. Results show that establishing entrepreneurship training programs for rural female entrepreneurs was the highest, although this did not differ significantly at ($p < 0.05$) from the provision of loans and funding schemes.

Figure 6.3: Government Action to Increase Start-ups for Rural Women



Error bars show statistical significance at $\alpha < 5\%$

Q1= Policy for Entrepreneurship Programmes; Q2= Entrepreneurship Training; Q3= Market Opportunities; Q4= Equal Opportunities; Q5= State loans; Q6= Rural Entrepreneurs; Q7= Funding Scheme; Q8= Innovative Enterprises; Q9= Ecosystems; Q10=Others

Previous studies have shown that government plays an important role in creating economic opportunities in rural communities through creating and enabling policy environments to support job creation (Mugabi, 2014). Some policies at national level promote better rural enterprises and support, although the government's direct support to rural female entrepreneurs is insignificant at local levels. There is a need for the government to work directly with the rural women at the grass-root community level, as many rural female entrepreneurs indicated their challenges (Figure 6.3).

Results revealed how significant entrepreneurship training is for the rural female entrepreneurs and their need to be trained. While funding scheme came second, this is still a big challenge for many rural female entrepreneurs as reality is not always reflected on the ground. In addition, the findings of this study are particularly important for the design and implementation of appropriate policies and programmes in Uganda to help rural women start entrepreneurial activities. The results make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge examining entrepreneurial activity for rural women. Previously Chingunta (2017) and Dvoulety *et al.* (2019) have stated the need for robust estimates of the factors affecting entrepreneurial activities in Africa.

6.5.3. The Use of Mobile Phone Technology by Rural Female Entrepreneurs

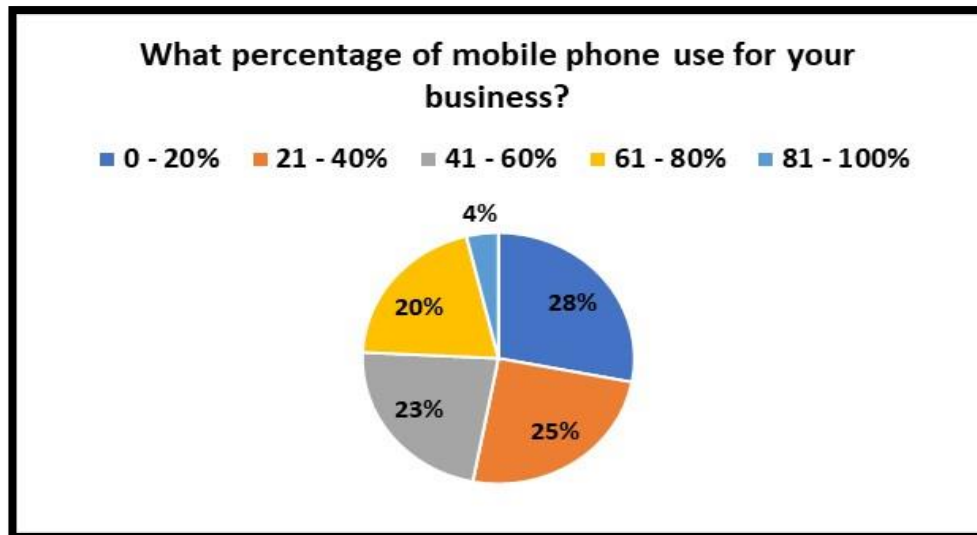
The use of mobile phones has increased dramatically in many African nations, in particular in rural communities. This has reduced the costs of communication and has improved access to information for rural women in rural communities. A new service in the form of mobile money transfer has changed the working environment and the way that business is done in Africa as it is an enabling technology for innovation in African economies (Kikulwe *et al.*, 2014). Mobile money transfer is an example of a technology which is relevant to rural female entrepreneurs who are often underserved and discriminated against in the formal banking system.

Traditionally, before mobile money transfer started in many African countries, cash was sometimes sent through people travelling to a destination, such as bus or truck drivers, but such informal mechanisms were not safe (Kirui *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, mobile money services have reduced the transaction costs, time and reliability. Money is transferred by sending a simple, quick text message to the recipient's mobile phone. This is much faster and safer than most informal means of cash transfer. However, mobile phones are unlikely to solve all the challenges of rural female entrepreneurs, though they may improve their businesses if they use mobile phones and mobile money transfer for their business (Krell *et al.*, 2020). Some women use their mobile phones as savings tools. While rural female entrepreneurs asked whether they use their mobile phones for the business, 56% said no and 44% said yes.

The results show that 53.7% of respondents do not have a mobile phone, while 46.3% own a mobile phone. Rural women do not own mobile phones due to poverty levels or a lack of reading and writing skills, although many people in business use text messaging because they offer a cheaper way of communicating, while calling is more expensive. Figure 6.4 shows the use of mobile phones for businesses by rural female entrepreneurs in the Kiryandongo region of Uganda.

The results of the study show that rural women are reluctant to use their mobile phone for business, as Figure 6.4 confirmed. Rural female entrepreneurs lack the skills to operate mobile technology and this is critical in Uganda (Kiconco *et al.*, 2020), where the use of mobile applications is still problematic, and where illiteracy levels are high (Wyche and Steinfield, 2019). The use of mobile phones for business is still very low for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Figure 6.5 show only 49 women used their mobile phones for business.

Figure 6.4: Business Use of Mobile Phone by Rural Female Entrepreneurs



Source: Author.

Rural women often use rudimentary methods to communicate, but due to their lack of skills in reading and managing technology, many rural women are not able to use their mobile phones and a lack of access to Internet is a challenge. There is still a gap in terms of technological compliance among rural female entrepreneurs. Research has shown that rural female entrepreneurs can compete globally in their businesses if they embrace technology (Komunte, 2015).

In conclusion, the results from entrepreneurial activities have shown that women's businesses are important in creating and increasing employment opportunities and fuelling economic growth in the economy. The results show that the highest number of women were working in the agribusiness, while others were shop owners selling all different items in their shops. The reason may be that in Uganda the main activity is based in agriculture and nearly two-thirds of the population are employed in agri-business. Further results show that after training women's psychological factors increased which was a sign of the positive impact from training. While the government has an important role to play in creating economic opportunities in rural communities through creating and

enabling policy environments to support job creation, respondents have shown that the need to establish entrepreneurship training programs for rural female entrepreneurs was high at 76%.

6.6. FOCUS GROUPS

The main aim of the focus groups in this study related to the researcher's need to listen to participants' stories and their lived experiences which were not captured in the surveys. The researcher needed to interpret the previously obtained survey findings that were unclear, in addition to further exploring women's opinions and their attitudes towards entrepreneurship training and their entrepreneurial activities. The lack of clarity mainly related to the following three areas: (I) Knowledge and competence skills that women had gained; (II) Emancipation (the researcher needed to observe more about the women's feelings and attitudes regarding this); and (III) Their stories and experiences about their entrepreneurial activities. Therefore, the stories of the women were recorded, the women were observed while discussing their points to understand what these rural women experienced before the training and while starting their businesses, along with understanding the barriers they faced as they started their businesses.

Furthermore, the focus groups were useful as the researcher obtained in-depth information regarding individual members and their feelings, as they discussed some detailed information that had not been covered through the surveys. As Morgan (2018) suggested, the main purpose of focus groups is the explicit use of the group interaction to produce data and insights that would be less accessible without such group interaction. The researcher was able to observe the participant's body language and other non-verbal communication, which could not be achieved through the survey. Through focus group discussions, the researcher learned about the participants' perceptions regarding themselves and their entrepreneurial activities. However, a few participants found it difficult to express themselves, as English was not their first language. Thus, the use of

an interpreter was critical during the meeting to interpret for the researcher and for the women participating.

6.6.1 Demographics on Focus Groups

The demographics and other characteristics of individual women indicate the data profiles of those who participated in the focus groups. These 14 rural women were part of the 298 who were surveyed during the three phases of the surveys (before training, after training and after four months). Table 6.8 shows that the researcher ensured an acceptable level of inclusiveness, indicating that the sample represented various groups (in terms of age, marital status, educational status, job description/profession and number of children). The number of participants per focus group was 7, giving a combined total of 14 respondents who participated in the focus groups (as two focus group meetings were conducted) and Table 6.8 shows the profile of the participants.

Table 6.8: Profiles of Focus Group Participants

Focus Group 1						
No.	Pseudonym	Age	Marital status	Education	Job	No. of children
1	Aidah	46	Married	None	Agri	7
2	Agnes	28	Married	Primary	Agri	2
3	Juliana	34	Married	Primary	Shop	3
4	Jackie	50	Single	None	Road V	9
5	Gana	51	Married	None	Agri	4
6	Hadija	44	Single	None	Agri	5
7	Rebecca	48	Separated	None	Shop	7
Focus Group 2						
8	Akello	64	Widow	None	Agri	10
9	Janet	31	Married	Secondary	Road V	4
10	Angela	46	Single	Secondary	Agri	5
11	Theresa	47	Widow	None	Agri	8
12	Ritah	45	Single	Primary	Agri	5
13	Harriet	29	Married	Primary	Agri	3
14	Monica	65	Separated	None	Agri	9

Source: Current Study.

To avoid bias, an NGO trainer allowed 7 women to volunteer themselves from a Village Savings and Loan Association (VSLA). The total duration per focus group was 1 hour and 40 minutes. All of the volunteered participants had certain characteristics in common

that related to the entrepreneurship training, such as the following: They all received entrepreneurship training; they were all from a VSLA; they were all surveyed three times, although there were differences in the sense that some of the participants had started a business and others had not started a business.

The focus group questions were designed based on the gaps in information or lack of clarity in the surveys and to gather more detailed information regarding the respondents' experiences and the reasons for starting up a business. The questionnaires were divided into three sections, dealing with the following: (I) Entrepreneurship training; (II) emancipation; and (III) Business information. Some of the questions asked at the focus group discussions were as follows:

- (a) Why did you want to be trained in entrepreneurship?
- (b) What were the benefits of entrepreneurship training for you?
- (c) What were your reasons for starting your own business?
- (d) Why did you decide on that particular business?
- (e) Did entrepreneurship training help you to become independent, able to make your own decisions, with freedom to start your own business? How?
- (f) Who makes decisions in the business?
- (g) What would you consider as the biggest challenge you faced while starting and running your business?

All questions listed above were answered by the contributors at focus group discussions. During the discussion, contributors shared their experiences, and they were very open and honest on how they struggled to start their entrepreneurial activities.

6.6.2 The Results of the Focus Groups

The results show that there are factors which could be considered by rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda when starting a business, such as age. Analysis of the

demographic characteristics of participants in the focus groups show that four women were within the range 25-34, while eight women were aged 45-54 and two women were aged above 64. In this study, older women experienced greater effects on their levels of perceived emancipation after undergoing entrepreneurship training. For example, one woman aged 45 explained:

“With the training [I received], I am empowered to stand on my own and even to manage my home as a woman. I am not depending on my husband. The benefit I got through the entrepreneurship training is that I can now stand on my own; I am independent; I can stand before people and talk with a voice; and then, I can at least have some money, which is just there in the house.”

Women in this age range have the freedom to run their own businesses without refusal from their husbands, who typically have two or three wives.

Although most of the women participating in the focus group felt that owning their own businesses lifted their status in their communities, the young women aged under 24 felt more at risk due to their lack of technical skills, confidence, strong individual involvement and willingness to take risks. They expressed the feeling that they were unable to sustain successful businesses. Nearly all women in the focus groups confirmed that they would embrace further training if offered. One participant claimed the following:

“With the training I received, I know where I am strong or weak while running my business; that is why I appreciated training. When you have no knowledge, you keep on using money anyhow, but when you have knowledge, you plan; you learn how to save; and that is why I would do more training about finance and access to credit if available in our area as it is very hard to access finance in our local communities.”

Many women in the focus groups agreed that women can start a business at any time in their lives. What was missing for many women was training. Entrepreneurship training complements early-stage awareness and it provides the more practical skills that rural

women entrepreneurs require when they are setting up their businesses, such as decision-making skills, along with the freedom to start the business and autonomy as a woman. However, the literature shows that behavioural skills and personality remain malleable, particularly among young adult women (Almlund *et al.*, 2011; Fazekas, 2019).

The focus group discussions showed a greater impact on the emancipation of women between the ages of 45 and 54, as they reported higher independence and autonomy compared to the women aged under 25. One participant aged 48 offered the following during the focus group discussion:

“I remember very well when my husband broke the news that he was leaving me; he never [gave] me [an] explanation, but he had [mentioned] a second wife. This was a blow, as I have seven children, and didn’t know what to do with them. I decided to start a business. I assure you, it has brought a lot of joy in my life. I have money to look after myself and my children. I educate them, and I feel very independent and free to do what I want. I have put in practice what I was taught during the training. The training built my confidence; my life has changed; I feel firm and strong.”

Women in these rural areas have to find other ways to look after their children and themselves, as a lack of steady income affects their livelihood and ability to raise their standard of living. The woman quoted above made a difficult decision when her husband left her. This was driven by necessity, but the woman was happy that she made the decision, due to the need to support her seven children. She could provide them with education, attaining financial independence and freeing her from poverty.

Rural women are resourceful economic agents who contribute to the income of families and the growth of communities in a multitude of ways when they decide to start their new entrepreneurial activities. Many women, apart from getting trained in business techniques and market development, also need to be trained about the importance of marketing their produce, as many of them are engaged in agricultural ventures. Many women involved in the discussion claimed that they lacked management training,

particularly at the individual and community levels, as there were no organised business support services. A lack of finance and marketing skills were the most worrying issues for the rural women.

The study found that only a small number of women had attained higher education. Most of the women had some primary education, while others had none. Regarding the factor of marital status, some married women experienced a negative environment with their husbands, and a number of these women explained that many women face multiple kinds of oppression; one woman offered the following:

“The challenge is that, in our area, we have late markets. Our markets always start late from 6:00 till late. Our husbands question us all the time: why [are] we coming back late? They will say “Eeehh, you have been with someone, another man. Why are you late?” This makes us women feel unequal, oppressed and dominated by men. In the end, there are no sales, because you are afraid of domestic violence [if] you come back late from the market. These men [our husbands], they beat us when we come back late from the markets to sell our products. This is oppression from our men. We need freedom from them.”

The result showed that many women are married but claim that marriage leads to an unequal status and some women preferred single life to being married. Contributors stated that they face many challenges with their husbands/partners. For example, some contributors said that they encounter oppression, with no freedom in their homes, facing domestic violence and not being allowed to go to the market to sell their products. Married women were viewed as being less fortunate than single women in terms of their entrepreneurial activities, as some of their husbands were a hindrance to the business as some of the contributors expressed their views. Other forms of marital status, such as being a widow and being separated were also discussed.

In terms of occupation, many women involved in the focus group discussions explained that their businesses were in the agricultural sector. In Uganda, agriculture is

the main economic activity, employing two-thirds of the population and generating 25% of the gross domestic product. Given that many enterprises are in the agricultural sector and many rural women are based in agriculture, there is a need to move beyond the current descriptive focus on individual female farmers' skills and characteristics. One of the participants (the head of a cooperative) stated:

“Most of us women in rural communities, we are into agri-business. We focus mainly on agriculture, as we were born on the land [on which] we are growing and doing our businesses. Some of us, we are life processors; we make honey, butter, and grow maize, and we are trying to process these products for profits.”

These women are empowered through their entrepreneurial activities, while the findings show that they work long hours – between 45 and 91 hours per week – and earn less than men because of the unequal markets and networks.

Many women in agri-business are disadvantaged in their enterprises due of the lack of markets. However, this is changing, as they have started working in cooperatives and women are becoming leaders of these cooperatives as Jackie explained:

2We are empowered through our businesses, and we empower others. The women we support through cooperatives, they have businesses [that] range from small to medium enterprise[s]. Some are in poultry, chia, sunflower oil, and others [are] in [the] clothes sector. Other women are in informal businesses, as they sell their products in markets around them, and a small number are manufacturers. Cooperatives do support everyone in terms of getting markets and price bargaining power for all our products.”

However, as women continue to engage in entrepreneurial activities within the agri-business sector, many of them are still in subsistence farming. The number of women involved in entrepreneurial activities has grown in Uganda, although significant disparities remain with respect to poverty levels. Contributors expressed having great motivation while starting their entrepreneurial activities as Agnes stated:

“I am single, with five children, and started my business to support my children. I am making money to educate my children, and I feel happy and [am] getting wealthy. I do my own plans; I have my young sister to help me with childcare; and I am not worried that if I had a husband, he will fall in love with my young sister. So, my business has given me more freedom; I have what I need, and I am independent; and I feel am powerful in my community.”

The contributor admitted that she relied on her younger sister as she was not worried about having a husband who would fall in love with her sister. This participant felt freer and more independent without a husband. Other women expressed more freedom when they had their own business, as they make their own money.

In Uganda, patriarchal gender norms still favour men and masculinity, and they deny resources, opportunities and power to women (Lundgren *et al.*, 2019). Results from focus the groups indicate that entrepreneurship training has a positive and significant effect on emancipation. Similar studies such as Ahmad (2013), found that entrepreneurship training is considered one of the key instruments of enhancing the entrepreneurial attitude of both potential and nascent entrepreneurs.

In summary, the focus group discussion was organised to explore some unclear elements that needed further investigation as a follow-up from the surveys. The researcher needed to interpret the women’s opinions, their experiences about entrepreneurship training and their entrepreneurial activities. Further clarity was needed after the three phases of questionnaires around the area of entrepreneurship training and emancipation (the researcher needed to observe more about the women’s feelings and to hear their stories about their entrepreneurial activities). Therefore, the researcher and the research assistant listened to those stories, observed the women while discussing their points to understand what the women experienced before the training and what was the outcome while starting their businesses, along with understanding the barriers they faced as they

started their businesses. For example, two women in the group shared how their husbands had refused them permission to start a business.

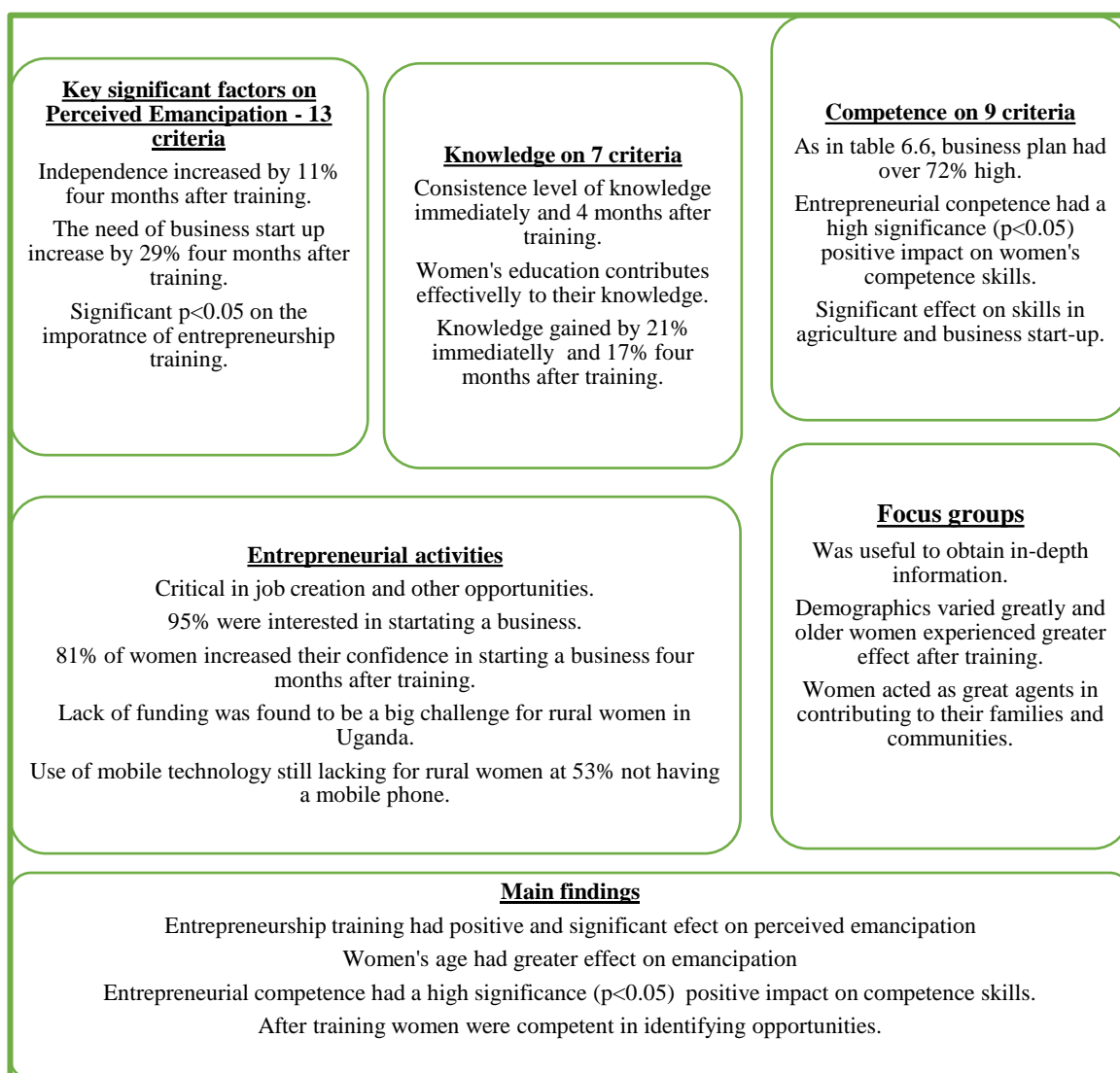
Women discussed their challenges in a collective manner, genuinely and interactively. There was a dynamic participation between the women and a flow of discussion and very useful insights shared by all women. The fact that the women knew each other, was an advantage to expressing their feelings openly, trusting each other as the women wanted to start their own cooperative to access better markets as a group. Focus group results revealed that older women experienced greater effects on their levels of perceived emancipation after undergoing entrepreneurship training. This confirmed the results from the surveys, which stated that older ages from 25 to 54 years have higher entrepreneurial endeavours and hence were more successful than younger counterparts. Also, women who participated in focus group felt that owning their own businesses lifted their status in their communities. However, young women aged under 24 felt more at risk due to their lack of technical skills and lack of confidence to start their own businesses. In brief the outcome of the focus group discussion found that many women who participated in the study were impacted on the lack of entrepreneurship training.

6.7 CONCLUSION

The key finding of the chapter is that entrepreneurship training improves women's business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation in rural Uganda. A quantitative analysis of the data indicated that training has a statistically significant and positive impact on business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation. The results also found that on average their total business knowledge and perceived emancipation scores increased by 0.46 points and 0.22 points after training. The findings are supported by Namatovu *et al.* (2012) who observed that education is a significant contributor to improved women's empowerment, wellbeing and life satisfaction in Uganda. The findings from this study also show that business knowledge, competence

and perceived emancipation continued to increase four months after the training programme finished. Total business knowledge and perceived emancipation scores increased by a further 0.11 points and 0.14 points respectively four months after training. Figure 6. 5 show the key findings of three main themes of the study and the impact of entrepreneurship training at the three different phases, focus group results, entrepreneurial activities and research questions.

Figure 6.5 The Key Findings of the Study



Source: Chapter findings.

It was anticipated that the level of business knowledge and perceived emancipation may have decreased 4 months after the programme was delivered due to issues such as lack of

practice. However, it was interesting to find that the impact had continued to increase positively 4 months after entrepreneurship training finished. Ahmad (2013) stated that education may have a lasting effect on an individual's life which may improve their life satisfaction and labour market performance after education is completed. This is also supported by the positive response from the focus groups regarding the impact of training on their business knowledge and perceived emancipation which in turn positively impacted upon their entrepreneurial activities. As they were able to generate their own income and feel stronger about themselves, the women felt less threatened by their husbands and they ensured that their children would be nourished and received an education.

This chapter found that starting a new business was more appealing among the women between 24 to 34 years, with 25.3% and between 35 to 44 years with 21.0%. The reasons for the higher rate of starting a business at that age may be for a few reasons: (I) Women in this age group may have developed enough independence and competence to manage their new businesses through their work experience; (II) Due to their experience, they may have recognised business opportunities related to their experiences and gained independence, freedom and some knowledge to be self – employed; and (III) They have some resources such as capital, network and access to financial resources to start their own business. Together these two age categories made-up more than 50% of all rural women that were surveyed in the study. The conclusion drawn from the present study regarding the main questions/objectives are discussed in Chapter Seven.

**CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND
RECOMMENDATIONS**

7.1. INTRODUCTION

It is easy to draw conclusion regarding the challenges, barriers and the lack of education and training for rural female entrepreneurs. However, it is harder to offer solutions and to bridge the gender gaps to emancipate rural female entrepreneurs. This concluding chapter set out to answer the research questions and offers some tentative suggestions and recommendations that the study exposed. The reader is reminded that this study centred on one district of Kiryandongo, so it is important to treat this research as a conceptual perspective which has not been exhaustively studied in other regions in Uganda. There are still research gaps which require both empirical and theoretical attention. The debate is still ongoing regarding the contribution of entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Therefore, many other rural female entrepreneurs in other districts may not speculate similar views, opinions and challenges in relation to entrepreneurship training and perceived emancipation as those from Kiryandongo district.

This chapter presents the objectives/questions of the study, a conceptual framework which is drawn from the literature and the overall findings of the study. The overall contributions are discussed such as: Conceptual framework, contribution to entrepreneurship training, contribution to gender lens, and contribution to the context (Uganda) and rural female entrepreneurs. The chapter offers what policymakers can learn from this study, (i.e. entrepreneurship training, tailored programmes for rural women, access to credits and funding, agricultural cooperatives for rural women). It also discusses how entrepreneurship trainers and rural women will benefit from this study. Finally, the limitations of the study, future research opportunities and a conclusion are discussed.

7.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The findings in the study shown that entrepreneurship training makes a significantly positive contribution to perceived emancipation to nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. The principal research question that this study asks is: *“How does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation for nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?”* In the study, the impact of entrepreneurship training such as knowledge and competence were examined in detail to identify its effectiveness on the perceived emancipation of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. This section works as a conclusion to discuss the three sub-questions that guided this study through the literature review, data collection and the analysis of the study (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1: Summary of the Research Question and Sub-Questions

No of Question	Proposed Question
Overall Question	How does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
Sub-Question 1	How does entrepreneurship training affect knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?
Sub-Question 2	How is perceived emancipation influenced by knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs?
Sub-Question 3	How does perceived emancipation impact on entrepreneurial activities started amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

Source: Author

Table 7.1 shows the summary of the research questions that guided this study. The three major themes related to this study include: (I) Entrepreneurship training; (II) Emancipation; and (III) Entrepreneurial activities. Under the quantitative method, a cohort of 298 randomly selected nascent rural female entrepreneurs from the Kiryandongo region of Uganda took part in a specific entrepreneurship training programme that was delivered by an NGO in Uganda. The quantitative findings for this study came from: The three stages of surveys (before entrepreneurship training was

delivered, immediately after entrepreneurship training was delivered and four months after entrepreneurship training had finished). The qualitative findings came from the two focus groups and findings through the focus groups showed that entrepreneurship training does make a huge contribution to perceived emancipation. This study sets out to answer the key research questions.

7.2.1. Overall question to the study: How does entrepreneurship training contribute towards perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

The key results of this study indicated that entrepreneurship training has a positive and significant effect on emancipation. Regression results revealed that the training had a positive and statistically significant effect on emancipation. This means that participating in the entrepreneurship training programme improves the emancipation level by approximately 14 points. Ahmad (2013) found that entrepreneurship training is considered one of the key instruments to enhance the entrepreneurial attitude of both potential and nascent entrepreneurs.

In this study, older women experienced greater effects on their levels of perceived emancipation after undergoing entrepreneurship training, which suggests that knowledge had a greater impact on older women's wellbeing. For example, one woman aged between 45 and 54 years-old explained: *"With the training [I received], I am empowered to stand on my own and even to manage my home as a woman. I am not depending on my husband. The benefit I got through the entrepreneurship training is that I can now run my business on my own; I am independent; I can make decisions and then, I can at least have some money, and do what I want to do. I can live my life happy."* Women in this age range have the freedom to run their own businesses without interruption from their husbands, who typically had multiple wives.

Although most of the women participating in the focus groups felt that owning their own businesses lifted their status in their communities, the young women aged under

24 years-old felt more at risk due to their lack of technical skills, confidence, strong individual involvement and willingness to take risks, and they expressed the feeling that they were unable to sustain successful businesses. Nearly all women in the focus groups confirmed that they would embrace further training if offered. Many women in the focus groups agreed that women can start a business at any time in their lives. What was missing for many women was the availability of training programmes. The challenge for policymakers is to determine how they can provide additional training programmes across rural areas of Uganda that can support the growth of rural female entrepreneurs.

7.2.2. Sub-Question 1: How does entrepreneurship training affect knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

Knowledge and competence were both key sections of this study due to the reason that knowledge and competence continues to be an overwhelming challenge to women entrepreneurs as this study posits. The effectiveness of the entrepreneurship training programme is reflected in increased business knowledge of respondents before the training, immediately after training and four months after training, as presented in section 6.5 (knowledge) and 6.6 (competence). The literature review in Chapter Two suggested that entrepreneurship can be taught through training (Prochazkova, 2014; Hynes, 1996) and the aim of entrepreneurial training may be to develop specific knowledge and skills relating to entrepreneurship (Sinkovec, 2013). The study has revealed that a respondent's knowledge to expand the business greatly improved by 12% immediately after entrepreneurship training and decreased to 7%, four months after training.

A further result of the study suggested that additional effort to invest in women's knowledge may be required, as exemplified in the women's determination to increase their knowledge for business. For example, authors such as McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) argued that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training seems to be limited, because entrepreneurial success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action, but of

constant training to access knowledge and the development of new ideas and opportunities. Balan and Metcalfe (2012) argued that entrepreneurship training is not only about the transfer of knowledge, but also about the ability to discover new opportunities.

A challenge presented was a lower level of education/training for the rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda due to cultural factors that discourages women against obtaining higher levels of education. Quality early education is an essential part of one's childhood and this is particularly true for girls as it creates an atmosphere where poverty is mitigated in later years, delayed marriages and greater opportunities for entrance into the labour market (Power, 2014). Age and marital status found no statistical effect on knowledge. In terms of education, vocational education has a positive and statistically significant effect on knowledge. Power (2014) found that due to cultural factors, women are often discouraged or not incentivised to obtain higher levels of education. Power (2014) highlighted that literate women are better able to care for themselves, their families and participate in economic and social change in the society. Nevertheless, discriminatory social values (including early marriages and domestic chores) result in visible gender disparity in education and training in Uganda, hence a lack of knowledge (Kyejjusa *et al.*, 2016). Women with more than 10 children experienced a significantly negative effect on their knowledge. In terms of job type, women working in agriculture, small business and road vending have a statistically significant effect on business knowledge than those not working or housewives.

These results revealed that entrepreneurial competence had a significantly positive impact of ($p < 0.05$) on improving respondents' competence skills. It was observed that entrepreneurship training had a positive impact on respondents' demographic factors, such as competence skills in agriculture, small businesses and road vendor businesses, and secondary education, showing a highly significant positive contribution to respondents' skills. The observed phenomena could be explained by the

fact that some women had started businesses and had the desire to gain more skills. This study found that rural female entrepreneurs who had the training were competent in identifying and recognising new opportunities to create viable businesses as the focus group discussions confirmed. One contributor stated, *“with the training I received, I can know which business is best for me and I can plan and run my business; that is why I appreciated training. When you have skills and you are competent in what you want to do, you try all what you can to be successful in your business.”* It was observed that contributors at the focus group discussions appreciated the business plan training and assessment that was carried out after the training.

Therefore, entrepreneurship training which provides entrepreneurial skills constitutes an important complementary factor that empowers women to make use of a flexible business environment that can lead to an increase in business start-ups. Another example in this study was that an increase in perceived barriers index had a statistically significant negative effect on competence. The results show that when the perceived barriers index increases by one-unit, business competence index falls by 0.352. Age is statistically insignificant in this analysis; therefore, it has no effect on the competence index. In terms of education, secondary education has a positive and statistically significant effect on competence. The study highlights that entrepreneurship training complements early-stage awareness and it provides practical skills that rural female entrepreneurs require when they are setting-up their businesses.

7.2.3. Sub-Question 2: How is perceived emancipation influenced by knowledge and competence amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs?

With the increasing number of rural women entering entrepreneurial activities, their conventional role in society has changed with the growing economic leverage they have mastered (Islam and Ahmad, 2020). It has been established that knowledge and competence are effective in promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes

that result in perceived emancipation and therefore increased entrepreneurial activities for women (Martin *et al.*, 2013). However, there is a lack of comprehension regarding the extent to which training has a positive influence on entrepreneurial knowledge (Gielnik *et al.*, 2017) and there is a specific need for research to examine how entrepreneurship training (knowledge and competence) influence perceived emancipation for rural female entrepreneurs (Martinez *et al.*, 2010).

Rural female entrepreneurs have developed their managerial skill, knowledge and adaptability in the difficult times to take-up new business ventures and turned them into a success story where men had dominated the sectors. Gender has been reorganised as an important variable influencing the experiences of various actors such as rural women entrepreneurs (Sesan *et al.*, 2019). Nevertheless, existing research on gender differentiated experiences of rural women is still inadequate at the local level (Riisgaard *et al.*, 2010). However, knowledge and competence has been shown to influence the perceived emancipation of individuals (Biesta, 2012), since educated individuals gain knowledge and competences that improve their wellbeing (Singh, 2017).

There is recognition that women's representation can be physically present at the table but have less influence over the outcome of their presence (Mendelberg *et al.*, 2016). It is therefore important to tease out the value that is added to women, particularly by their participation in entrepreneurship training and in entrepreneurial activities. Lack of entrepreneurship training was reported by nearly all respondents surveyed in this study. For example, high levels of absence regarding education are found in region of Kiryandongo. While the number of women involved in entrepreneurial activities has increased in Uganda, significant disparities remain with respect to poverty levels, the lack of employment opportunities and women's access to productive resources and land as suggested by Kyrgidou and Petridou (2013).

Evidence from the literature review suggested that entrepreneurs who accumulate entrepreneurial training prove higher commitment to stay in and grow their businesses as they show a greater level of perceived emancipation, skills set and confidence (Moodley, 2017). Results from this study found that some factors such as customer care, communication and business planning respondents had high means 4 months after training. This indicated good results in skills as respondents highlighted of their competence and feeling confident in getting to their customers and increased their profitability in the business. For example, in terms of the effectiveness of training on women's perceived emancipation, one woman at a focus group discussion said: *"The need of training to get more knowledge in business and how to manage my own business, care for my customers and how to support myself on my own was the best training I have received"*. Another woman said, *"The reason why I started my business was because my husband married me and after one year, he decided to leave me and went for another woman. I was left without any support, I have children, so I decided to start my business and I am the happiest woman to take that decision."* Such testimonies also demonstrated the existence of a gendered division of education in Uganda as many of the women on the programme saw entrepreneurship as a way to avoid impending marriage, therefore, emancipation for rural female entrepreneurs.

7.2.4. Sub-Question 3: How does perceived emancipation impacts on entrepreneurial activities amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda?

Findings revealed that higher levels of emancipation may lead to better business knowledge and competencies, which improve entrepreneurial activities. During the focus group discussions, it was found that older female entrepreneurs experienced a greater impact on their emancipation. One possible reason for this is because women who are in those age categories are independent, capable of making their own decisions, capable of taking ownership of their business, and have a great deal of experience, as suggested by Gross (2013). The highest significant effect categories were in agricultural businesses,

small businesses and roadside vendors. For example, the high levels of self-employment in these business activities are indicative of the few paid employment opportunities that are available in the country. Studies show that in Uganda, approximately 75% of agricultural producers are rural women. They engage in entrepreneurship at a grass-roots level to generate income, overcome poverty and promote societal and economic advancements (Tobias *et al.*, 2013).

Many women in Uganda are involved and employed in agricultural businesses as their main economic activity. This sector employs two-thirds of the population and generating 25% of the gross domestic product. Therefore, many women run their entrepreneurial activities in the agricultural sector and there is a need to move beyond the current descriptive focus on individual female farmers skills and characteristics. One of the participants (the head of a cooperative) stated: *“Most of us women in rural communities, we are into agri-business. We focus mainly on agriculture, as we were born on the land [on which] we are growing and doing our businesses. Some of us, we are life processors; we make honey, butter, and grow maize, and we are trying to process these products for profits.”* These women are emancipated through their entrepreneurial activities. However, the findings show that they work long hours – between 45 and 91 hours per week – and earn less than men because of the unequal markets and networks by women.

Many women in agri-business are disadvantaged in their enterprises because of the lack of markets. This is changing however, as they have started working in cooperatives and women are becoming leaders of these cooperatives as Jackie explained: *“We are emancipated through our entrepreneurial activities, and we support others. The women we support through cooperatives, they have businesses [that] range from small to medium enterprise[s]. Some are in poultry, chia, sunflower oil, and others [are] in [the] clothes sector. Other women are in informal businesses, as they sell their products*

in markets around them, and a small number are manufacturers. Cooperatives do support everyone in terms of getting markets and price bargaining power for all our products.”

As women continue to engage in entrepreneurial activities within the agri-business sector, many of them are still in subsistence farming. The number of women involved in entrepreneurial activities has grown in Uganda, although significant disparities remain with respect to poverty levels.

A further result confirmed that when a woman has many children, this affects the start-up of women’s entrepreneurial activities. For example, the number of children had a significantly negative effect of ($p < 0.05$) on women taking ownership of their entrepreneurial activities, meaning that more children and engagement in agricultural business tend to limit women to take charge of their businesses. Reasons might include respondents expressing their constraints with regard to household chores, lack of childcare and domestic responsibilities being barriers to women’s entrepreneurial activities. Many women are pushed into entrepreneurial activities because of a need to survive or to enhance their livelihoods in rural communities. As a result, Isaga (2019) suggested that the majority of rural female entrepreneurs have low aspirations for growing their entrepreneurial activities to avoid neglecting family issues. As it was discussed in the literature review and the analysis in Chapter Six, this study produced a conceptual framework in support of the contribution to new knowledge as explained further in the Chapter.

7.3. CONTRIBUTION TO NEW KNOWLEDGE

This study used quantitative and qualitative data sets to allow the integration of results. These results provided the three main themes to achieve the objective of the study: Entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and entrepreneurial activities, as discussed in Chapter Six. From the three main areas of the study, a conceptual framework

was generated that has contributed new knowledge from this study. This new framework has the 13 key criteria of perceived emancipation that were extracted from different aspects of the literature review. The theme of entrepreneurship as a process was also taken up by Rindova *et al.* (2009), who suggested a perspective that involved “entrepreneurship-as-emancipation.” The emancipatory approach highlights the freeing or emancipatory process from the 13 key criteria extracted in this study in support of the rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, along with the results of new ventures and job creators as suggested by Rindova *et al.* (2009).

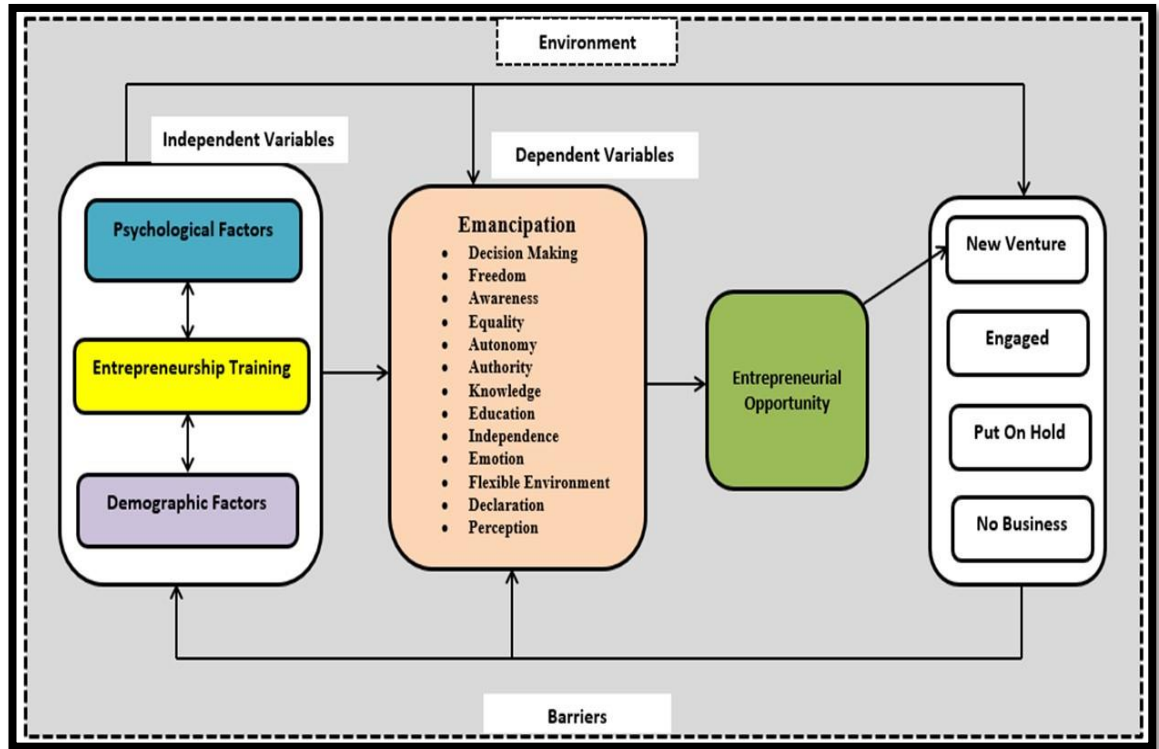
Furthermore, Verduijn *et al.* (2014) identified four interpretations of emancipation along two axis (utopian-dystopian and heterotopian-paratopian) and related these to various strands of critical entrepreneurship research to provide a framework from which others could build. For instance, the emancipatory elements in the framework indicate an overarching framework that brings together individuals (women entrepreneurs), opportunities (environmental conditions) and modes of organising (new ventures), which demonstrates that the concept of emancipation is a complex phenomenon. However, this study explored the relationship between entrepreneurship training and suggested that emancipation is still limited. Therefore, the new framework was developed to address the gap in literature and the relationship between entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and new venture creation through the entrepreneurial process.

7.3.1. Conceptual Framework

The literature review and the findings of this study enabled the researcher to propose a conceptual framework to address the highlighted gap in the literature while examining new knowledge. It is also pertinent in explaining the contribution of entrepreneurship training influences perceived emancipation amongst nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Figure 7.1 was derived from the various findings of the literature review and the results of the present study. This is further explained with

reference to the research question and the three sub-questions discussed in Chapter Six, along with the key elements of the findings as explained below.

Figure 7.1: Conceptual Framework that Links Entrepreneurship Training, Perceived Emancipation and RNFE Activities.



Source: Author adapted from literature review and findings.

The framework results presented in figure 7.1 emerged from the exploration of the literature review and the findings of the present study. The main constructs of new knowledge relate to the following factors: Demographic factors, psychological factors, entrepreneurship training, emancipation, opportunities and the outcome of the nascent entrepreneurial process. However, emancipation, entrepreneurship training and entrepreneurial activities had the main role in this study, as they are being discussed throughout the study.

- **Demographic Factors**

Rural female entrepreneurs, as individuals, may discover a variety of opportunities and the ability to exploit the reliance on resources or other means which they have available to them and their environmental factors. However, an individual's

means can greatly vary from one entrepreneur to another. For example, the findings of this study revealed that older women experienced greater effects on their levels of perceived emancipation. Women between 25 and 34 years of age had a 2.5 times greater incidence of emancipation than adult women under 25, and women between 45 and 54 years of age had the highest impact (a 4.8 increase in terms of the index) on emancipation compared to women under 25. Another example is that one entrepreneur could have significantly high financial resources, but may be lacking in education, skills or network resources.

Although skill development (Kuratko and Morris, 2018) and education (Gartner, 1994) may improve emancipation, the results of this study suggested that, apart from vocational training, education has no statistical effect on emancipation. A possible reason is that vocational training is mainly training in relation to practical skills. If women have access to vocational training, this will therefore equip them with necessary skills to become successful entrepreneurs (Madu *et al.*, 2019). Another example from the findings concerns married women who experienced a negative and statistically significant impact on their emancipation levels. Therefore, marriage leads to a 5.6 reduction in the emancipation index compared to single women. Meanwhile other marital status variables have an insignificant effect on the emancipation index. This may be due to cultural and psychological factors through which many rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda are often marginalised due to societal barriers. A further explanation may be due to fewer women reporting any education levels which are greater than those of primary education. It could also be suggested that the entrepreneurial survival rate through the entrepreneurial process is determined by their ability to express judgement and select opportunities relevant to one's means.

- **Psychological Factors**

The literature review and findings of the study were explored further to see how entrepreneurship training makes a positive impact on a woman's life. Some psychological factors were found, such as increased confidence and sense of self-esteem, as well as risk taking. These factors are critical when a woman is starting her entrepreneurial activities. According to Shane (2003) and Ali *et al.* (2019), who suggested that the success of the entrepreneurial activity is determined by an entrepreneur's ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors that affect the individual opportunity. The entrepreneurial activities for the rural female entrepreneurs play a crucial role in the economic development of an individual, family, community and society.

Unfortunately, this study found that many women starting their businesses are faced with a variety of challenges before and after starting their entrepreneurial activities. For example, the findings show that rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda are left behind due to social and cultural values that prevent them from accessing higher education to become entrepreneurs. This poses a significant barrier to many rural women starting a business. In addition, the multiple barriers to entrepreneurship for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda include a lack of access to credit, gender inequality, training needs, networking and a lack of access to knowledge and training.

- **Entrepreneurship Training**

The results from random effects regression of the knowledge model from the findings of this study found that training has a positive and statistically significant effect on knowledge. Training improves the business knowledge index by 3.132, compared to those without training/education. As Balan and Metcalfe (2012) argued, entrepreneurship training is not only about the transfer of knowledge, but also about the ability to discover new opportunities and master venture creation processes to create value at an individual and a community level. The literature review revealed that entrepreneurship training has

been considered one of the key instruments by which to enhance the entrepreneurial attitudes of both potential and nascent entrepreneurs (Ahmad, 2013). The results of the present study found that entrepreneurship training is effective at promoting cognitive and individual motivational outcomes that result in more start-ups.

However, a theoretical understanding of how and why entrepreneurship training exerts a positive influence on entrepreneurial competencies is still limited (Gielnik *et al.*, 2015). There is a need for more research regarding what specific ways training makes a difference for female entrepreneurs (Martinez *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, McKenzie and Woodruff (2014) have argued that the long-term impact of entrepreneurship training seems to be limited, as entrepreneurial success is not the result of a single entrepreneurial action but requires more constant training and a search for opportunities. Further findings from the study reveal that an increase of one unit in the business knowledge index and the business competence index can lead to 6% and 2.7% increases, respectively, in the probability of being an entrepreneur.

Therefore, the results suggest that appropriate entrepreneurship training is a vital factor for enabling more rural female women in Uganda to start their own businesses. Furthermore, the ability to launch and grow a sustainable enterprise demands that an entrepreneur develop certain skills or capabilities. This was confirmed by some women who contributed to the focus groups, stating that women can start a business at any time in their lives. However, what was missing was continuous training. This study found that entrepreneurship training complements early-stage awareness and that it provides more practical skills that rural women entrepreneurs require when they are setting up their businesses. These include decision-making skills, along with the freedom to start the business and be independent.

- **Key Criteria for Emancipation**

The framework utilises the 13 key elements central to the emancipatory process which were identified through a detailed review of relevant literature and findings from this study. These elements play an important role in influencing entrepreneurs' behaviour and decision-making. These elements are used as a basis for the investigation of entrepreneurship training and emancipation among rural nascent female entrepreneurs in Uganda. As discussed earlier, the emancipatory elements indicated in the framework demonstrated that the concept of emancipation is a complex phenomenon which develops value creation at an individual level, since it involves women seeking to improve their knowledge and skill sets to effectively manage their entrepreneurial activities. 'Entrepreneurship', therefore, is understood not only as pursuing opportunities, but also as overcoming and removing perceived constraints. The review of the literature in this study suggested that emancipatory criteria are vital to emancipatory entrepreneurship.

Regression results presented in Chapter Six revealed that the training had a positive and statistically significant effect on emancipation. This means that participating in the entrepreneurship training programme improved the emancipation level by approximately four points. Rae *et al.* (2010) stated that entrepreneurship training is vital for creating an understanding of entrepreneurship, developing entrepreneurial capabilities and contributing to entrepreneurial identities and cultures at an individual level. For example, older female entrepreneurs also experience a greater impact on their emancipation at an individual level.

One possible reason for this is because women who are in those categories of age are independent, capable of making their own decisions, capable of taking ownership of their business, have freedom and have more life experience (Gross, 2013). However, the findings that married women experience lower levels of emancipation than single women were confirmed by Bantebya-Kyomuhendo and McIntosh (2006). Whether women are

starting or running their entrepreneurial activities, the main goal of entrepreneurship training may work as a catalyst to increase women's perceived emancipation by making their own decisions, being independent, having freedom to start their own businesses, supporting their families, offering flexibility in their work and with their families, as well as achieving equality and making them capable of taking ownership of their own businesses.

- **Entrepreneurial Opportunities**

The findings of this study confirmed that women who received entrepreneurship training had increased positive perceptions about themselves. This may have helped them avail of more opportunities and create some new ventures in their communities. that the study also found that the success of the entrepreneurial activity was determined by an entrepreneur's ability to make decisions and to navigate through the internal and external factors that affect individual participants who participated in entrepreneurship training. Therefore, the literature review suggested that the entrepreneurial process is reliant on an opportunity, which may present in many forms. However, not only do entrepreneurial opportunities have to present themselves, an individual or individuals must discover and exploit these opportunities.

The way in which they choose to exploit an opportunity will have an impact on the survival rates of the entrepreneurial venture (Shane, 2003; Bygrave, 2004; Timmons, 2009). The creation of new entrepreneurial activities corresponds to the exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities and leads to the development of economic activities that have a positive effect of job creation and the growth of an economy (Galvão *et al.*, 2019). For this reason, policymakers try to define measures aimed at fostering entrepreneurship, and at the same time, scholars try to identify factors that contribute to explaining new venture creation for business start-ups (for example, Fritsch and Kublina, 2019).

Individuals may discover a variety of opportunities and their ability to exploit is reliant on the resources or means they have available to them. This also contends on the environmental factors, although an individual's means can vary greatly from one entrepreneur to another. Lassalle and McElwee (2016) suggested that many rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda have become entrepreneurs due to the need to survive or to enhance their livelihoods, rather than through opportunity recognition. It has also been determined that the perceptions that women hold regarding themselves, their level of education, work experience, degree of commitment to their ventures and the quality of social and business networks will affect their entrepreneurial activity (Yousafzai *et al.*, 2018). Despite these factors influencing women's entrepreneurial activity in Uganda, little is known about the relationship between entrepreneurship training and business start-ups within such a context.

- **New Venture/Entrepreneurial Activities**

The literature review suggested in Chapter Four that the dynamic of nascent entrepreneurial process can be divided into two major phases: (I) The pre-venture latent phase; and (II) The actual venture phase after the venture has started. Within the pre-venture phase, a distinction exists between those individuals who would like to become self-employed (aspiring entrepreneurs) and those who have taken some action towards becoming self-employed (nascent entrepreneurs) (Reynolds *et al.*, 2004; Davidsson, 2006). Findings in Chapter Six suggested that when women are trained, they are encouraged to start their own businesses in the sector in which they are interested. It also gives them the confidence to make their own decisions when supported with training. Confirming what was found in the literature review, Raposo and Paço (2011) indicated that what is important is to encourage those interested in entrepreneurship activity, to provide them with appropriate entrepreneurship training.

When entrepreneurship training and the positive image of venture creation are presented to learners, they sometimes choose to start a venture. The study found that women generate ideas in areas in which they are interested, and for which they have the passion and ability to start a business. Some may be interested in opening a salon or becoming involved in catering and restaurants, while others may be interested in craft-making or becoming hoteliers. It is important that they decide to engage in a business of their choice, one which suits their passion, interest and capability. Therefore, entrepreneurship training that provides entrepreneurial skills constitutes an important complementary factor that empowers women to make use of a conducive business environment that leads to an increase in entrepreneurship activity.

7.3.2. Contribution to entrepreneurship training

Entrepreneurship training serves as a mechanism for changing the behaviour and attitudes of individual rural female entrepreneurs. This study contributes to the public by offering appropriate entrepreneurship training to female entrepreneurs in rural areas in such a way that it will improve their lives. Yet there is little research available. This dearth of literature is surprising given that international organisations such as the World Bank and the United Nations, as well as governments and enterprise agencies across the globe, have consistently highlighted the benefits of female entrepreneurs (Chell *et al.*, 2010) and their impact on economic growth for many countries. The results of this study are important, as they show the effectiveness of entrepreneurship training as a practical tool of women's emancipation in rural Uganda.

This study contributes to the little existing knowledge available regarding female entrepreneurs' entrepreneurship training which the study has found to be lacking., along with the survival and growth of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. A lack of education among rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda contributes to the poverty levels and unemployment experienced by many rural women in Uganda. This study further found

that 54.3% of respondents had primary education, while 35.7% had never been to school at all. Research shows that more than one third of girls still marry as children and that close to 3 in 10 girls have their first child before turning 18 (Global Gender Gap, 2017). In addition, UNESCO (2015) found, that due to cultural factors, women are often discouraged or not incentivised to go to school or even obtain higher levels of education. However, a proportion of women and girls have experienced education and training, but more needs to be done to bridge the gap regarding girls' education in Uganda. This will in turn address the gender gap in entrepreneurial activities.

7.3.3. Contribution to the Gender Lens

This study explores how women can be enhanced through entrepreneurship. An important area in the gender lens is the gender divide and social practices that discriminates against women in the allocation of resources. This prevents women from realising their full economic potential. Gender issues have been addressed extensively in developed economies. Although the plight of rural women in African economies has also received attention, as suggested by Chirwa (2008) and Isanga (2019). This attention is still difficult to achieve as many rural female entrepreneurs are struggling to start and grow their entrepreneurial activities. Several entrepreneurship programmes have been implemented to address the gender gap in Africa, but there is still a great deal to do if rural female entrepreneurs are to rise to the same living standards as their male counterparts. Some studies found that entrepreneurship programmes and policies which have been proposed and implemented in developed countries to deal with gender issues, may not be successful if replicated in African countries. A full understanding of the related issues would be necessary and tailoring them to the needs of the countries involved, such as Uganda.

The literature review showed that many opportunities have opened entrepreneurial entry for more women to own businesses. However, the gender bias in

entrepreneurial activity has been well-documented in the literature (Brush *et al.*, 2020). Further empirical evidence indicates that almost twice as many men as women become entrepreneurs and that these differences are consistent across countries (Acs *et al.*, 2005). Although there is in-depth literature which have addressed men and women in entrepreneurship, very few studies have used the “lens of gender” as opposed to that of sex (Marlow and Patton 2005). As Fine (2017) noted, the successful entrepreneur does not just have the necessary skills, resources and business connections. He is also a masculine hero who laughs boldly in the face of financial risk. Other stereotypes of entrepreneurs include aggressiveness, risk-taking and autonomy, which contrast with the warm, gentle and communal nature of the feminine role women are expected to play (Ahl, 2006; Fine, 2017).

7.3.4. Contribution to the Context (Uganda)

This study will contribute significantly to Uganda, as there is little existing knowledge regarding the relationship between entrepreneurship training and business start-ups for rural female entrepreneurs. Many rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda start their businesses to support their families and to attain financial independence as the literature review found that, in Uganda, approximately 75% of agricultural producers are rural women (UNCTAD, 2014). They engage in entrepreneurship at a grass-roots level to generate income, overcome poverty, and promote societal and economic advancements. The findings of this study indicated that many rural women-led enterprises in Uganda are small and informal, providing goods and services to mainly local communities. Despite the growing number of rural female entrepreneurs, there is little knowledge about their business practices, the availability of entrepreneurship training, growth strategies and career opportunities (Adeola *et al.*, 2018).

Furthermore, there is a lack of research regarding the contribution that women are making in rural communities and their share of household income (Rijkers and Costa,

2012). Rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda are empowered through their entrepreneurial activities, while the findings of the study revealed that rural women work long hours – between 45 and 91 hours per week – and earn less than men due to the inequality in markets and their networks. Many rural female entrepreneurs in agribusiness are disadvantaged in their enterprises due to the lack of markets. However, this is changing, as they have started working in cooperatives, and women are becoming leaders of these cooperatives. While the number of women involved in entrepreneurial activities has grown in Uganda, significant disparities remain with respect to poverty levels, the lack of entrepreneurship training, the lack of employment opportunities and the lack of women’s access to productive resources and land. Table 7.2 explains clearly the contribution of the study and what it will achieve for future opportunities.

Table 7.2: Research Contribution

Literature Field	Contribution
Entrepreneurship -as-Emancipation	<p>Gap in Literature: Develop a framework to link entrepreneurship training, perceived emancipation and the impact of entrepreneurial activities</p> <p>Proposed Journal: Journal of Entrepreneurship and regional development</p> <p>Contribution: Framework</p> <p>Importance: Developing of the framework to explain the relationship between ET, PE and EA (new ventures)</p>
Entrepreneurship Training	<p>Gap in Literature: Entrepreneurship training to rural female entrepreneurs to support them improve their livelihood and economic growth.</p> <p>Journal Published: Small Enterprise Research The impact of entrepreneurship training on self-employment of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda</p> <p>Book Chapter to be Published: Publishers Routledge The Impact of Entrepreneurship Training on Everyday Experiences of Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda</p> <p>Contribution: Entrepreneurship Training</p> <p>Importance: To improve entrepreneurship knowledge and competence</p>
Rural Female Entrepreneurs	<p>Gap in Literature: Little existing knowledge and studies used the gender lens for rural female entrepreneurs</p> <p>Proposed Target Journal: Journal of Gender Studies</p> <p>Book Chapter to be Published: Evaluating the Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training, Perceived Emancipation and Value Creation for Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda</p> <p>Contribution: Gender lens</p> <p>Importance: Imbalance and social practices that discriminates women in the allocation of resources to realise their full potential as entrepreneurs.</p>
Context – Rural Uganda	<p>Gap in Literature: Understanding of entrepreneurial activities and experiences of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda</p> <p>Proposed Target Journal: Journal of rural studies</p> <p>Contribution: Improvement of existing policies to support rural female entrepreneurs</p> <p>Importance: Support women’s business practice and job creation</p>

Source: Author

The significance of the study's contribution in Table 7.2 is critical for the design and implementation of appropriate policy and the creation of specific entrepreneurship programmes to improve income and the living standard of rural female entrepreneurs, the labour market outcomes and economic development in Uganda.

7.3. WHAT CAN POLICYMAKERS LEARN FROM THIS STUDY?

It is assumed that since governments are in the lead regarding developments for entrepreneurship, they should provide the necessary resources as much as possible. Such resources include the provision of an environment conducive to businesses that support and improve economic growth. Government policies may include any course of action which is aimed at regulating and improving conditions for rural female entrepreneurs.

For example, in Uganda, the lack of some specific law or policy exclusively addressing rural entrepreneurship (Guloba *et al.*, 2017), is a challenge. Studies suggested that entrepreneurship is embedded in several existing policies and laws such as the national gender policy (2007), the national youth policy (2016), the national employment policy (2011), education training strategy plan (2015- 2020) (Guloba *at al.*, 2017). Through the feedback from the respondents and the contributors of focus groups, the study may provide some potential solutions the government can put in place to improve entrepreneurship training programmes, markets, access to finance and other resources for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda.

- **Entrepreneurship Education/Training**

A lack of education for many rural women in Uganda is a huge challenge for start-up businesses, as the findings revealed. Differences in education and training between females and males is an area requiring government intervention. These differences result from inequalities and imbalance in the distribution of resources and skills, so the need for the government to intervene is critical. Rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda have limited

access to entrepreneurship training, financial services and other required resources for business start-up and growth. The findings of this study show that many women are pushed into entrepreneurial activities due to the need to survive or to enhance their livelihoods in rural communities. Better policies will need to consider the knowledge and skills women need for their emancipation, attitudes and approaches to start-ups and the growth of women's businesses in rural communities. Policies should encourage rural women to participate in the entrepreneurial phenomenon, their contribution to economic growth and learn new skills for the development of their communities.

- **Tailored Training Programmes for Rural Women**

Both governments and agencies can address the causes of women's lower performance directly through tailored training programmes and support services that assist rural female entrepreneurs with improving their business management skills. These programmes will particularly cater to those women who have never had any reading or writing training. This tailored training will improve access to resources, managerial skills and technical skills required to compete on an equal footing with males and other urban female entrepreneurs. For example, 54.3% of respondents had primary education, while more than 35.7% had no education at all. It is interesting to note that many women with no education have a high rate of start-up businesses. The reason for that may be necessity, as many rural women start their businesses to support basic needs such as, education for their children, health and food for the family.

- **Access to Credit and Funding**

In order to ensure access to resources, particularly the credit that this study has found difficult to access, the government can support rural female entrepreneurs with credit policy intervention that lends to groups of women or cooperatives, rather than individual women. In this way, the cooperative or group can use peer pressure, responsive disbursement mechanisms and group savings as cash collateral to guarantee and ensure

repayments, as this is a difficult factor for many rural female entrepreneurs. There is gender discrimination when women are seeking to access external finance for their business development (Jennings and Brush, 2013). This is due to the fact that women often have limited access to formal education, the ownership of property and social mobility. All of which limit their access to finance, especially in the form of banks and micro-finance. Other reasons include a lack of collateral or micro-financing bodies that are unwilling to accept household assets as collateral, in addition to the perception that entrepreneurial activity is a career for men, not women. Therefore, policymakers need to find ways of supporting rural female entrepreneurs.

- **Agricultural Cooperatives for Rural Women**

Rural women farmers will be trained, work or engage in small entrepreneurial agricultural activities in order to work, train, build markets, network and save money together in cooperatives. Therefore, through policymakers, the government may assist in improving women's cooperatives to support their entrepreneurial activities in Uganda. The appropriate policy intervention can spur on economic development by supporting rural female entrepreneurs with resources and skills (new enterprise model) that they need to start and grow their entrepreneurial activities.

- **Strengthen Gender Policy**

Policy measures related to female entrepreneurs are found across multiple ministries and departments in Uganda. Commitment to female economic empowerment has been expressed at the higher level of the Ugandan government. However, there is a need for a new policy for female entrepreneurs, as women lag behind men in terms of business ownership and growth in access to resources. While women's businesses differ from men's in terms of their nature, location, type and operation. The gender policy across the government of Uganda is the Gender Policy 2007 (UGP), under the mandate of the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD). Another policy is the

National Trade Policy 2007, which promotes the creation of opportunities, along with the National Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Policy (Draft 2011) and others that were discussed in Chapter Four. However, some of these policies only provide general guidelines, and are constrained by inadequate funding and a lack of senior staff with power to influence decisions in enforcing these policies (Mugabi, 2014).

Future government programmes which emphasise the status of female entrepreneurs as equal partners in society have not been put in place. Such a policy could emphasise the integration of women in all the entrepreneurship programmes and initiatives. Women representatives from rural communities should be key stakeholders in the crafting and implementation of these programmes. This will increase the reception and application of the skills required and acquired by rural women. Many rural female entrepreneurs, particularly those with lower literacy levels and those living in rural areas, tend to lack awareness of their rights and lack the freedom to make decisions and seek economic alternatives.

More advocacy and awareness are crucial throughout all of the training programmes. Furthermore, women's advocacy groups may be encouraged to participate in consultative forums in key policy and legislative processes for their voices to be heard. It would be worthwhile for women to appeal to government for policies in areas of equal opportunities in business, in particular education and training, access to funding from banks, domestic violence and child maintenance laws. Therefore, the creation of, and support for, infrastructure to encourage women's business development and innovation is perceived as a justifiable investment in the future economic prosperity of Uganda.

- **Mobile Phone Technology Support for Rural Women**

The present study found that rural women are reluctant to use their mobile phone for business. The study found that 53.7% of respondents do not have a mobile phone, while only 18 percent of women use their mobile phones for business. Studies found that rural

female entrepreneurs lack the skills to operate mobile technology in Uganda (Kiconco *et al.*, 2020). The use of mobile applications is still problematic and illiteracy levels are high with so many women in rural communities.

In conclusion, there is overwhelming evidence that policy intervention is urgently required to address the needs of rural female entrepreneurs, particularly in terms of improving their access to resources that are discussed in this section. Entrepreneurship training is critical, the adoption of technologies for improving their agricultural productivity and marketing is another area that policymakers needs to explore further. Raising rural women's incomes through improved access to agricultural technologies for example, mobile phone marketing technologies that has a higher multiplier effect and raising the nutritional security of their families are critical to improving the living standards of rural women in Uganda.

7.4. WHAT CAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINERS AND PARTICIPANTS BENEFIT FROM THIS STUDY?

Although this study was mainly focused on respondents and participants of the entrepreneurship training programme, the study found that there is a significant gap of knowledge between entrepreneurship training providers and the learners in regards to training. Many entrepreneurship providers need to understand what exactly rural female entrepreneurs require in their training. This is a result of many trainers lacking the practical managerial experience necessary for when a woman is starting and running a business. This study addressed trainers and providers of entrepreneurship training and found the following, which will benefit the trainers as discussed in this section.

- **Benefits to the trainers:**

Many rural female entrepreneurs require training as they are marginalised in rural communities and cannot afford to pay for entrepreneurship training programmes, which leads to high failure rates for business start-ups among rural women (Boman and

Walfridsson, 2020). Trainers suggested that entrepreneurship training is vital for creating an understanding of rural women's roles in entrepreneurial activities and contributing to the economic growth of the country at individual, collective and societal levels. Results of the study found that trainers' skills and experiences play a critical role in supporting trainees to learn and put into practice what they have learned. Along with new models of entrepreneurship which are needed to improve the entrepreneurship training programmes in Uganda.

Through focus group discussions, it was revealed that some training is carried out with urban female entrepreneurs, but there is no government intervention in entrepreneurship training for rural women. There has been little to no research conducted regarding rural women. However, some NGOs are delivering short entrepreneurship programmes, but there is a need for well-organised entrepreneurship programmes at the national level. In summary, trainers learned that new models of entrepreneurship are required to improve the entrepreneurship training programmes in Uganda. This was supported by authors such as Cooney and Murray (2008) along with Lyons *et al.* (2019) who suggested that a distinctive model of entrepreneurship training is required to illustrate the difference between teaching entrepreneurship education and conventional teaching approaches that may be used in other areas of business. However, this study recommends new research on the assessment of entrepreneurship training in Uganda.

- **Benefits to the Participants**

This section explains briefly how participants may benefit from this study. Results show that more than 80% of participants started their entrepreneurial activities after the entrepreneurship training finished. One of the reasons was that training had improved their knowledge and competence about their business start-ups. A further result from the study revealed that the training had a positive and statistically significant effect on emancipation for rural women entrepreneurs. This means that participating in the

entrepreneurship training programme improved the emancipation level by approximately 4 points, which led to an improvement in decision-making and increased rates of business start-ups and job creation to many women and casual workers. Participants expressed that their improved knowledge in finance empowered them to have confidence in accessing loans from their village loan and savings association or from a micro-finance scheme, with collateral.

Many nascent rural women who participated in the training programme experienced a 1.1-point reduction in the perceived barriers, on average. The reasons for a reduction in perceived barriers included that entrepreneurship training served as a mechanism for changing the behaviour and attitudes of individual female entrepreneurs. To conclude, the training offered women appropriate entrepreneurship training to improve their lives. And the results from this study indicated that entrepreneurship training may have reduced the perceived societal barriers faced by rural women in Uganda due to the effectiveness of entrepreneurship training that promoted their individual motivation which increased their entrepreneurial activities. Gielnik *et al.* (2016) found that training leads to skills accumulation and better knowledge in entrepreneurship performance.

7.5. Limitations of the study

Although the results of this study make an important contribution to the entrepreneurship literature regarding the contribution of entrepreneurship training to the emancipation of nascent rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, there are some limitations that need to be acknowledged, as detailed below.

- **Generalisation:** The study focused on one region, Kiryandongo District. This might not be generalisable to other locations in the country.
- **Sample size:** The sample size of this study was 298 women, which yielded 894 observations, but more accurate results may be achieved from a larger sample size.

- **Training programme:** Although the training programme, which lasted for a week, was developed and implemented by a professional body. More frequent or continuous training may have a greater impact on women's entrepreneurship activity in Uganda. While training programme participants were interviewed four months after the training, there may be a delayed effect of training on entrepreneurial activity, as it may take longer for some respondents to fully realise the benefits of the training programme, and so they may start their businesses at a later date.
- **Language:** This was a challenge to the researcher, as she could not understand the language. However, the research enumerators were capable of translating into English, and some respondents were able to speak English or Luganda, both of which the researcher understood.
- **Expensive/costly:** The research was expensive, as the researcher had to travel to Uganda twice for six weeks. A further cost related to the seven research enumerators who had to be paid for their hours supporting the researcher as so many dialects are used in the district.
- **Bias:** Finally, the researcher is aware that, as a native of Uganda, where the research was conducted, some assumptions about women's activities with regard to their businesses may have infiltrated the study. However, this would have been counteracted by the researcher's ability to discuss and interact, as the respondents were free to share their experiences and trusted the researcher without fear.

The limitations listed above do not in any way render less significant the results and findings of the study. They are presented to acknowledge their existence and to stress the need for further research in this area.

7.6. FUTURE RESEARCH OPPORTUNITIES

This study recommends that rural women use the key criteria of emancipation to be independent and make informed decisions in support of their entrepreneurial activities with confidence, as they are the pillars of their families, communities and society. Further investigation for future research relates to the following:

- **Continuous Entrepreneurship Training Programmes:** The findings of this study indicated the effectiveness of training during a one-week period, but more robust results may be obtained from examining the impact of continuous training on rural female entrepreneurial activities over a longer time period.
- **Training Models:** The research framework developed for this study may be expanded and modified to include the entrepreneurship ecosystems to support the rural female entrepreneurs to expand their businesses.
- **Other regions/A larger sample:** Considering the findings and limitations of this study, further research may examine women's entrepreneurial activities in Uganda by utilising a larger sample of women from different regions in Uganda.
- **Types or sectors of business:** Further research may also explore in more detail the types of businesses that women establish after participating in business-related training or educational schemes in Uganda.
- **Comparison study on rural and urban women entrepreneurs:** The findings of the study represented rural female entrepreneurs; it would be valuable to conduct a comparative study with urban female entrepreneurs, to investigate the opportunities and barriers faced by both groups. The study could also be replicated in other regions, including urban and rural localities.
- **To establish a Competitive Start-Up and growth fund targeted at female entrepreneurs in Uganda.** While much has been explained and offered recommendation about female entrepreneurs in Uganda on what should be done

to support female entrepreneur's business start-ups, a long-term action plan is needed to establish a competitive start-up and growth fund to have the female entrepreneur's business grow to support themselves and their families.

Finally, this study fills the gap in literature regarding the impact of entrepreneurship training on perceived emancipation of female entrepreneurs in Uganda, along with the impact on their independence and business knowledge as discussed through the framework. The results from the analysis suggested that women found the training programme beneficial and that it improved their personal life and their entrepreneurial activities. Furthermore, this research may be valuable to policymakers who are seeking to improve the economic performance and living standards of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda. Therefore, more effective policies aimed at improving women's attainment and entrepreneurship training across Uganda may be considered given the results of this study. Additional research in this area may consider other forms of training or the impact of the training over a longer period of time.

7.7. CONCLUSION

This study provided previously unavailable evidence on the impact of entrepreneurship training on business knowledge, competence and perceived emancipation amongst rural women in Uganda. While the results of the study demonstrate the positive influence of entrepreneurship training on small businesses, this may be partially explained by the fact that the participants were eager to learn more in order to improve their businesses and joining the programme demonstrated their desire to change. Additionally, gender disparities in agriculture remains a major challenge for many rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda because they do not own their land and therefore have limited access to resources (Kristjanson *et al.*, 2017). This situation is likely to be quite different in developed countries and highlights the distinctive nature of the barriers that rural women in Uganda face when seeking to start their own entrepreneurial activities.

Therefore, more effective policies aimed at improving educational attainment and training of women across Uganda and further in the continent of Africa may be considered given the results of this study. As other African countries, the government of Uganda discussed incentives to support work-life management that may improve the entrepreneurial activities of many women and their economic performance as well as their self-esteem. While individual initiative, competency, knowledge and resources are critical for the successful running of an enterprise, government policies also have a significant effect in promoting entrepreneurial activities (Sriram and Mersha, 2010). Dana and Ratten (2017) stated that government policies can also be used to enhance the knowledge and skills of individuals to increase innovation. In addition, many policymakers recognize entrepreneurship training as an important element that may improve skills and create jobs (Premand *et al.*, 2016). The results of this study may assist in improving women's entrepreneurship activity in Uganda through appropriate policy intervention.

Further studies of training programmes in other regions of Uganda may add to the findings of this work. Additional research in this area may consider other forms of training or the impact of the training over a longer period of time. Further analysis of respondent experiences before entrepreneurship training, during and after entrepreneurship training may add more to the existing literature and improve labour market outcomes of rural women in Uganda. This work is an exciting addition to the existing body of knowledge on rural female entrepreneurship, but it has also highlighted the depth of understanding that remains to be discovered. Overall, the overarching factors that limit rural female entrepreneurs for growth and the expansion of their businesses concern a lack of knowledge, poverty and a lack of support systems in their communities and from the state. Poverty and a lack of knowledge compelled all women to engage in their entrepreneurial activities. The participants interviewed highlighted some factors as contributing to

women's entrepreneurial activities, and these correspond to the assertion made in Chapter Two that individuals discover a variety of opportunities, depending on their ability, personal attributes and environmental factors. Further factors that influence nascent rural female entrepreneurs towards choosing entrepreneurial activities include psychological and demographical factors, in addition to the opportunities around them.

In the area of perceived emancipation, participants revealed that, when women are trained and motivated to start their own businesses, they become independent, with a change of attitude around business start-ups, gaining economic independence and having an opportunity to be more creative. All participants discussed how women are empowered when they undergo entrepreneurship training. The impact of training may also have an impact on self-employment, as individuals gain a better understanding of the factors involved in the efficient running of a business. Furthermore, the effectiveness of contextual changes is dependent upon psychological factors, such as the skills and knowledge of the individual women entrepreneurs (Bruhn and Zia, 2013). For example, Gielnik *et al.* (2017) found that, without the necessary skills and knowledge, women will not be able to start a new business even in the most progressive business environment.

Therefore, entrepreneurship training that provides entrepreneurial skills constitutes an important complementary factor that emancipates women to make use of a conducive business environment in such a way that it leads to an increase in entrepreneurship activity and job creation. The literature review in Chapter Two further found that entrepreneurship training programs focused on equipping women with knowledge and skills for launching and operating their business start-up (Katz, 2019). This is urged by other authors such as Martinez *et al.* (2010) that entrepreneurship training is regarded as a practical means to increase new business creation and entrepreneur business start-up.

Further results of the study had mixed results depending on the profile of the business start-up for rural female entrepreneurs. Women's businesses tend to be concentrated in certain sectors and findings show that they are smaller with few employees which exhibit slow growth for the economy. Some women have permanent businesses, but other results showed that during the rainy season many women may be in agri-business. In the dry season, a number of women change from agri-business to selling clothes, crafts or catering, although these business activities require business infrastructure and more capital to start and run it. The results of the study showed that a lack of finance was the main challenge for rural female entrepreneurs starting a business. However, many rural female entrepreneurs run small size enterprises which do not require a business infrastructure or registration with the authority, as it is called the informal sector. This is a challenge to the economy of Uganda as many businesses close down in their first year of business.

The main reason for business failure given by women from the focus groups was the lack of profitability or seasonal draught that happens regularly, or someone died in the family who would be the main player in the business. The study found that rural women entrepreneurs in Uganda contribute significantly to the economy especially through the agricultural sector, crafts, textile and garment industries and second-hand clothes and catering. For example, the literature review in Chapter Four found that women tend to enter businesses that have lower technical and financial barriers and these businesses do not require a lot of experience to run the business. However, this study found that marriage is a big hindrance to women starting their business, thus future efforts should be designed to cater for married women as a special category in all training programs. As discussed in the focus groups results, it is important to understand what are the women's needs and their background, family life, children and education as all these

can be a hindrance to women (particularly married women), but there should be an approach to work and support all women within their own capabilities.

Within the limitations and scope of this study, it can be confidently stated that the entrepreneurship training program efficiently and effectively enhanced perceived emancipation, knowledge and competence of rural nascent female entrepreneurs to potentially start new and/or improve existing businesses. Hence, well-designed entrepreneurship training programme intervention focused on emancipation and empowering rural women could increase their entrepreneurial activities, boost community and economic growth in the country. And finally, an adopted entrepreneurship training programme for nascent rural female entrepreneurs can be a desired strategy to offset perceived barriers, improve their business skills and increase job creation. The framework that is developed from the results of literature review and findings of the study that is discussed in this chapter may support and work as an evaluating tool of entrepreneurship training program for rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: CONSENT FORM

Researcher's Name	Please use block capitals SYLVIA GAVIGAN		
Academic Unit	Please indicate School/College/Centre etc. SCHOOL OF MARKETING/ COLLEGE OF BUSINESS/		
Title of Study	The Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training for the Perceived Emancipation Amongst Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda		
The following section should be completed by the research participant			
	Yes	No	
Have you been fully informed of the nature of this study by the researcher? (Note that this would typically include use of a participant information sheet.)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you had an opportunity to ask questions about this research?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you received satisfactory answers to all of your questions?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you received sufficient information about the potential health and/or safety implications of this research?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you been fully informed of your ability to withdraw participation and/or data from the research?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you been fully informed of what will happen to data generated by your participation in the study and how it will be kept safe?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Do you agree to take part in this study, the results of which may be disseminated in scientific publications, books or conference proceedings?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Have you been informed that this consent form shall be kept securely and in confidence by the researcher?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Name of Participant	Please use block capitals		
Signature of Participant		Date	
Signature of Researcher		Date	

APPENDIX 2: PRE-QUESTIONNAIRE IN-DEPTH INTERVIEWS



7 Stakeholders Semi-Structured In-depth Interview

Key Objectives:

1. To collect quality information to design the three sets of questionnaires.
2. Establish and identify the types of entrepreneurship training programmes offered to rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda.
3. Explore how trainers/ organizations encourage emancipation for rural women in Uganda
4. To establish how women are supported by the entrepreneurship policies in Uganda.
5. Establish the scale of work before travelling to collect data from Kiryandongo.

Respondent Details

- Name:
- Contact:
- Address:

Work Details

- Industry:
- Type of Company: Public / Private / Non-profit
- Respondent Job Title:

1. Entrepreneurship training.

Interviewer: Tell me about yourself and work?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What types of enterprise support does your organisation offer?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What profiles of people do you target (e.g. male/female; rural/urban; young/old)?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What kind of entrepreneurship training programme offered by your organisation?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: How does your organisation use expertise from external sources to develop specific skills to support rural women?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Does your organisation have a monitoring assessment method to monitor the development of these programmes?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: How does the training help the rural women?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What training modules are taught to women?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What impact does entrepreneurship training make for the rural women?

Interviewee:

2. Perceived Emancipation

Interviewer: Do you think that emancipation can be enhanced through entrepreneurship training?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Why do you think this is important for women in Uganda?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Can you suggest or think of some key elements that would emancipate women when they are trained in entrepreneurship?

Interviewee:

3. Entrepreneurial activities:

Interviewer: What type of businesses are run by women in your rural communities?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Do men and women start similar types of businesses?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Do women in Uganda have equal rights as men? Elaborate.

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Based on your experiences in rural community, would you encourage more women to start business?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What motivates women have to start their own businesses in rural communities?

Interviewee:

4. Challenges for Women to start their business:

Interviewer: What are the biggest challenges women face while starting their businesses?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Are their policies to support women in business in Uganda?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: How do women access funding to start a business?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: Is culture, beliefs and norms a support or a challenge for rural women in business?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: How does society perceive women in business?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What other information would you share to support rural female entrepreneurs?

Interviewee:

Interviewer: What information or advice would you offer to researcher before travelling to Kiryandongo?

Interviewee:

Thank you very much

Sylvia Gavigan

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE BEFORE ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING

Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda



Section A: Introduction

1. How did you hear about this entrepreneurship training program?

(Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- Word of mouth
- Friend
- Family
- Trainer
- By the organisation
- Newspaper
- Community local council
- Women network
- Internet
- What's app network
- Other (please specify)

2. Have you ever received any entrepreneurship training before?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

3. What kind of training did you receive?

(Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- Generating business idea
- Marketing
- Production
- Costing and pricing
- Bookkeeping
- Business plan
- Communication skills
- Leadership
- Financial literacy
- Customer care
- Other (please specify)

Section B: Business

4. Why do you wish to start your own business?

Please state your level of agreement or disagreement on a 5-scale ranking.

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
B 1 -To become independent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 2 -To support my family	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 3 -To make money	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 4 -To educate my children	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 5 -To be flexible	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 6 -To be financially independent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 7 -To have job stability	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 8 -To follow my dream	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B 9 -To be my own boss	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. Would you consider starting a business within the next 3 months?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

6. Do you think your family will support you to start a business?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

7. How will they support you? (Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- Work in business
- Help with finance
- Mentoring
- Market the business
- Encouragement
- Strong networks
- Emotional support
- Solidarity
- Social capital
- Other (please specify)

8. How do you rate yourself in terms of your knowledge to start a business? (Please mark (√) in appropriate box for each item)

	No knowledge 1	Some knowledge 2	Moderate knowledge 3	Good Knowledge 4	Excellent Knowledge 5
K 1 - Knowledge in finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 2 - Knowledge in business administration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 3 - Knowledge in management	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	No knowledge 1	Some knowledge 2	Moderate knowledge 3	Good Knowledge 4	Excellent Knowledge 5
K 4 - Knowledge in market information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 5 - Knowledge in accessing a loan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
K 6 - Knowledge in sales and profits	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 7 - Knowledge in networking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. How do you rank your competence for each of the following skills? (Please mark (√) in appropriate box for each item)

Business Skills Competence

	No Competence 1	Some Competence 2	Moderate Competence 3	Good Competence 4	Excellent Competence 5
S 1 - Business plan skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
S 2 - Decision making skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 3 - Management skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
S 4 - Entrepreneurial skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 5 - Customer care skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
S 6 - Communication skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 7 - Creativity and innovation skills	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
S 8 - Financial literacy skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 9 - Advertising a product/service	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section C: Emancipation

10. How do you rate yourself regarding the following key factors of emancipation?

(Please mark (√) in appropriate box for each item)

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
E 1 - I am capable of making personal decisions without the approval of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 2 - I believe I have the ability to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 3 - I am independent and choose my own life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 4 - I can run my own business without other people telling me what to do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 5 - I can use my personal knowledge of business to grow the enterprise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 6 – A flexible environment is key to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 7 - I have the freedom to start my own business to support my family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 8 - I am capable of declaring changes for my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 9 - I have complete autonomy in everything I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 10 - I am very good at controlling my emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 11 - I am capable of taking ownership of my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 12 – I am confident that starting my own business will help me to achieve equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 13 - Continuing to educate myself is a very important goal for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section D: Perceived barriers

11. What are the perceived barriers for you to start a business?

(Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
B 1 - Cultural differences	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 2 - Lack of finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 3 - Lack of business opportunities	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 4 - Lack of collateral	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 5 - Lack of childcare services	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 6 - Lack of marketing skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 7 - Lack of mentors	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 8 - Lack of family support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 9 - Lack of business skills	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 10 - Lack of government support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. What actions do you think the Ugandan government could take to increase start-ups by rural women? (Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- G 1 - Establish policies to increase entrepreneurship programs for rural women
 - G 2 - Establish entrepreneurship training programs for rural women
 - G 3 - Establish market opportunities for rural women
 - G 4 - Establish equal opportunities for rural women to own land
 - G 5 - Establish state loans and grants to support programs for rural women
 - G 6 - Establish policies that address the needs of rural entrepreneurs
 - G 7 - Establish a special funding scheme for women entrepreneurs
 - G 8 - Establish innovative enterprises in rural communities
 - G 9 - Establish an ecosystem that nurtures entrepreneurs
 - Other (please specify)
-

13. Do you think gender bias is an issue in Uganda?

- Yes
- No

Don't know

Section E: Demographics

14. Nationality: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- Ugandan
- Sudanese
- Democratic Republic of Congo
- Rwandan
- Other (please specify)

15. Age: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- Under 18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65+

16. Number of children: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- 0
- 1-2
- 3-5
- 6-10
- More than 10

17. What is your highest level of Education achieved?

- Primary
- Secondary
- Vocational
- University
- None
- Other (please specify)

18. Married Status

- Single
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced
- Widow
- Other (please specify)

19. Your occupation

- Housewife
- Salary employee
- Agriculture
- Shop owner/small business
- Road vendor
- Other (please specify)

Thank you.

Sylvia Gavigan

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APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRE IMMEDIATELY AFTER ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING FINISHED

Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda



Section A: Introduction;

The Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training to the Emancipation of Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda.

1. Did you enjoy the entrepreneurship training program?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

2. What were the main strengths of the trainers? Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you).

- T 1 - Ability to deliver course content to participants
- T 2 - Ability to relate content to my business needs
- T 3 - Ability to encourage participants to be independent
- T 4 - Ability to keep the group interested
- T 5 - Ability to communicate life skills
- T 6 - Ability to support training
- T 7 - Ability to support group interaction
- T 8 - Ability to relate to specific situations and participants
- T 9 - Ability to be both logical and creative
- T 10 - Ability to show genuine concern for the participants

3. How do you rate the entrepreneurship training program you attended?

- Very poor
- Poor
- Fair
- Good
- Excellent

No opinion

4. Would you recommend this training to another woman?

Yes

No

Don't know

5. Did you learn any new skill?

Yes

No

Don't know

Section B: Business

Business skills competence

6. How do you now rank your competence for each of the following skills?

Please mark (✓) in appropriate box)

	No competence 1	Some competence 2	Moderate competence 3	Good competence 4	Excellent competence 5
S 1 - Business planning skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
S 2 - Decision making skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 3 - Management skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 4 - Entrepreneurial competency skills	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 5 - Customer care skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 6 - Communication skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 7 - Creativity and innovation skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 8 - Financial literacy skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 9 - Advertising a product/service	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Knowledge:

7. How do you rate yourself in terms of your knowledge after entrepreneurship training? Please mark (√) in appropriate box).

	No knowledge 1	Some knowledge 2	Moderate knowledge 3	Good knowledge 4	Excellent knowledge 5
K 1 - Knowledge in finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 2 - Knowledge in business administration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 3 - Knowledge in management	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 4 - Knowledge in market information	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 5 - Knowledge in cash flow and sales	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 6 - Knowledge in accessing a loan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 7 - Knowledge in networking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. What topics of entrepreneurship training did you participate in? Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you).

- Business planning
- Marketing
- Business opportunities
- Business management
- Business idea
- Communication skills
- Customer care
- Team work
- Leadership
- Financial literacy
- Other (please specify)

9. Would you consider starting a business within 3 months?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

10. Do you think your family will support you to start a business?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

11. How will they support you? (Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- Work in business
- Help with finance
- With Mentoring
- Market the business
- Encouragement
- Shared core values
- Interest in the business
- Job security
- Greater loyalty
- Other (please specify)

Section C: Psychological Factors:

12. How does entrepreneurship training make a positive impact to your life? Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you).

- PF 1 - Increase my confidence
- PF 2 - Improve my business performance
- PF 3 - Gives sense of freedom
- PF 4 - Increase my self esteem
- PF 5 - Sense of belonging
- PF 6 - Increase my Independence
- PF 7 - Sense of Autonomy
- PF 8 - Increase job satisfaction
- Other (please specify)

Personal skills:

13. How do you rank your personal skills after the training? Please mark (√) in appropriate box).

	No competence 1	Some competence 2	Moderate competence 3	Good competence 4	Excellent competence 5
PS 1 -Good at teamwork	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 2 - Communication	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS -Leadership	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 3-Self-confidence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 4-Risk-taker	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 5-Setting goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 6-Negotiation	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 7-Self motivated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 8-Time management and keeping deadlines	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section D: Emancipation

**14. How do you rate yourself regarding the following key factors of emancipation?
Please mark (√) in appropriate box)**

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
E 1 - I am capable of making personal decisions without the approval of others	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 2 - I believe I have the perceived ability to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 3 - I am independent and choose my own life	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 4 - I can run my own business without other people telling me reflecting what to do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
E 5 - I use my personal knowledge of business to the enterprise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 6 - Flexible environment is key to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 7 - I have freedom to start my own business to support my family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 8 - I am capable of declaring changes for my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 9 - I wish to have complete autonomy in everything i do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 10 - I am very good in controlling my emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
E 11 - I am capable of taking ownership (authoring) for my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 12 - I am confident that starting my own business will help me to achieve equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 13 - Continuing to educate myself is a very important goal for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section E: Perceived barriers

15. What are the perceived barriers for you to start a business?

Rank strongly disagree to strongly agree. Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
B 1 - Cultural differences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 2 - Lack of finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 3 - Business opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 4 - Lack of collateral	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
B 5 - Lack of childcare services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 6 - Lack of marketing skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 7 - Lack of mentors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 8 - Lack of family support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 9 - Lack of business skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section F: Demographics

16. Nationality: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- Ugandan
- Sudanese
- Democratic Republic of Congo
- Rwandan
- Other (please specify)

17. Age: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- Under 18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65+

18. Number of children: Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

- 0
- 1-2
- 3-5
- 6-10
- More than 10

19. What is your highest level of Education achieved?

- Primary
- Secondary
- Vocational
- University
- None

20. Married Status

- Single
- Married
- Separated/divorced
- Widow
- Other (please specify)

21. Your occupation

- House wife
- Salary employee
- Agriculture
- Shop owner/small business
- Road vendor
- Other specify

Thank you.

Sylvia Gavigan

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APPENDIX 5: QUESTIONNAIRE 4 MONTHS AFTER ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING

Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda



Section A: Introduction

1. Did you attend the Entrepreneurship training program in January 2019? Please mark (✓) only one box. If NO, participant WILL NOT continue with survey)

- Yes
- No
- No opinion

2. On a scale of 1-6, how do you rate the training program? Please mark (✓) only one box.

- Very poor
- Poor
- Fair
- Good
- Excellent
- No opinion

3. On a scale of 1-6, how effective was the program in helping you to start your own business? Please mark (✓) only one box.

- Highly ineffective
- Somewhat effective
- Moderately effective
- Effective
- Highly effective
- No opinion

Section B: Business Skills

4. How do you rank your personal skills after the training? Please mark (√) in appropriate box).

	No competence 1	Some competence 2	Moderate competence 3	Good competence 4	Excellent competence 5
PS 1 -Good at teamwork	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 2 - Communication	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS -Leadership	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 3-Self-confidence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 4-Risk-taker	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 5-Setting goals	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 6-Negotiation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 7-Self motivated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
PS 8-Time management and keeping deadlines	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

5. How do you rank your competence for each of the following skills? Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

	No competence 1	Some competence 2	Moderate competence 3	Good competence 4	Excellent competence 5
S 1 - Business planning skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
S 2 - Decision making skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 3 - Management skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 4 - Entrepreneurial competency skills	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 5 - Customer care skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 6 - Communication skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	No competence 1	Some competence 2	Moderate competence 3	Good competence 4	Excellent competence 5
S 7 - Creativity and innovation skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 8 - Financial literacy skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
S 9 - Advertising a product/service	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. How do you rate yourself in terms of your knowledge in business? (Please mark (√) in appropriate box).

	No knowledge 1	Some knowledge 2	Moderate knowledge 3	Good knowledge 4	Excellent knowledge 5
K 1 - Knowledge in finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 2 - Knowledge in business administration	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 3 - Knowledge in management	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 4 - Knowledge in market information	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 5 - Knowledge in cash flow and sales	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 6 - Knowledge in accessing a loan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
K 7 - Knowledge in networking	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. What topics of entrepreneurship training did you participate in? Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you).

- Business planning
- Marketing
- Business opportunities
- Savings and loan
- Business idea
- Communication skills
- Customer care
- Teamwork
- Financial literacy
- Other (please specify)

Section C: Emancipation

8. How does entrepreneurship training make a positive impact to your life? Please mark (✓) in all boxes appropriate to you).

- PF 1 - Increase my confidence
- PF 2 - Improve my business performance
- PF 3 - Gives sense of freedom
- PF 4 - Increase my self esteem
- PF 5 - Sense of belonging
- PF 6 - Increase my Independence
- PF 7 - Sense of Autonomy
- PF 8 - Increase job satisfaction
- Other (please specify)

9. How do you rate yourself regarding the following key factors of emancipation?

Please mark (✓) in appropriate box)

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
E 1 - I am capable of making personal decisions without the approval of others	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 2 - I believe i have the perceived ability to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 3 - I am independent and choose my own life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 4 - I can run my own business without other people telling me reflecting what to do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 5 - I use my personal knowledge of business to the enterprise	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 6 - Flexible environment is key to start my own business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 7 - I have freedom to start my own business to support my family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
E 8 - I am capable of declaring changes for my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 9 - I wish to have complete autonomy in everything I do	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 10 - I am very good in controlling my emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
E 11 - I am capable of taking ownership (authoring) for my business	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 12 - I am confident that starting my own business will help me to achieve equality	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
E 13 - Continuing to educate myself is a very important goal for me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. What are the perceived barriers for you to start a business? Rank strongly disagree to strongly agree. Please mark (√) in appropriate box)

	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Undecided 3	Agree 4	Strongly agree 5
B 1 - Cultural differences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 2 - Lack of finance	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 3 - Business opportunities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 4 - Lack of collateral	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 5 - Lack of childcare services	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 6 - Lack of marketing skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 7 - Lack of mentors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 8 - Lack of family support	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
B 9 - Lack of business skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Section D: Business start-up

11. Do you currently have your own business activity? Please mark (√) only one box. (If ANSWER NO GO TO SECTION E)

- Yes
- No
- No opinion

12. When did you start your business? Please mark (√) only one box.

- Since training program finished. (0 -11 Months).
- Within last 12 months
- Within 2 years
- Within 5 years
- More than 5 years

13. Which Business Activity are you involved in? Please mark (√) only one box.

- S 1 – Agri-business
- S 2 - Crafts
- S 3 – Road Vendor
- S 4 – Small shop
- S 5 - Catering
- S 6 – Beauty saloon
- S 7 – Selling clothes
- S 8 – Other (please specify)

14. What is your turn over per month? Please mark (√) only one box.

- 0 -150,000 UGX
- 150,001- 300,000 UGX
- 300,001 - 500,000 UGX
- 500,001 – 1 Million UGX
- Above 1 Million

15. How many full-time employees in your business? Please mark (√) only one box.

- 0

- 1 - 2
- 3 - 5
- 6 - 10
- 11 +

16. How many part- time employees in your business? Please mark (√) only one box.

- 0
- 1 - 2
- 3 - 5
- 6 - 10
- 11 +

17. What are the reasons for starting your business?

- Entrepreneurial opportunity
- Become independent
- Income generation
- Lack of child care
- Necessity
- Other (Please specify)

18. Did your family support you to start-up your business?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

19. How does the family support you? (Please mark (√) in all boxes appropriate to you)

- Work in business
- Help with finance
- With Mentoring
- Market the business
- Encouragement
- Emotion support
- Social capital
- Other (please specify)

20. Would you consider registering your business? Please mark (√) only one box.

- Yes
- No
- Don't know

21. What reasons for registering your Business? Please mark (√) only one box.

- Confidence with stakeholders
- Access to financial services and loans
- Access to Government contract
- Partnership with international businesses
- Supplier arrangements
- Other (please specify)

22. To what extent does domestic chores affect your business? Please mark (√) in appropriate box.

- C 1 – Fetching water
- C 2 – Collecting firewood
- C 3 – Cooking
- C 4 – Cleaning
- C 5 – Child minding
- C 6 – Care for the elderly
- C 7 – Working in the garden

- Other (please specify)

23. Have you ever closed a business? Please mark (√) only one box).

- Yes
- No
- No opinion

24. What are the contributing factors for you to close your business?

- Lack of finance
- Lack of market

- Lack of skills
- Lack of opportunity
- Lack of support from spouse
- Lack of child care
- Other (please specify)

Section E: Demographics

25. Nationality: Please mark (√) only one box.

- Ugandan
- Sudanese
- Democratic Republic of Congo
- Rwandan
- Other (please specify)

26. Age: Please mark (√) only one box.

- Under 18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65+

27. Number of children: Please mark (√) only one box.

- 0
- 1-2
- 3-5
- 6-10
- More than 10

28. What is your highest level of Education achieved? Please mark (√) only one box.

- Primary

- Secondary
- Vocational
- University
- None

29. Married Status. Please mark (√) only one box.

- Single
- Married
- Separated/divorced
- Widow
- Other (please specify)

30. Your occupation. Please mark (√) only one box.

- Salary employee
- Agriculture
- Shop owner/small business
- Road vendor
- Other (please specify)

31. Do you own a mobile phone? Please mark (√) only one box.

- Yes
- No
- No opinion

32. What percentage of mobile phone use for your business? Please mark (√) only one box).

- 0 – 20%
- 21 – 40%
- 41 – 60%
- 61 - 80%
- 81 – 100%

Thank you.

Sylvia Gavigan

Technological University Dublin, City Campus, Ireland. Tel: +353857105667,

Email: skgavigan@gmain.com

APPENDIX 6: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE



Date: 8th – 9th July 2019

Engagement Question	Exploration Questions	Exit Question
<p>Introduction</p> <p>(Key Facilitator introduce herself and assistant).</p> <p>a) Welcoming the women Thank you for volunteering for our focus group. Briefly say your first name and tell us your business.</p> <p>b) Agenda:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Training/Skills 2. Business start-up 3. Emancipation 4. Challenges before start-up and when running a business <p>(15 MINUTES)</p>		
<p>Q- Training/Skills (1)</p> <p>(20 minutes)</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why did you want to be trained in entrepreneurship? 2. How did this impact your decision to start a business? 3. What are the benefits of entrepreneurship training for you? 	<p>Would the group like to share more about the entrepreneurship training? Or to add on what is being shared by the group.</p>

Engagement Question	Exploration Questions	Exit Question
<p>Q- Business start-up(2) Before starting your business were you employed?</p> <p>(20 Minutes)</p>	<p>1. What was your primary reason for starting a business?</p> <p>2. How and why did you decide on that business?</p> <p>3. Was there a need to borrow money to start your business or did you make a business decision to borrow money to start the business?</p> <p>-If you needed to borrow money, did you feel confident and free to talk about it?</p> <p>- Has anyone used micro-finance or a bank? If so what was your experiences?</p>	<p>- Based on this discussion, is there anything else the group would like to add about your reasons for starting a business.</p> <p>- Have there been any other experiences that have shaped your business start-up?</p> <p>Is there any contributing factors that influenced you and your decisions to start-up a business?</p> <p>Are there any contributing barriers in accessing a loan for your business if needed?</p>
<p>Q – Emancipation (3)</p> <p>(20 MINUTES)</p>	<p>1. Do you think the training program helped you to become more independent in running your business?</p> <p>2. How did it help you?</p> <p>3. Do you make decisions for your business?</p> <p>4. Do you have freedom to run your business?</p>	<p>Are there any other contributing factors to Emancipation that we have not discussed that have had an impact on you?</p>
<p>Q- Barriers and Challenges (4)</p> <p>(20 MINUTES)</p>	<p>1. What do you consider your biggest challenges that you face?</p> <p>2. Are any challenges associated with culture?</p> <p>3. Are there any factors that we have not discussed related to challenges?</p>	<p>If you have any more challenges please discuss through as we wrap up.</p>
<p>Thank you and wrap up. (5 MINUTES)</p>	<p>Total time: 1 hour and 40 minutes</p>	<p>To account for closing discussion on each topic.</p>

APPENDIX 7: SELF-HELP AFRICA ENTREPRENEURSHIP TRAINING PROGRAMME

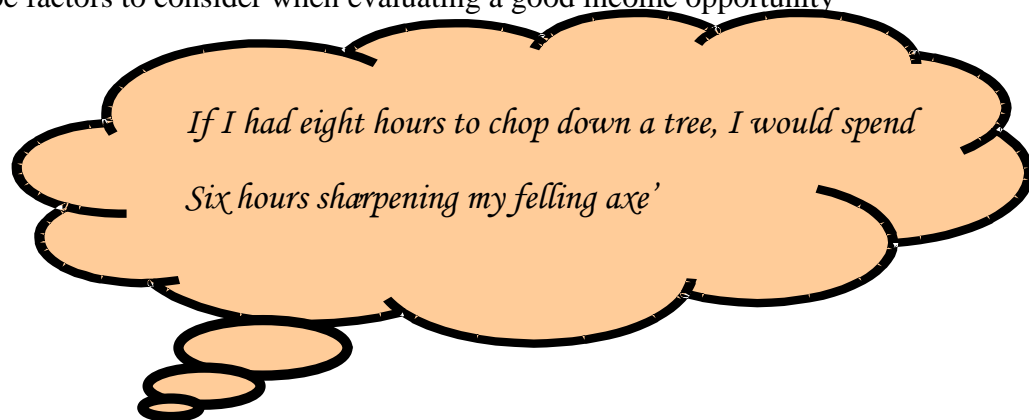
INTRODUCTION

MODULE ONE: PSYCHOLOGY/COUNSELLING

Training objectives:

By the end of the training, participants should be able to;

- Choose good income generating activities
- Identify good income generating activities
- Describe factors to consider when evaluating a good income opportunity



1.1 What is a good income Generating opportunity?

1.2 What to consider when evaluating a good business opportunity

You will be assisted to know a good income generating opportunity by the following characteristics:

- Your interest and hobbies
- Demand
- Return on investments
- Availability of resources
- Skill requirement

MODULE TWO: ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Overall objective

To increase knowledge and skills on entrepreneurship to the IGA beneficiaries

Specific Objectives

- To enable participants, understand the factors to consider when starting a business.
- To stimulate participants thinking in identifying business opportunities

1.1 Factors to consider when starting a business

- Personal abilities
- Government policies / regulations
- Infrastructure
- The economy of the society
- **Competition**
- **Market**
- **Community and culture:**

1.2 How to identify business opportunities

- Indicators that can help to identify business opportunity
- Environment
- Current business scene
- The target group
- Business opportunity selection

Some characteristics of a successful entrepreneur.

1.3 Why businesses fail

- Four things to consider when evaluating your market opportunity (Marketing Mix)
- Product (Or service)
- Price (Amount pegged to a product)
- Place (Where you sell and distribute)
- Promotion (Tempt customers to buy your product)

APPENDIX 8: ETHICAL CONSIDERATION CERTIFICATE



Research Ethics and Integrity Committee,
Technological University Dublin - City Campus
Dublin 8.

18/03/2020

Dear Sylvia,

The Research Ethics and Integrity Committee of the Dublin Institute of Technology has reviewed your application entitled Evaluating the contribution of Entrepreneurship Education to the Emancipation of Nascent Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda, our reference REC-18-70.

Your application has been approved. If there are any changes in the research as described in your submission (REC-18-70) you must contact the REIC.

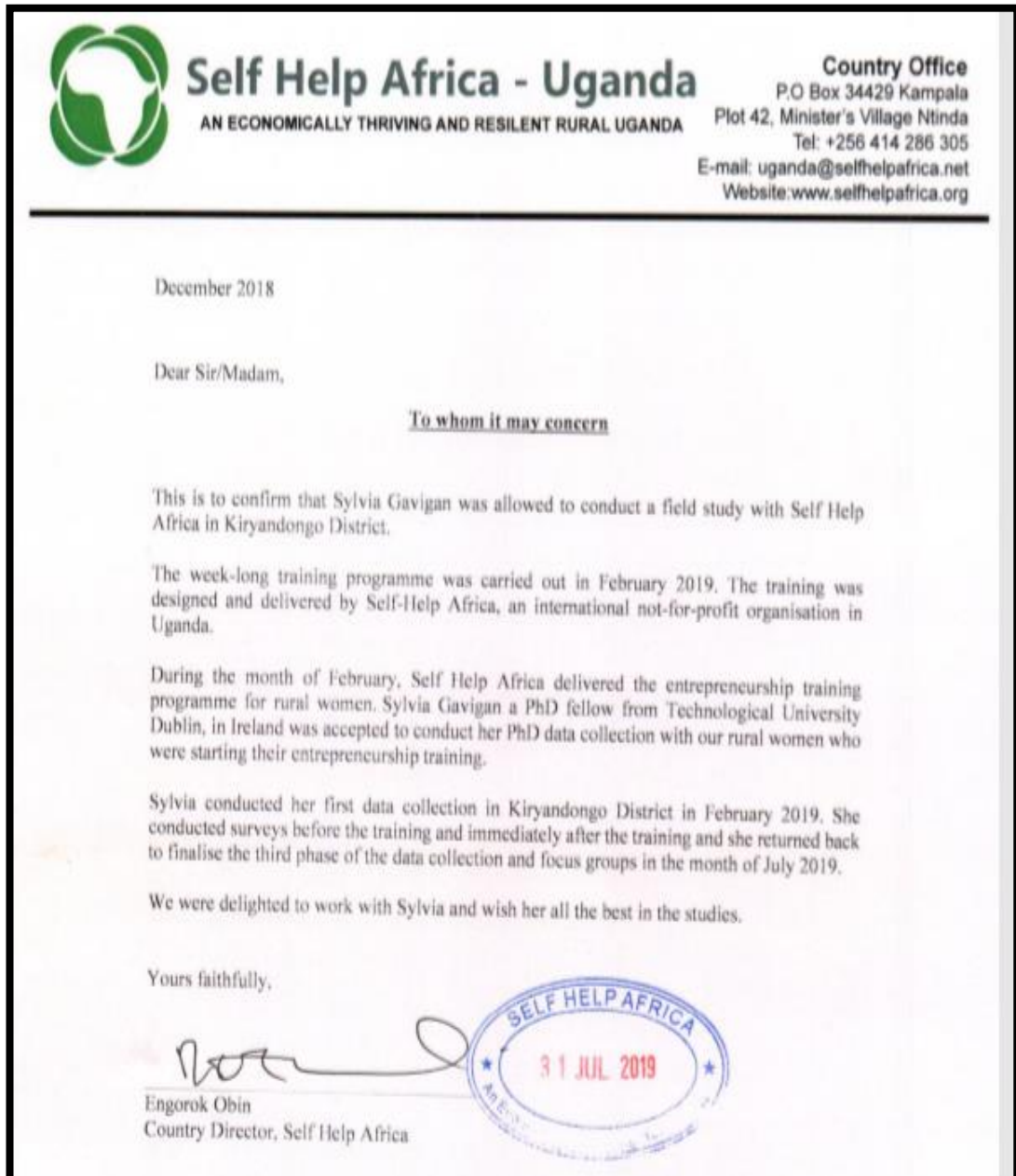
The committee would like to wish you the best of luck with your work.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Steve Meaney', written over a horizontal blue line.

Steve Meaney, PhD
Chair - Research Ethics and Integrity Committee, Technological University Dublin - City Campus

APPENDIX 8: LETTER ALLOWING THE RESEARCHER TO COLLECT DATA



APPENDIX 10: RESULTS OF STRUCTURED PHD MODULES TAKEN

Module Title	Grade	Date Module was undertaken	Institution where the module was taken	No. of ECTS
BSRM 1001 Business Research Me	Pass	26-Sep-16	DIT	5
GRSO 1010 Introduction to Pedagogy	Pass	23-Jan-17	DIT	5
PRJM 2000 Project Management	Pass	23-Jan-17	DIT	5
Annual Evaluation 2016	Pass	21-Jun-16	DIT	n/a
SOC 9003 Theory to Practice	Pass	22-Jan-18	DIT	5
GRSO1005 Introduction to Statistics	Pass	16-Mar-18	DIT	5
GRSO1001 Research Methods	Pass	09-Oct-17	DIT	5
Summer School in Impact Evaluation	Pass	13-Sep-17	TCD	4
LTTC 9133 Higher Education Policy	Pass	30-Oct-18	DIT	10
MANG 9001 The Effective Manager	DNA	22/10/2018	DIT	DNA
GradCAM XXXX Philosophy of Science	DNA	17-Sep-18	DIT	DNA
Annual Evaluation 2019	Pass	12-Jun-19	TU Dublin	n/a
Annual Evaluation 2020	Pass	20-Jul-20	TU Dublin	na

APPENDIX 11: PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCES

Published Articles:

- Gavigan, Ciprikis & Cooney (2020). The impact of entrepreneurship training on self-employment of rural female entrepreneurs in Uganda, *Small Enterprise Research*, 27:2, 180-194
- Gavigan, S. and Kyejjusa, S. (2020). In Uganda, Rural women entrepreneurs are escaping poverty with teamwork and training. <https://www.opendemocracy.net/en/womens-entrepreneurial-journeys/uganda-rural-women-entrepreneurs-are-escaping-poverty-teamwork-and-training/>
- Gavigan, S. (2017). Mixed Research Methods. In K. Lawlor & P. Buckley (Eds.), Proceedings of the 16th European Conference on *Research Methods in Business and Management Studies* (pp. 424-431). Dublin: Dublin Institute of Technology.

Book Chapters:

- Gavigan, Ciprikis & Cooney (2021). Evaluating the Contribution of Entrepreneurship Training, Perceived Emancipation and Value Creation for Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda. *Research Handbook on Women's Entrepreneurship and Value Creation*. Book Chapter, to be published soon. Publisher, Edward Elgar.
- Gavigan, Ciprikis & Cooney (2021). The Impact of Entrepreneurship Training on Everyday Experiences of Rural Female Entrepreneurs in Uganda. *Handbook on Women and Global entrepreneurship: Contextualising everyday experiences*. Book Chapter, to be published soon. Publisher, Routledge.

In Review:

- Gavigan, Ciprikis, Cooney & Oliveira (2021), The Relationship between Entrepreneurship Training and Emancipation of Rural Women: How Does it Differ According to Marital Status? 'The De Gruyter Handbook of Rural Entrepreneurship in Developing Economies: Research, Policy and Practice.'

Conference Paper:

- Gavigan, S. (2019), Rural female entrepreneurs and Culture, *Diana International Research Conference 2019*, Babson College, Wellesley, Mass., USA, June 2-5, 2019

Other publications:

- Gavigan, S. (2019, November). Entrepreneurs in Uganda are taking control of their own destiny. https://www.irishtimes.com/topics/topics/7.1213540-article=true&tag_person=Sylvia+Gavigan
- Gavigan, S., (2018, August). Education vital for girls in rural Uganda. Education matters. Retrieved from <https://educationmatters.ie/why-education-is-vital-for-girls-in-rural-uganda/>
- Gavigan, S. (2017, August 21st). Masaka women trained on how to sustain themselves. New Vision. Retrieved from <https://www.newvision.co.ug/news/1460250/masaka-women-trained-sustain>
- UN Conference: July 2016 – Nairobi UNCTAD 14, a Paper on Female entrepreneurs doing business in Africa. http://unctad14.org/Documents/U14_DailyJournal_7_en.pdf